WAUU JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS AND CONTEMPORARY STUDIES

A Bi-annual; Multi-disciplinary Journal Publication
of The West African Union University
Institute Press, Cotonou, Republic of Benin

WJIACS

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WAUU JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS AND CONTEMPORARY STUDIES | Vol 1(1), Oct., 2021

Published October 2021

By

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Submission of Articles Guidelines
- Papers should not be more than 18 pages and should be accompanied with an abstract of not more than 250 words.
- The following referencing styles are allowed-APA, MLA and Chicago.
- Articles should be typed in Times New Romans, font size 12 and 1.5 line spacing.

Note: Opinions expressed in the journal are not of the University Press and Editorial Team but are sure that of the authors.

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TERRORISM AND THE QUESTION OF FINANCIAL CRIMES: A CRITICAL DISCOURSE

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Abstract

The major thrust of this paper is to address the question of financial crimes from the act of the terrorists. As such "Terrorists cannot terrorize without money, without resources; training costs money, planning costs money and explosives cost money, plane tickets cost money and where does that money come from?. Terrorism financing comes from diverse sources namely money laundering, organized crime, smuggling, and prostitution, drug and weapon trade among others. Financial crime threatens the safety and soundness of financial systems worldwide. These crimes range from fairly simple operation, carried out by individuals or small groups, to highly sophisticated rings seeking funding for criminal enterprises or terrorism. Argument of the paper through interrogation of relevant primary and secondary sources is that although financial criminals are often well organized and persistent, the bankers and citizens can take proactive steps to counter their attempts. They have long used money laundering schemes to conceal or "clean" the source of fraudulently obtained or stolen funds. With the advent of terrorists who employ money-laundering techniques to fund their operations, the risk expands to encompass the safety and security of the nations. Through sound operations, banks play an important role in helping investigative and regulatory agencies identify money-laundering entities and take appropriate action. It concludes that the international community has long recognized that the problems of money laundering and terrorism require a coordinated approach. For many years, a number of international organizations have developed standards for combating money laundering, terrorism, and terrorist financing. Have these measures really worked?

Keywords: Tax haven, Banking crime, Money laundering, Tax evasion

Introduction

Terrorism to a very large extent is the use of criminal violence to force a government policy change. Generally, terrorists prefer to target people rather than facilities because of the high value most governments give to human life. Since terrorism wants to draw attention to its cause and magnify its limited power, it will try to use the media to dramatize its activities. Defense against terrorism is difficult because of terrorism's surprise advantage, since defenders generally do not know the type, extent, timing, or precise locale of the next attack. Still, preventive measures are the best defense against terrorism, given the difficulty of retaliating against terrorists and the likelihood that retaliatory strikes will harm or kill innocent civilians and swell the number of recruits to terrorism. Be that as it may, state-sponsored terrorism marks an expansion of the resources available to terrorists and also increases the risk of war between nations. Prevention of terrorist attacks against military installations and personnel requires that officers have a thorough knowledge of terrorist tactics.

Terrorist financing is a unique form of financial crime. Unlike money laundering, which is finding dirty money that is trying to hide; terrorist financing is often clean money being used for lethal purposes. In the words of David Aufhauser, "terrorism is an enterprise – scouting, recruiting, transporting, training, arming, targeting, conceal, executing, and escaping. It takes a great deal of money" (Aufhauser, 2003). The source of the money used to equip terrorists by providing intelligence gathering, weaponry and armoury, logistics, severance packages, emoluments or to put a bomb in the hand of a terrorist is often legitimate - as in the case of charitable donations or profits from store-front businesses diverted from their ostensible use - and the ultimate goal is not necessarily the attainment of more funds.

Our knowledge of how terrorists fund their operations today has continued to develop as

they are continually re-evaluating tools, expertise and resources to reflect this more sophisticated understanding of how to use the financial sector to carry out their nefarious activities. In the same manner, security agencies have also upped the ante in dealing with financial crimes with terrorist underpinnings. For example, the United States rather than designating all of the individual charities who may provide support to the families of suicide bombers, the targets are the key international charities that fund them - such as the Holy Land Foundation for Relief and Development, the Global Relief Foundation, the Benevolence International Foundation and, most recently, the al Aqsa Foundation - a few key targets that make it more difficult for all the others. Likewise, rather than just designating a terrorist organization, such as Jemaah Islamiya, the US also designate key leaders who have control over financial operations and can direct the movement of money.

Terrorist groups are all different. Modern terrorist networks are comprised of loosely connected transnational webs of autonomous cells. Some are formed around social circles, friendship or family connections. Some are solo terrorists who emerge for idiosyncratic personal and ideological reasons. Other larger terrorist groups exist that are embedded within larger communities where they emerge from time-to-time to strike against the oppressive state or local enemies. Almost all terrorist groups have significant transnational linkages with dynamic flows of ideas, arms and money. Terrorist organisations and their activities revolve around five core dimensions: operations; propaganda and recruitment; training; salaries; and provision of social services. Groups differ significantly as to their capabilities and focus. It is, however, clear that terrorist activities do not require substantial funding and is often generated through a combination of legal and illicit means of which one is financial crime. The major plank of this paper therefore, is to interrogate the link between terrorism and financial crime by examining the principal sources of funding and the means used to move money that terrorist organizations and their supporters use to plan attacks and to support their networks.

Organized Crime and Terrorism: The Strange Links Network

Money laundering and the financing of terrorism may be seen as distinct activities. The laundering of criminal funds aims at giving a legal appearance to dirty money, whereas the laundering of terrorist funds aims at obscuring assets of a legal origin (such as public funding or so-called charities). This distinction is useless, however, since the objective of public policies is not to address the issue of the processing of illegal funds, but the funds themselves and the organizations behind them. In this regard, criminal assets and terrorist assets represent the same threats to financial systems and public institutions, and it is clear that the strategies designed to fight criminals when they channel their funds through financial systems may apply with the same success in combating terrorist financing cases. In addition, mysterious ties often unite organized crime and terrorism.

A sort of objective alliance forms in many instances between criminal and terrorists groups, fed by their convergent interests: criminal organizations benefit from the ability of terrorist and guerrilla organizations to do damage, while the latter in turn benefit from the financing that criminal activities can obtain for them. The strange similarity between the geography of terrorism movements and other guerrillas and the geography of large-scale drug trafficking is self-explanatory: the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Colombia (FARC) are to be found in coca producing areas, whilst the African civil wars are taking place in areas where precious stones and other natural riches are extracted; the soldiers of Al-Qaeda in Afghanistan and the Khun Sa rebels in Myanmar foment their armed actions in the world's largest opium-producing areas. Cambodia, Chechnya, the Balkans, and Sri Lanka are equally interesting areas for studying the manner in which ideology can become the front for organized crime, or the manner in which organized crime can come to the aid of terrorist causes.

Terrorist groups operate closely with elements within diaspora communities in the West to generate funding. It is important to recognize that informal transfers of funds through remittances from the diaspora are essential for

the survival of e.g. the Somali community. Many Somalis are often dependent on relatives abroad who send home about $1.3bn annually (Guardian, 2015). There is, however, evidence that alShabaab has exploited the remittance system, or hawala, to generate funding either through cash couriers or appropriation of funds through hawala as a tax. While this abuse represents a miniscule proportion of all Somali remittances, it is crucial that there is a possibility for transfer of genuine remittances as they constitute a vital humanitarian lifeline for Somalis (Trindle, 2015).

Closure of genuine possibilities to transfer remittances will drive money transfers underground and will heavily punish the entire Somali community. At the same time, it is important for the banking sector to recognize that it cannot guarantee wire transfers will not reach al-Shabaab as it "is known to steal from local citizens, impose taxes on humanitarian aid, kidnap victims for ransoms, and otherwise terrorize those who live in the territory the group controls across the country (Trindle, 2015)." Given that Kenya remains the largest Somali expat and refugee community in the world it becomes important to monitor transfer of remittances, especially Eastleigh is a financial hub for remittances abroad. Al-Shabaab's recent bombing campaign in Kenya resulted in its members being forced underground and its popular support declined in Nairobi and in Eastleigh (Villkko, 2011). Other terrorist organisations remain actively involved with their diaspora communities where they fund-raise for terrorist-related support. They do so either through coercion or voluntary contributions. The Sri Lankan Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam (LTTE) have focused extensively on the Tamil community living in the West as significant source of financial and political support for its struggle to establish an independent state, "Tamil Eelam," for the Tamil minority in North and East Sri Lanka.

The Lebanese Hizballah organisation is also active in the diaspora communities using a global complex web of charities and front organisations to raise funds. Most of these activities are based where wealthy Shiites live in West Africa, sub-Saharan Africa, South America and elsewhere and contribute with fund-raising activities, ranging from diamonds, cigarette-smuggling, counterfeit goods, counterfeit drugs, import-export scams, and other illicit activities (Levitt, 2005).

Outside the role of terrorist groups, who exploit remittance systems and fundraising through their diaspora communities, there are loosely autonomous terrorist networks affiliated with al-Qaeda and other militant Islamist groups. Most of these terrorist groups operate on mission-demand and operational costs, generating funding through a wide variety of financial activities, ranging from charity contributions, donations, credit card fraud, and bank fraud, to more complex self-financing schemes such as document forgery, welfare fraud, robberies, etc. There is, however, a significant risk of terrorist finance transfer of funds between so-called parent-groups and their affiliated satellites. For example, the Islamic State of Iraq and the Levant (ISIL) and associated pledges of allegiances from terrorist groups in different geographical locations increase the risk of cross transactions between terrorist groups. This is a major risk as ISIL maintain close interaction with its wiliyats (or provinces) established in Libya, Yemen, Sinai, and Khorasan (Afghanistan). There are, already, indications that these satellite affiliated groups are searching for ways to provide financial support to ISIL (Adeel, 2013). It is also difficult to target as ISIL have such diversified portfolio of funding sources, ranging from oil, taxation/extortion, kidnappings, sale of antiquities, Iraqi banks, looted property, real estate, individual contributions from foreign fighters, agriculture, natural resources, human trafficking, etc (Swanson, 2015).

The ultimate goal of terrorist financing is destruction. Over the years, it has been observed that terrorists employ a wide range of terrorist financing mechanisms, both to raise and move money, and the means used by particular terrorist organizations vary from group to group. Some terrorist groups, such as those in Africa, Europe, East Asia, and Latin America, rely on common criminal activities including extortion, kidnapping, narcotics trafficking, counterfeiting, and fraud to support their terrorist acts. Other groups, such as those in the Middle East, rely on commercial enterprises, donations, and funds skimmed

from charitable organizations to not only fund their activities but also to move materiel and personnel. Still other groups rely on state sponsors for funding. But both terrorist financing and traditional financial crimes have one thing in common – they leave a financial footprint that allows us to trace financial flows, unravel terrorist financing networks, and uncover terrorist sleeper cells.

Criminal activities are today an increasingly more important part of the terrorist economy, and these activities vary according to the terrorist organizations concerned. The criminal activity that provides by far the largest funding for terrorism is drug trafficking. However, other activities also provide significant sources of funding, and include: racketeering, sometimes discreetly called a "revolutionary tax" (ETA, FLNC, IRA), abductions with ransom demands (Colombian paramilitary groups, groups active in the republics of the former Soviet Union), trafficking in precious stones (Khmer Rouge, rebel groups in Sierra Leone and in Angola), as well as procuring and trafficking in human beings. Arms trafficking is a separate case in that it is both the source of financing and involves the use of these resources and also combines with other types of trafficking in which it is a medium of exchange Government-provided financing used to be the principal source of income for terrorist organizations during the cold war period, when regional conflicts often were battle fields for the two blocs, and each terrorist cause an opportunity to destabilize or disorganize the other bloc.

The end of the cold war has dried up this source of financing. Although some isolated states continue to provide certain terrorist groups with weapons, training camps and financing, the principal terrorist organizations have had to look elsewhere for support. Collecting funds from those in the diaspora, although a long-standing practice has become a significant source of financing terrorism. The IRA has drawn a large part of its revenues from the Irish community in the United States, and this has also been done by the GIA in Algeria, by the Al-Qaeda, Sri Lankan rebels, Armenian terrorists, to cite just a few, seeking funds from compatriots who are on exile or are expatriates for economic reasons. Charitable

organizations play a big part in this mode of financing, which explains why they are particularly targeted in current strategies. But it is also because charitable organizations could mingle legitimate proceeds from individuals and private enterprises (whether voluntary or not), and governments with the proceeds from criminal activities, all behind a charitable façade, that makes potential investigations unseemly and makes it difficult to distinguish dirty money from clean money.

What are Financial Crimes?
Profits generated by some organized criminal activities, such as drug trafficking or traffic in human beings, cause a threat not only to public safety, because of the huge economic power accumulated by a number of criminal organizations, but also financial systems themselves and to economic development. Recent events showed that terrorist groups also build financial empires, the purpose of which are specifically to undermine public safety and international financial stability. The international efforts to combat money laundering since the beginning of the 1990s are built on strategies aiming at attacking criminal organizations through their financial operations, firstly to deprive them of the means to act, and secondly, by unraveling the web of their financial networks and financing methods; to gain knowledge of how better to combat them.

This strategy was first developed in the late 1980s, when law enforcement was faced with the growing threat caused by the Colombian drug cartels, particularly the Cali and Medellin cartels. Both criminal organizations accumulated such wealth and power that the issue turned from a public safety problem to a threat against the State itself. The anti-money-laundering strategy developed at that time was in response to the reality that the traditional means for combating organized crime had reached the limits. The only existing weakness of criminal organizations was their need to utilize the legal channels of the banking and financial system to transfer funds and disguise the origin of assets. The necessity to put these funds "on the market" made them extremely vulnerable, and tracing the laundering process was a more cost-effective and a less dangerous means to achieve law enforcement

objectives. Such a strategy had also the advantage of targeting efforts on the richest and thus most dangerous criminal organizations.

Economic-financial crime, also known as "white collar crime", generates the greatest harm to global economy. However, offenders who commit crimes in this area are viewed by society as people who have found a solution to circumvent to "coercive" acts of the state, ie increasing taxes. As a result, these individuals are not considered criminal, although criminal law makes no distinction, they are actually regarded with respect, they are considered "business people" who do not deserve to be held accountable for founding solutions, even illegal, to the fiscal laws of the State in which business operates (Voicu Boro, Sandu, Molnar, Gorunescu, Corlateanu, 2006). Financial crime threatens the safety and soundness of financial systems worldwide. These crimes range from fairly simple operation, carried out by individuals or small groups, to highly sophisticated rings seeking funding for criminal enterprises or terrorism. Although financial criminals are often well organized and persistent, the bankers and citizens can take proactive steps to counter their attempts. They have long used money laundering schemes to conceal or "clean" the source of fraudulently obtained or stolen funds. Money laundering poses significant risks to the safety and soundness of the US financial field. With the advent of terrorists who employ money-laundering techniques to fund their operations, the risk expands to encompass the safety and security of the nation. Through sound operations, banks play an important role in helping investigative and regulatory agencies identify money-laundering entities and take appropriate action.

Investigation and analysis by intelligence and enforcement agencies have clearly revealed that terrorist organizations utilize charities to facilitate funding and to funnel money (Aufhauser, 2003). Charitable donations to non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are commingled and then sometimes diverted or siphoned to groups or organizations that support terrorism. Fundraising may involve community solicitation in the United States, Canada, Europe, and the Middle East or solicitations directly to wealthy donors. Though these charities may be offering humanitarian services here or abroad, funds raised by these various charities are sometimes diverted to terrorist causes. This scheme is particularly troubling because of the perverse use of funds donated in goodwill to fuel terrorist acts. We have seen clear examples of this type of scheme in our efforts to identify and freeze terrorist-related assets (Aufhauser, 2003). In one instance, Hamas, a foreign terrorist organization, used the largest U.S. Islamic charity, the Holy Land Foundation for Relief and Development (Holy Land), as a fundraising source for its terrorist activities.

In addition to abusing charities as a means of terrorist financing, supporters of terrorist groups create front businesses and corporations, transfer funds between them, and "layer" the financial transactions to avoid detection. Seemingly legitimate businesses have been used by terrorists and their supporters as "fronts" to disguise a variety of criminal activities. Terrorist supporters also corrupt otherwise legitimate companies to either raise or move funds for terrorists. Such activity, as with the abuse of charitable organizations, is particularly nefarious since this may occur without the knowledge of other shareholders, employees, or customers.

A number of countries have been taking strong action to shut down such front companies and businesses which have become corrupted by the influences of terrorist financiers and to strip away the otherwise legitimate holdings of those individuals who finance and abet terror. For example, the United States, Caribbean and European countries have initiated measures to unearth the insidious network of financial houses and investment firms used by the European and Caribbean-based al Qaida supporters, and ISIL (CNN, 2016). These companies were then publicly designated, shut down, and acted against by the United Nations for their ties to al Qaida in a joint action between the U.S., Italy, Switzerland, Luxembourg, and the Bahamas. Likewise, these powers have publicly designated a network of honey shops and bakeries in Yemen that funded al Qaida's operations as well as the front companies for the European-based al Qaida supporter, Mamoun Darkanzali.

It has been observed by United States Intelligence agencies that terrorists have also used informal value transfer systems such as *hawala* as a means of terrorist financing. The word "*hawala*" (meaning "trust") refers to a fast and cost-effective method for the worldwide remittance of money or value, particularly for persons who may be outside the reach of the traditional financial sector. While it is difficult to measure accurately the total volume of financial activity associated with the system, it is estimated that, at a minimum, tens of billions of dollars flow through *hawalas* and other informal value transfer systems on an annual basis. The danger is that some of the features which make *hawalas* attractive to legitimate customers - efficiency, reliable access to remote or under-developed regions, potential anonymity, and low cost -- also make the system attractive for the transfer of illicit or terrorist-destined funds.

The Link between Financial Crime and Terrorism

In this moment, at a worldwide level, international community can develop mechanisms to allow it to ensure a genuine cooperation and thus give a firm response and effective to international crime (Radu, 2014). The international community has long recognized that the problems of money laundering and terrorism require a coordinated approach. For many years, a number of international organizations have developed standards for combating money laundering, terrorism, and terrorist financing. These standards contain common themes of promoting actions to deny criminals, terrorists, and those who assist them access to their funds and the world's financial services industries.

Many international agreements and resolutions outline similar standards or build upon each. Although it is not illegal to individuals or companies to have offshore accounts, is illegal to avoid paying taxes on income held in these accounts. Taxation in the country of origin is not possible by lack of transparency and accountability for law enforcement agencies (Gravelle, 2013). Global Financial Integrity released a report showing the damage caused by mispricing trade, practice through which goods and services are sold using fraudulent invoices. They often underestimate the true value, creating an opportunity tax evasion, fraud and money laundering. The report focuses on five countries: Kenya, Mozambique, Ghana, Tanzania and Uganda. The losses are huge. In Kenya, the amount of revenue lost by the government will cover nearly all the country's budget deficit.

Tax havens, also called offshore jurisdictions, have attracted an increasing number of foreign investors, especially in recent decades. Usually they are people and fleeing their own country's tax collecting voracity in their own country in search of a more favourable business environment. This is not surprising, since in some countries with high taxes, especially in Europe, the taxes paid by a person or company are up to 50% of their profit. This capital flight, of course, is not viewed favourably by tax officials in the countries indicated. Therefore, they tried to react with different measures to prevent the transfer of assets in tax havens. The main actions aimed at pressuring governments in tax havens and limiting their confidentiality and bank secrecy laws. This is done today by various international organizations, usually under the banner of the fight against terrorist networks, drug trafficking and money laundering. OCDE, G-20 and FATF (Financial Action Task Force) are the most active organizations in this field. In any case, the solution to the migration of capital flows to offshore area is very complex, since for many of these countries is in stake their own economic and financial survival as a nation and do not have very many viable economic alternatives.

Various financial operations are used through multiple financial instruments, so as to allow the washed money to be invested again in legal activities or in financing trades or terrorist activities. The same authors define the financing of terrorism as the use of proceeds from any source (legal or not) to finance terrorist activities, past or future. This is a feature that allows differentiation of the money laundering activities to terrorist financing activities: more often than before, terrorist financing is geared towards future actions (Radu, 2014).

Despite the above characteristics, the line between being and not being a tax haven is often very unclear. Being listed in one or other category of OECD and other agencies is often more receptive to political and economic interests of its members than purely objective criteria. It is also good to know that there are differences between a tax haven and another. Some focus more on serving people, while others try to promote the registration of companies. And there is, of course, those seeking both. These jurisdictions elitist, specialized in large fortunes, are interesting only for individuals with a good amount of money in their bank account. This is particularly true in Europe. But this is not the norm on. Most tax havens must accept also less affluent customers. The latter are precisely those who have contributed to the spectacular growth of the financial industry in decades. With globalization and the development of the Internet, is no longer needed to travel to remote places to establish a company or open a bank account. Operating costs have become very cheap, so investment in a tax haven is now available to almost anyone.

However, offshore corporations also have some disadvantages. Some countries have implemented anti-circumvention measures that prevent companies based in tax havens to participate in certain investments. In some cases, there are also anti-fraud or "controlled foreign corporation" (CFC) rules. For example, the owner of offshore company must include profits in his individual income tax declaration, even if the company does not pay dividends. In nominees cases, as directors or shareholders are used, document management can also get more complicated. In particular, banks may want to determine who the beneficial owner of the company is, requiring additional documentation to prove this (Hlaciuc, 2002).

Laundering criminal proceeds through a tax haven is therefore more a matter of finding a bank in that country to accept your deposit without asking questions, shuffling the money around a bit, and then sending it to where you would like to spend it or to where you would like to receive it. Evading taxes through a tax haven works similarly: disguise income or assets as passing through that country and fail to report it to your home country's tax authority. For the less criminally inclined, tax havens often offer a great legal ways to avoid paying taxes, simply by characterizing income as passing through that country and using loose tax treaties or gasps in one's home country tax law to claim that the income is not taxable there (Lecou, 1999).

Over the years, many developed countries have taken steps to breakthrough tax haven secrecy by including provisions in tax treaties or other agreements to exchange financial information with other governments, including tax haven governments upon request. This system has two major flaws, though. First, it requires the requesting government to know what specific information they are looking for, which can be quite difficult to determine when attempting to track money passing through anonymous shell companies or many other money laundering strategies. Second, the tax haven government may not be able to collect or have access to the information being regulated; so continuing the process can be extremely slow and having potentially little reward. Banking financial crime is in correlation and interdependence with a series of destructive mechanisms and political, moral, normative and cultural disorder, prevailing at the state level. The facilities offered by the political, social and economic aspects of a country, coupled with insufficient and sometimes inefficient legitimate control, favouring profit oriented crime, which tends to acquire a global, explosive and organized by threatening economy as a whole, structuring and multiplying constantly and materializing in fraud of great diversity and complexity in terms of number of participants, methods, damage, and the importance of businesses and institutions concerned.

Representing a complex social problem, whose ways of expression, social consequences and ways to solve interests both the public and the institutionalized social control entities, banking and financial crime is conceived by most honest social segments as a very serious and dangerous phenomenon able to undermine the power structures, economic reform, raising living standards of the population, hope moving towards a sound legal system and able

to eliminate social and economic injustice (Voicu, Boroi, Sandu, Molnar, Gorunescu, Corlateanu, 2006). In most tax havens is a policy of encouraging foreign banking. This is done by introducing a distinction between banking business of the inhabitants of that country and that of foreigners. In general, the activity of foreigners is not subject to requirements regarding the reserve funds and is not subject to foreign exchange contracts exerted or other controls.

Tax havens thrive largely due to the presence of foreign banks. Financial activity generates income in the form of symbolic fees and taxes on financial institutions. Financial activities create an infrastructure that can be used both for legitimate companies and criminals to conceal illicit funds. Compared to foreign trade, foreign bank accounts in tax havens jurisdictions are considerably higher than foreign bank accounts in banks located in countries that are not tax havens. Some of the biggest foreign banks have subsidiaries in tax havens countries. They have set these offices to participate in the euro-dollar market, accepting deposits and borrowing money from and to foreign customers (Mihnea, Costas, 2006). Although the general impression is that tax havens deals primarily with money laundering without asking any embarrassing questions to their customers, in reality respectable offshore centers have regulations that are tougher than in developed countries. In this regard, it should be pointed out most offshore countries governments carefully oversee licensed banks activity in the territory and approve with maximum requirement creation of new financial institutions.

1991 Bankruptcy Bank of Credit and Commerce International, and other events were the circumstances that led tightening oversight of offshore activities to identify potential financial swindlers. However, increased interest in offshore companies was directly proportional to the acceleration of economic crime rate (Buziernescu, Drăcea, Burnea, 2006).

Conclusion
From the discussions above, terrorists use multiple methods for moving funds and these are usually either through cash couriers, informal transfer systems (e.g. hawala),

money service businesses, formal banking, false trade invoicing, and high value commodities. Detecting terrorist financial transactions is a crucial counter-terrorism activity. Through network and transaction analysis it can illuminate the size of a terrorist network, its entire life-support system and the quality of its connections. The detection of terrorist financial transactions is extremely difficult as there is an entire spectrum of financial flows extending from legitimate businesses (e.g. mobile phone companies, remittances, real estate and donations to charitable businesses) to illegal activities such as counterfeit goods, drug trafficking, financial fraud and even trade-in certain precious commodities. Moving terrorist funds covers a broad spectrum from wire transfers to bulk cash transfers, regulated and unregulated alternate remittance systems. The often small amounts involved make it almost impossible to detect.

A judgment may be unlawful and ungrounded because of two fundamental flaws: its declaration as a result of disregarding the rules of criminal procedure, which ensures and guarantees finding truth and the rights of the parties, of nature to doubt the correctness of the solution adopted; solving the wrong case or by establishing the facts wrong (the actual error), which led to the conviction of an innocent or releasing an offender or by misapplication of the rules of substantive law - criminal or civil - or omitting their application (error in jure), which led to a solution not in accordance with law; shortcomings concerning violations - procedural and substantive - come from insufficient knowledge of the rules of law, the misinterpretation or their abusive violation; shortcomings establishing wrong facts come from omitting all the evidence necessary due to parties' inactivity and the lack of an active role of the courts, the timely undiscovered samples or in blank or incorrect assessment of the evidence, which attracted retention of facts as true and which not actually occurred or which happened in other circumstances than those retained, or missing facts that occurred in reality (Theodoru, 2002). Much remains to be done. The world needs to use every tool of diplomacy, regulation, law enforcement, and intelligence to attack terrorist financing on all fronts.

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AN ETHICAL RESPONSE TO THE CHALLENGE OF KIDNAPPING IN OGBA LAND, RIVERS STATE, NIGERIA.

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Abstract

The study, "An Ethical Response to the Challenge of Kidnapping in Ogba Land," examined how ethical theories could be used to reduce incidences of kidnapping in Ogba Land. The study employed a descriptive survey by using interview guide in soliciting pieces of information from elites, traditional rulers, pastors and victims of kidnap on the subject under investigation. The study revealed that kidnapping is on high increase in Ogba Land and that no day passes without hearing that someone has been kidnapped. The youth are often the perpetrators of kidnapping. The study further revealed that kidnapping is ethically wrong, no matter the motive behind it; furthermore, it was discovered that kidnapping has adverse effects on not only the victims but their family members and the land itself. Therefore, it was recommended among others, that government should train strong anti-kidnapping agents, apply appropriate sanction on the culprits; there should be amendment of state and federal laws, job creation, diversification of the economy to create employment. There should be public awareness campaigns, skills acquisition programmes, fair distribution of resources and introduction of ethical studies in educational curriculum, training in godliness, etc. to reduce incident of kidnapping and other social vices in Ogba Land.

Keywords: Ethical, Response, Kidnapping

1.0: INTRODUCTION

The work was prompted out of the curiosity of the researchers to know why the sudden, drastic, radical, pathetic, and negative change of things within few years, especially in an oil producing area like Ogba land. Ogba was one of the areas in Rivers State of Nigeria booming and bubbling with life and vitality and rich culture of respect and love for human life. Looking at Ogba land today the menace that has struck the land has mortgaged this culture of respect, love for human life, hard work, friendliness and receptiveness of people, especially strangers. This is due to contact with the western culture and ostentatious orientation associated with development. These have given birth to the modern crime and social ills that are destroying the core values of the land. The antecedence of these crimes and social ills has kept the people in fear. The issue of bad governance, poor representation and environmental pollution that have invaded the land cannot be compared to the recent menace that has struck the land. The area has faced internal crises such as youth restiveness, electoral violence, cultic fight and political rivalries, but none of these has kept the area in total nightmare like kidnapping. How this problem entered the land and how best to deal with it are questions begging for urgent answers. The wild and bad impact of kidnapping has been a major concern over the years. The indelible effects on the lives of the Ogba people will remain or last for a long period of time. The researchers who happens to be an indigene of this area, who witnessed how his people lived in the time past, how life was moving very well in Ogba land, has noticed that since this social ill struck, the activities and lifestyle of the people have changed. Many are left homeless; many indigenes have become refugees in a

strange land. The normal life of the Ogba people has been badly affected because both the indigenes and those who do business in the land have packed out; some government workers have also relocated; the oil workers are not even within their homes. The fear of who will be the next to be kidnapped is in the mind of everyone living within this area. Ogba land, at the time of this writing, is now a deserted territory. Hence the call for ethical response on the issue of kidnapping in Ogba land.

1.1: CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

(i) Ethical: for one to understand the meaning of the word ethical, it is good to first note the meaning of the word "ethics". Ethics is the philosophy of morals; the standard of character set up by any race or nation. It is the study of the basic principles relating to right and wrong conducts. The word ethical is an adjective, a pattern which is in accordance with right principles as defined by a given system of ethics or professional conduct. It is how a person, or a group of people evaluates right and wrong behavior of a specific situation and comes to a decision of what to do; the process of justifying an action based on moral standards; evaluating the rightness or wrongness of an action. It relates "to the accepted principles of right and wrong, especially those of some organization or profession. It is what is morally approvable when referring to an action that affects others".

(ii) Response: The act of responding, or that which is responded to in words or acts evoked by the words or acts of another or others; an answer. In the context of this writing, response is a reply or reaction to a provocation (kidnapping).

(iii) Kidnapping: Kidnapping is defined as the act of seizing and holding a person by known or unknown person or persons against his or her will. The word kidnap comes from the two slang words kids, or child; and nap, which means to steal. At one time kidnapping referred specially to stealing children. But the word has come to be used also in cases where adults are seized and held with the aim of getting ransom.

2.0: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Several theories have been put forward to explain kidnapping within the Nigerian context. The researchers looked at a few of these theories as propounded by different theorist. Economic theory views kidnapping from economic concept of making ends meet. According to Nseabasi, citing Tzanelli, Gearth and Mills,(2006) raised the idea that kidnapping is regulated by the laws of demand and supply and is a type of social action that involves the calculation on the most efficient means to the desired ends. Kidnapping is a social enterprise and according to *The Nation newspaper*, May 10, 2002, kidnappers are business men, they just happen to be on the illegal side of it, if one deprives them of the demand, then there is not going to be any supply. This is the reason why perpetrators of this crime choose their victims based on their ability to cough out good money.

Political theory of kidnapping sees the act as a political tool which is motivated by attempt to suppress, outsmart, intimidate and subjugate political opponents. An example is the case of Anambra State when the former central Bank Governor, who was then People Democratic Party gubernatorial candidate, had his father kidnapped by the aggrieved opponents of the same party who felt marginalized by the Party's political process. Another case happened in Rivers State during the 2015 Election when the wife of the All Progressive Congress candidate representing Ogba /Egbema/Ndoni Constituency two was kidnapped at her gate when coming back from prayer meeting/Bible study. After a ransom was given to the kidnappers, they released her but after some days they called her line threatening her that if her husband does not decline from the position he was contesting, she will be killed, and the husband will not even win the election. Tuner, as cited by Nseabasi, established relationship between money and politics accordingly where there are political motivations for kidnapping and where ransoms are demanded. Such ransoms are often used to further the political objectives of the kidnapping sponsors or simply to facilitate the survival of the sponsoring organization. Nseabasi opined in his treatise that the most top kidnapping

operations are masterminded by Government officials, opposition groups, unrewarded or uncompensated members of election rigging militant groups, among others. Another theory views kidnapping from the angle of unemployment which pervades the country's labour market; this is blamed on the inability of the government to create adequate employment for the youth. Umoh (2004) posited that the political consequence of kidnapping activity has had a spill-over influence on the jobless youths and criminals who take it as a new substitute or complementary to robbery and pick pocketing. Such a group of kidnappers target not only prominent and well-off individuals but also ordinary citizens who possess little wealth.

3.0: TYPES OF KIDNAPPING

Kidnapping is generally categorized into three, namely: criminal, political, and emotional/ pathological.

(i) Criminal: The motivation is primarily pecuniary-a ransom is placed above every other consideration. It is the growing trend all over the world and in Nigeria; it is also the main motive of kidnapping. A classic example of criminal intent kidnapping is the kidnapping of Eze Ugo of Ogba land, Chief Chibor I.C. Chibor who happens to be the father of this researcher, in his residence at No. 2B Chief Chibor I.C Chibor's street Obor Town on 25th July 2016 in which the gunmen demanded a ransom of 20 million Naira,

(ii) Political: The motive here is to enhance political position or influence political groups on their stands; the first recorded resemblance of politically motivated kidnapping in Nigeria was that of 5th April 2009 of Miss Aniefon – Aniedo – Abasi Stephen Udo, daughter of Abak Local Government Council Chairman. She was later killed after collecting a ransom of ten million naira. The *Daily Sun* reported the kidnap of Sierra Leonean envoy to Nigeria. The report has it that the victim was abducted along with his driver at about 8 p.m, on June 30, 2016, on Abuja-Kaduna road, while travelling to Jaji, Kaduna State, for official assignment. He was released after payment of 1.5 million ransom and after four days in the kidnapper's den. Five persons were suspected to have participated in the abduction.

(iii) Emotional/Pathological: This may not necessarily be associated with ransom, but usually initiated by people believed to be emotionally or mentally disturbed. It could be used by lovers to extract money from their girl friends' rich parents. An example was a report on Sept. 29, 2016, where a young man in his early thirties, by name Micheal Alozie, was arrested by soldiers of the 144 Battalion Station at Ngwa for allegedly convincing a senior secondary one student, to kidnap her and demand a ransom from her parents. The suspect who claimed that the SS 1 student was his girlfriend, was arrested at Chokoneze, Mbaise, Imo State. The suspect had threatened the girl's parents through repeated calls and text messages, demanding a ransom of 1.5 million or they would lose their daughter. Meanwhile, the suspect had allegedly impregnated the girl. However, the parents who did not know that their daughter was part of the plot and was pregnant of about five months for the suspect, agreed to pay 1 million as ransom as the suspect continued to threaten them. While the parents were playing along with the kidnapper, they alerted the soldier who traced the suspect to his hideout; the girl and the boy were arrested by the soldiers.

3.1: MODE OF OPERATIONS OF KIDNAPPERS

Kidnappers use various modes for their operations depending on the area of coverage, weapons at their disposal, topography, level of security awareness and the development of an area.

1. **Use of Military camouflage uniforms**: The recent news in this area of study is the kidnap of His Royal Majesty- Eze N. Osoh (the Eze Usomini Clan of Ogbaland, who was kidnapped in his palace. The kidnappers dressed in military uniforms entered the palace with their vehicles and informed the monarch that their commander wished to see him in their office. The Eze who was not aware of their

intention, entertained them. After the entertainment, they entered their vehicle; the monarch also entered his, with some of the kidnappers. When they have gone far the kidnappers informed the monarch that they were not really who they claimed to be; they asked the driver to pack the monarch's vehicle; they transferred the monarch to their own vehicle and drove off.

2. **The use of police vehicle**: Some persons were arrested through this mode. usually, victims are informed that they are wanted at the police station with kidnappers disguised as police. Example of this kind of kidnapping is an incident that happened in a community called Ebogoro, one of the communities under this study. A young man who works with the Agip Oil Company was reported to have been arrested by police who invaded his house at the early part of this year; the family made several attempts to go to all the police stations in Ogbaland and beyond but to their greatest surprise their son was not found in any of the police stations; the abductors are yet to call the family up till the time of this writing.

3. Abducting victims in their country home especially in rural environment, like the case of the researcher's father who was abducted at his residence. The kidnappers arrived in his residence at mid-night, entered the house and made away with him.

4. Kidnappers use victims' phone to communicate with negotiators_ guardians or family members of their victims.

5. Some victims were reported being kidnapped in Akwa Ibom or Rivers State and kept in the car-boot and driven to Abia State for custody.

6. Reports have revealed that inside sources were often used to get information on the movements of their targeted victims.

3.2: OGBA PEOPLE AND KIDNAPPING SITUATION

Ogba people are an ethnic group in a location of Rivers State with their origin, political, social, religious and cultural life. According to Ajoku, Ogba land measures 1,726 square kilometers. It shares boundaries with some other local government areas of Rivers State as well as with some communities of the local government areas of other states. These include Ahoada and Emuoha Local Government Areas of Rivers State in the east, and Delta and Bayelsa States in the west. It has a population of about 100,000 people. The history of a people opens them up to the rest of the world. Ogba land, according to Ellah, is situated in the Northern part of Rivers State of Nigeria. Its administrative headquarter, Omoku, is also the headquarter of the Ogba / Egbema/Ndoni Local Government Area of the state. It is also the second largest town in Rivers State, next only to Port Harcourt, but in terms of land size, population and development. Ogba land is blessed with the rivers Sombreiro and Orashi around it. In terms of origin, Ogba people are said to have migrated mainly from the ancient Bini kingdom in the present Edo State of Nigeria. Their first ancestor is Akalaka His two sons, Ekpeye and Ogba, occupy what are today known as Ekpeye land and Ogba land. Ogba's children, Egni and Igburu, in turn, constitute the Egni and Igburu clans. These clans in turn have been politically regrouped into four parts such as Egni, Igburu, Usomini and Omoku. It harbours over forty-four towns and villages with its headquarters situated at Omoku.

3.3: ANALYSIS OF KIDNAPPING IN OGBA LAND

Origin of kidnapping in Ogba Land: The word kidnapping is not a new phenomenon in some societies but in Ogba land it is a new word that emerged about eight years ago. It started with the picking of some travelers who were on their way to Port Harcourt and Owerri; later it metamorphosed into picking of some oil workers and politicians from their homes. Within the early stage it was not pronounced; and not a major concern since it was not frequent issue. It happened intermittently; people were still moving about their daily work with the belief that this social ill will subside just as some other social ills have been after a period. Example of what looks like the kidnapper's camp was found in Obor Town where some women went to farm and discovered a strange building inside the bush. They rushed home and informed the villagers. The community development committee members went to Omoku Police Division to make an entry. The Police troop were sent to

Obor, the troop and some villagers went to the forest where that house was found, there was an open fire between the kidnappers and the force men. The police succeeded in killing one, the others escaped.

3.4: THE PRESENT STATE OF KIDNAPPING SITUATION IN THE LAND

Presently, the situation is very alarming; it is not just kidnapping, but also hired killing, armed robbery, looting, bunkering, cultism. These abnormal criminal activities prevailing in Ogba communities have made life very unsafe in the land and fear has gripped everyone. Many indigenes and non – indigenes have relocated to order areas considered safe zone. Travelling to and from Ogba land is dreaded and one who sleeps in Ogba land sleeps with "one eye open" as against the former time when people stay into the night telling stories. Nowadays, people retire to their rooms as early as 6:30 through 7:00pm and whoever goes out hurries to return before it is dark. These unscrupulous monsters not only torture their victims, they sometimes cut their heads, raped and even opened their victims' stomachs; these and other criminal acts are very pronounced. Kidnapping has risen to a deeper dimension as kidnappers now break into people's rooms to kidnap them as was the case of this researcher's father. Kidnapping has grown to the extent where just little token is often paid as ransom; they take as low as thirty, eighty, or one hundred thousand naira and sometimes lower amount

3.5: EFFORTS TO CURB KIDNAP VICES IN OGBA LAND

Recently, the government in her bid to curb these vices granted amnesty to these guys just to make them happy. There are more military check points at different spots in Egi, Igburu, Omoku and Usomini areas. These monsters have killed many military men who were on duty at their checkpoints. The peace-less situation in Ogba land is so tensed that the efforts of the government/military have not yet been of much relief. Kidnapping is still going on; hired/sponsored killings prevail all the time; and secret cult groups compete with one another, destroying lives and properties. All the above raise's questions in every concerned person's heart: How would this ugly situation be eradicated or at least be brought under control?

3.6: CAUSES OF KIDNAPPING IN OGBA LAND

1. **Poverty:** This is one factor that is pursuing some Nigerians into kidnapping business. A poor man needs money to survive and keep life moving. He can easily pick up the job "kidnapping" as a last resort to money and live above the poverty line. A poor man is a hungry man. In Ogba land today, there is a high level of poverty in the land despite how the are**a** is blessed with natural resources and its land are fertile but still several indigenes are living in abject poverty. It must interest the reader to know that the area under study is dominated by farmers and some of these youth don't want to venture into farming. Wenger said that a nation is poor not because it lacks resource, but it is poor because of the poverty of the mind. Similarly, this statement could be attributed to the youth of Ogba land. Most youths are poor in the land because they lack the ability of being creative, and innovative. A person living in poverty can easily resort to kidnapping. Since such act will earn him some money to take care of his necessities. When poverty pervades the land, danger is near and those who have anything at all are in danger of losing what they have.

2. **High Quest for Money:** There are many Ogba indigenes who need money, they prefer to get this money today and die tomorrow, their popular slogan is "prosperity". High quest for money has made many Ogba youths take kidnapping as "clean business". On daily basis, what they have as their plans is on the next person they are to kidnap for them to be paid ransom before the release of the victims. Some men who are not doing well financially sometimes ask themselves questions on why the other person should progress more than them. When this category of people feels very bad on the progress of the other, the next is to make plans on how to bring down that other person. This sometimes leads to kidnapping of an innocent person who

does not know what such people are planning against him.

3. **Unemployment:** Joblessness or unemployment is one of the root causes of kidnapping in Ogbaland, according to a kidnapped victim. It is no longer news that unemployment factor in Nigeria in its alarming rate, is among the country's top five headaches. These youths pick kidnapping as an avenue to generate money which they will use to establish themselves in the society. A kidnapped victim identified her kidnapers as young graduates who did not have employment and were looking for how to survive.

4. **Politics:** The way politics is being practiced in the country creates room for kidnapping. Sometimes politicians are out for the express purpose of eliminating their opponents to gain political advantage. In the last elections, several innocent people lost their lives to political hooliganism. Many politicians and their family members were kidnapped before the elections. In fact, many people prepared themselves to kill and shed blood if their candidates did not win the election. This political misbehavior has become grounds for insecurity and other social ills like kidnapping in the nation.

3.6: EFFECTS OF KIDNAPPING IN OGBA LAND

Having discussed the possible causes of kidnapping in Ogba land, it is important to look at the effects of this menace in the land. What are the consequences of kidnapping on the land and the people? So many people have missed opportunities in Ogba land because of the problem of kidnapping in the area. Kidnapping in Ogba land has painted many indigenes and settlers very badly. Some of the obvious effects of kidnapping in Ogba land are: economic effect, psychological trauma, developmental effect, depopulation, backwardness in education, contagious effect on neighbor, lack of trust, fear, and image tarnishing?

1. **Economic Effects**: Kidnapping in Ogba land has really affected the people's economy. Many business men and women have run away. Many investors who would have loved to invest in an oil producing and booming area like Ogba land have

resolved not to take the risk of spending a lot of money as they are likely to receive ugly visit from kidnappers in that area. These are companies and business enterprises that would have solved the national challenges, especially unemployment, because these companies and business enterprises would have employed "Ogbans" if established in that area. But because of the unrest in the area, the people missed such golden opportunity.

2. **Psychological Effects:** kidnapping in Ogba land today does not only affect the economy, social and political aspects, but also has caused psychological trauma among the affected population. Kidnapping is a form of psychological warfare against a society. Psychologically, kidnapping affects the victims either directly or indirectly through the extensive media coverage of families of the kidnapped person. However, research has proved that psychological effects take their effects on individuals, and society, though it does not affect everyone in an equal degree. In an interview with Jambo Okah, he pointed out that the rate with which this ugly development (kidnapping) is scaring away both local and foreign investors poses great dangers for Ogba survival as a people; he stressed that the effects of kidnapping does not only affect the psychology of the direct victims and their families, but also spreads fear that hinders direct economic investment in the area where such evils are perpetuated. This fear is what will become the future of the younger generations of Ogbans?

3. **Effects on Development**: Since the emergence and spread of this menace in Ogba land, there has been a steady decline in the development of the area under study. The government and oil companies are skeptical about investment in this area. Because of this social ill ravaging the area, most government and companies' projects have stopped, the contractors are scared away from the area; the fear of being kidnapped is always a concern. When one comes to Ogbaland, one sees many abandoned projects lying here and there with grasses

covering the sites. Many of the roads that were under construction have been abandoned. Those roads have become death traps for people and the kidnapers' spot for attacks.

4. **Depopulation or Exodus Effect:** The land that once had people from different parts of the world trooping down every day, for investment, business, tourism, and religious activities, of recent is now experiencing depopulation; indigenes and settlers are on mass exodus every day from Ogba land, because the problem is not subsiding but rather on the increase. Many Ogba indigenes who never planned of leaving their homes, have become refugees in other people's homes in some towns in Imo, Bayelsa, Delta States and even some parts of the state (Rivers) because of kidnapping. Most landlords have become tenants in other lands, looking for menial jobs in those areas they have relocated just for survival and to meet up family expectations.

5. **Backwardness in Education**: Since the systems that were operational in this area have been 8distorted and destabilized, the educational sector has also been badly affected. Lecturers are afraid of going to school or even going to class to teach; they are careful in their relationship with students because some kidnappers may disguise themselves to be students just to get information from the teacher. Because of this menace, the educational sector in Ogba land has experienced setback recently. The only higher institution in Ogba land, the Federal College of Education (Technical), Omoku, and its staff have experienced serious kidnapping incidences. The ugly development has also crept into the secondary and primary schools and the principals and Head master are now kidnap victims; most principals and head masters have relocated from the land. Students left their homes for school only to return home lamenting there was no learning because teachers were not in school for fear of being kidnapped.

6. **Contagious Effect on Neighbor**: The problem of kidnapping is not only found in Ogba land, it has also crept into the neighbouring communities surrounding Ogba land. Areas like Egbema, Ndoni, Ahoada East and West, Asa, Awara and Elele are also experiencing serious kidnapping incidences. Since these lands are neighbors of Ogba people, the perpetrators form alliance with unscrupulous elements from these lands to cause havoc in Ogba land and its neighbours and vice versa.

7. **Fear and Lack of Trust**: In a society where incidence of kidnapping is high, fear limits people's lives and actions. People now move with caution as they do not know who is likely to be the next to be kidnapped. The rich men surround themselves with security guards because of the fear of getting kidnapped. Before kidnapping became rampant in Ogba land, people give out their phone numbers to people with clear mind because they believed they are one. Today people find it difficult to do same. The reason is because the person you want to give your phone number to maybe a kidnapper or an informant, without your knowledge. Most businessmen and women are not open to people again because the person you want to open to might be a spy being sent by a group of kidnappers to come close and know the worth of your business to estimate the amount of ransom they will demand from you when kidnapped. People no longer make public donations when they are called upon for a project, they are afraid that when the amount is announced they stand the risk of being kidnapped.

8. **Image Tarnishing/blackmail:** In an interview with the Royal Majesty Osoh (The Eze Usomini of Ogba land), he said that the wide spread of kidnapping in Ogba land is not just affecting the people within Ogba land alone but has also given a very negative impressions to the people of Ogba and Ogba land. Some now regard Ogbas as wicked, inhuman, terrorists, and kidnappers. These terms follow both innocent indigenes of the land to where ever they migrate to; some Ogbas in diaspora are careful when asked "where are you from?" Some in the bid not to disclose their real identity deny that they are not Ogba indigenes, because if they

accept that they are indigenes of Ogba land, it may result to their losing the opportunities of working and staying in such places. The Ogba culture of respect, love for human lives, hard work, friendliness, and receptiveness to strangers has been mortgaged due to the crime that is still spreading like a wild fire.

4.0: ETHICAL RESPONSE TO KIDNAPPING IN OGBA LAND

Kidnapping cannot be left unattended to nor should it be allowed to cause more mayhem in Ogba or even the wider society. Something must be done about this monster destroying Ogba land. This theory is about the character of the individual who does the action. In order words, it is not action – oriented but character based ethical theory. This theory is based on the willingness of a person to change from vicious character to a virtuous one. Simply put, this theory is about character change. Carden in his view stated that a virtue is an acquired human quality, the possession and exercise of which tends to enable people to achieve those good things which are internal to practices and the look of which effectively prevent people from wrong doing. He listed virtues like justice, courage, honesty as characteristics of human behavior that can further determine the way people act. He stated that these are human qualities necessary to achieve the internal goods of people.

Virtue ethical theory places less emphasis on which rules people should follow, instead, it focuses on helping people develop good character traits, such as kindness and generosity. Onipe, also stated that ethical value and character development are expected morals and character development that can be promoted through relevant learning environment. He opined that core positive values are basically foundation for sound character and positive human qualities. The values individuals cherish, and use are instrumental to their behavioral pattern and personal attributes. Core values that are positively oriented, like honesty, dedication, loyalty, patriotism, obedience, cooperation, and responsibility are highly essential workable values that are needed for social advancement and family stability. He expressed that it is pertinent to note that positive values with

sound ethical background can alter human behavior in the right direction. Character ethics, therefore, he posited, are self-evident, conscience – affirming truths, that when acted consistently, produce virtuous behaviours such as compassion acts, honest answers and just decisions. Virtue ethics shows how to act as a virtuous person. Proponents of this theory include Nietzche, Hume, Aristotle, and Hutcheson among others. This theory, if rightly applied, can make a lot of difference in reducing the incidences of kidnapping.

From interviews done in the area under study, it was discovered that respondents clearly stated that for peace to prevail in the area, certain virtues such as patriotism, obedience, and honesty should characterize an individual's life. It was also discovered that parents and everyone living in the area under study has a role to play in the character formation of their children. If there must be a positive change of character in the life of any kidnapper, collaborating efforts must be made, by counselling, teaching and exposing the individuals to the dangers, he may encounter.

In addition to this, interviewees opined that the law should be brought to bear on certain situations that are notorious in nature such as the ill treatment and torture kidnap victims are made to pass through, to effect positive character change. If legal action is properly carried against perpetrators, it will bring fear in the life of those who want to venture into kidnapping. However, for all these virtues to be embedded in the life of individuals require the divine intervention of God. The reason for this is that once a habit has been formed, it will be too difficult to break from that habit no matter how willing the individual may be. If kidnapping incidence is to be drastically reduced in Ogba land certain virtues must be taught by parents and every adult in the society, and by the schools continuing to take more seriously the teaching of character formation subjects like civic education and social studies by exemplary teachers. Some of this virtue if adhered to, as suggested by the interviewees, can enhance a peaceful atmosphere.

To apply this theory in Ogba land, much attention must be given to specific moral virtues such as love, patient, tolerance etc,

when the individual discovers that he/she ought to love everyone including those being kidnapped, he/she may not want to venture into it, people will exercise patience even if the government delays in her numerous promises for employment. They can still do something meaningful even as an unemployed youth. For effectiveness of this approach, teaching and counselling and encouragement should be used to cultivate the desired virtues. Serious attention should be given to these theories by the government, educational institutions, news media, law makers and well-meaning adults in the society, so that maximum result will be achieved in curbing the problem of kidnapping in Ogba land and beyond.

CONCLUSION

One of the most direct and serious security threats facing Ogba land is kidnapping. The global concern over the threat of kidnapping by way of physical destruction and losses, deaths, suffering to humanity, economic loss, insecurity, and the general challenge to social order and polity in the society, cannot be underscored. Kidnapping is a trans-national crime that goes beyond the purview of the state security. It has increasingly become a global problem that requires concerted actions by the community of nations. The problem of kidnapping has hindered development in Ogba land and any society where this social ill is rampant. Kidnapping is fast destroying the economic good and can destroy the survival of Nigeria as a nation. The economic implication is that investors have a spiral effect on businesses. Kidnapping is a daily experience in Ogba land. It was discovered and expectedly so, that young men are the main perpetrators of kidnapping in the area. Kidnapping is adversely affecting, the elites, politicians, bank workers, business men and women, the church and traditional institutions in Ogba land, even the young and aged are not spared: This has given bad reputation and picture about Ogba land, as a land that breeds kidnappers, a land once known for good ethics and aesthetics. Everyone in Ogba land must join hand to fight this monster that is spoiling the land.

Kidnapping is a global problem but that of Ogba land is now turning into routine. As it is often said, a person who knows his problem is better placed at solving that problem. The

following recommendations should be given serious consideration by the government, the church, the traditional institutions, including teachers and parents.

- *Training of strong Anti-kidnapping Agents:* Any society that wants to curb this menace must use proactive measures which include the hiring and training of capable people to combat that issue. When law enforcement agencies are actively involved, the incidence of crime usually lessens. It is very unfortunate that the so-called military men are not capable of handling the problem parading itself as a big monster in the land. These young men use strong and sophisticated weapons than the ones the military men use. Sometime the military in their bid to run away from their attacks and give excuses when called upon, excuses like "we are not on ground", "we don't have fuel", "our men went with the patrol vehicle". There is need for the government to train and equip a special military squad to fight this battle and win. The need for security reforms in the country should be intensified and sustained holistically to enable security agencies keep abreast with the changing dynamics of crime in the country.

- *Applying Appropriate Sanction on the Culprits:* The law of every nation is there to guide the people on what is right to do and the wrong to abstain from. Curbing this social menace should be a collective effort. While it is advocated that the culprits should be apprehended and punished as appropriate, more importantly, public officers should shun corruption and ostentatious display of wealth. Focus should be centered on good governance with accountability, transparency and fair play. With these variables in place, kidnapping will become less attractive and in turn stimulate more sense of compassion, patriotism, sustainable development and nation building.

- Another ethical approach to surmount security challenges in Nigeria is by employing even legal, social and political means to compel the government and her agencies to bring to book those who

deploy violence illegitimately to achieve their evil ends. There must be insistence to prosecute and punish offenders, whether it serves as a deterrent to others or whether it fails to do so; those who choose to foist evil and fear on others should know that actions have consequences and they must be made to face the consequences of their deeds.

- *Amendment of State and Federal Laws:* The primary purpose of the law is to help the people do what is right and to abstain from wrong doing. Law can be amended when new challenge comes up in any country or state. The amendment of the part of the law that will strictly address kidnapping in Nigeria will compel the kidnapers to stop such dirty business they have been into for years, and I will advocate that both the Federal and State levels of Governments should criminalize kidnapping. Some states like Anambra and Edo have amended their law in this regard such law now requires that the property and belongings of anyone found as kidnapper in the state be destroyed.

- *Job Creation:* This should not be left in the hands of the government alone; everyone has a role to play. The wealthy can employ or empower those who are unemployed, especially the youth; this will promote the fight against crime. When the people are gainfully employed, they will neither have the time nor the space to plan and commit crime. The solution of unemployment in Nigeria must therefore be found in the diversification of the economy from oil to agriculture and agro-allied industries. If this employment drive must be achieved, the curriculum in both secondary and tertiary institutions must be reviewed in line with the demands of economic diversification.

- *Proper Sensitization to the Masses:* More attention should be paid to the perception of rural youths about kidnapping because it is their perception of this problem that determines the approach to it and if they do not however perceive it as a social problem then kidnapping may as well continue to dwell comfortably in the country. This sensitization of the masses should be further encouraged among all the rural youths, making them full participants of those who are willing to erase this problem in the area. This can be through discouraging hooliganism and some other social misbehavior so that they will not see kidnapping as a way of making monetary gain or expression of aggression. There is need to expose the negative effects associated with kidnapping to those youth.

- *Youth Empowerment:* With the way the country's economy is going, there is the need for every youth, whether educated or not to learn a skill. The government should revamp Niger Delta Entrepreneurship (N.D.E) programme. This will assist in providing training for young people who are out of school and out of work. However, caution should be taken to ensure that the training will provide the young people with marketable skills.

- *Fair Distribution of the National Resources:* The government should ensure that the resources of the country are harnessed, and they should also promote national prosperity. The area under study which happens to be one of the lands producing huge amount for the Federal Government through oil production, should not be left unattended to. The government has failed in their distribution of basic amenities in the area; there are bad roads and no good hospitals. This attitude by the government should change.

- *Introduction of Ethical Studies in the Educational Curriculum:* Ethical studies should be enshrined in the educational curriculum of the nation from the primary school to the secondary school levels since the problem of kidnapping and the like are gaining a prominent wave in the country. The nature of these studies should not be academic, that is, something to be studied merely to earn a grade; moral instruction, irrespective of the religion and social blend of the school, should be made obligatory for all learners at the pre-tertiary school levels. Curriculum planners should develop ethical topics, along these non – partisan lines and incorporate them in the curriculum as non – optional moral instruction subjects or topics. Appropriate illustrative method may be used to

inculcate these ethical values in learners; hypothetical situations may be created for learners to respond to in order to demonstrate their understanding/internalization of these

ethical values. The researcher has no doubt that with all hands 'on deck, with time, this matter will soon be reduced to the barest minimum if not eliminated.

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THE NEXUS BETWEEN GLOBALIZATION AND TRANSNATIONAL ORGANIZED CRIMES IN THE GULF OF GUINEA (GOG) COAST

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Abstract

Over the years, the Gulf of Guinea (GOG) coast has been known as a hub of several Transnational Organized Crimes (TOCs): human, drug and human organs trafficking, arms smuggling, diamond smuggling, cigarette smuggling, piracy, money laundering, kidnapping, illegal, unregulated and unreported fishing, illicit fishmeal and Fish oil Producing factories in the shorelines of the GoG. Some of these crimes are recent and age-long crimes that are inimical to legitimate businesses, restricting foreign direct investments, shrinking striving economies in the GOG region. The implications of these threats on food security, human survival and environmental sustainability is very grave. However, the aim of the study, is to examine if globalization is a factor instigating TOCs in the said region and also analyze some of the typologies of TOCs bedeviling the development and peace of the GOG region. The study applied descriptive method of content analysis. Data were obtained from secondary sources. Queer Ladder mobility theory was used to underpin the various arguments in the study. It is the finding of the study that, globalization and its forces like capitalism, individualism, westernization and technological revolution are key factors promoting TOCs in the GOG. Thus, the study established that, there is positive relationship between globalization and TOCs. Nevertheless, to curb the excesses of transnational organized crimes the study suggests that, TOC in the GoG region takes place because the area's governance is weak and TOC is more profitable than legal enterprise. Thus, states should be able to correct the imbalance by strengthening up governance in the region.

Keywords: Globalization, Transnational crime, Nexus, Gulf of Guinea

Introduction

Transnational organized crime (TOC) refers to crime that is organized and coordinated across national borders of more than one country and which involves groups or networks of individuals planning and executing illegal business ventures utilizing systematic violence and/or corruption. This type of crime has inadvertently been a significant beneficiary of globalization (Sangiovanni, 2005). Transnational organized crime (TOC) groups are self-perpetuating associations of individuals who operate, wholly or in part, by illegal means and irrespective of geography. They constantly seek to obtain power, influence, and monetary gains. There is no single structure under which TOC groups function they vary from hierarchies to clans, networks, and cells, and may evolve into other structures (Sangiovanni, 2005). These groups are typically insular and protect their activities through corruption, violence, international commerce, complex communication mechanisms, and an organizational structure exploiting national boundaries. With few exceptions, TOC groups' primary goal is economic gain and they will employ an array of lawful and illicit schemes to generate profit. Crimes such as drug trafficking, migrant smuggling, human trafficking, money laundering, firearms trafficking, illegal gambling, extortion, counterfeit goods, wildlife

and cultural property smuggling, and cybercrime are keystones within TOC enterprises. The vast sums of money involved can compromise legitimate economies and have a direct impact on governments through the corruption of public officials. TOC poses a significant and growing threat to national and international security with dire implications for public safety, public health, democratic institutions, and economic stability across the globe. It jeopardizes our border security, endangers our health through human trafficking and counterfeit pharmaceuticals, and seeks to corrupt officials domestically and abroad. These threats also include criminal penetration of global energy and strategic material markets that are vital to national security interests, and logistical and other support to terrorists and foreign intelligence services (Sangiovanni, 2005).

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With few exceptions, TOC groups' primary goal is economic gain and they will employ an array of lawful and illicit schemes to generate profit. Crimes such as drug trafficking, migrant smuggling, human trafficking, money laundering, firearms trafficking, illegal gambling, extortion, counterfeit goods, wildlife and cultural property smuggling, and cybercrime are keystones within TOC enterprises. The vast sums of money involved can compromise legitimate economies and have a direct impact on governments through the corruption of public officials. TOC groups may encompass both the Eastern and Western hemispheres and include persons with ethnic or cultural ties to Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Middle East. These groups, however, are able

to target victims and execute their schemes from anywhere in the world; thus, the extent of their presence within a particular area does not necessarily reflect the degree of the threat they pose.

With the increase of technology available around the world, TOC groups are more commonly incorporating cyber techniques into their illicit activities, either committing cyber crimes themselves or using cyber tools to facilitate other unlawful acts. Phishing, Internet auction fraud, and advanced fee fraud schemes allow criminals to target the United States without being present in the country. Technology also enables TOC groups to engage in traditional criminal activity, such as illegal gambling, but with a greater reach through use of the Internet and off-shore servers, thus expanding their global impact. TOC poses a significant and growing threat to national and international security with dire implications for public safety, public health, democratic institutions, and economic stability across the globe. It jeopardizes our border security, endangers our health through human trafficking and counterfeit pharmaceuticals, and seeks to corrupt officials domestically and abroad. These threats also include criminal penetration of global energy and strategic material markets that are vital to national security interests, and logistical and other support to terrorists and foreign intelligence services.

TOC groups prefer to give an illusion of coercion to achieve compliance and express power through manipulating agendas and ideologies so that they do not bring police and state attention to their activities, although this depends upon their overall goal as some TNOC groups with political goals will want the opposite, especially in failed states, where they might actually represent the only form of law (Wall, 2008). Transnational organized criminal activity takes place within a changing socio-political and socio-technical environment, especially with e-commerce technologies, which means that new patterns of demand and supply now make TOC activities more attractive as a choice of crime and also as a choice of career, which incentivizes the formation of online crime organizations to protect criminals. TOC has expanded

dramatically in size, scope and influence. Transnational organized criminals threatens the entire international system by co-opting some governments and weakening governance in others, forging alliances with government elements including security services and big business figures, undermining competition in strategic markets, providing funds and logistical support for terrorist/insurgent activities, stealing intellectual properties, expanding narco trafficking and engage in arms smuggling as well as human trafficking, using cyber technologies to perpetrate sophisticated frauds, using facilitators who operate in the licit and illicit worlds, and as well provide services to criminals and terrorists alike. Twenty-first century TOCs has greatly evolved and immensely diversified. Contemporary Transnational criminals are very adaptive to any environment they intend to operate and possess huge mastery of cyber technologies.

See Table 1: Changing Pattern of TOC

1990s and Earlier	Current patterns
Centralized hierarchical structures	Decentralized hierarchy, amorphous, highly adaptable networks and loose cells
Parochialism	Internationalization
Limited use of information technology	Increasing role of cyber capabilities in illicit activities
Illicit activities dominant	Legitimate business mixed with illicit activity
Clear separation of drug trafficking and other organized criminal activities	Non-drug-producing groups now trafficking
Crude weapon	Sophisticated weapon
Cash-based local enterprises	Global investments and use of financial infrastructures
Opportunistic/Sporadic attacks	Premeditated and coordinated attack
Few types of TOC	Constant emergence of new forms of TOC

Source: Authors compilation

There are several categories of transnational crimes capable of disrupting micro and macroeconomics of countries in the globe including the GoG region. These are Sea Piracy, hijacking of land, organ trafficking, insurance fraud, money laundering and so on. Specifically, the GoG coast for years, has been notoriously known for the flow of cocaine from the Andes via West Africa to Europe; the flow of methamphetamine from West Africa to Asia; the smuggling of migrants to Europe, trafficking of fire arms; transportation of fraudulent essential medicines from Asia to West Africa and as well maritime piracy. However, globalization and its dynamics, has enabled new forms of TOCs. These are - kidnapping, Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) fishing and illicit Fishmeal and Fish Oil Producing Factories atrocities along the GoG shorelines.

Objective of the study
The major objective of the paper is to explicate, situate and contextualize the correlation between globalization and Transnational Organized Crimes. However, the typologies and dynamics of crimes, most especially, crimes that have being bedeviling the security architecture, development, social cohesion and harmony in the GoG domain will be examined also.

Conceptual framework
Globalization
Globalization refers to integration internationally through the exchange of world views, products, ideas and other cultural aspects. This is facilitated by advances in transportation and telecommunications infrastructure enabling openness in trade, finance, travel and communication (Aart Scholte, 2000). These are the major factors that have generated economic and cultural interdependence, creating economic growth

and well-being, and unfortunately, also giving rise to significant opportunity for criminal activities and business (Nelken, 2008). With these developments and economic globalization, global governance has failed to keep pace and has enabled the diversification and internationalization of crime which is presently deemed to have reached macro-economic proportions. Globalized crime includes trafficking and marketing of illegal and counterfeit goods across continents, smuggling of migrants in modern day slavery, organized crime gangs in various urban centers and insurgency, cybercrime and fraud, piracy, and money-laundering, among other vices. The International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 2000 identified four elementary aspects of globalization: movement of capital and investment, trade and transactions, migration, and the dissemination of knowledge, aspects which lead to the emergence of an international network of social and economic systems (Jones, 2010). Globalization is therefore defined as the intensification of social relations across the globe linking distant localities in such a way that happenings at a local level are shaped by events far and wide and vice versa. The processes of globalization do affect and are affected by the organization of business and work, social and cultural resources, economics, and the natural environment (Kohler and Chaves, 2003)

Gulf of Guinea (GoG)

According to Onuoha (2012), there is no universally agreed geographical definition of the GoG. The region is defined here as that part of the Atlantic Ocean of South West of Africa. The region encompasses over a dozen countries from West and Central Africa. These are, Angola, Benin, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Congo, Nigeria, Guinea, Cote dIvoire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo (Onuoha, 20l2). The GoG is fast emerging as an important region because of its landward as well as its maritime domain. Its large population offers a potential market combined with abundant energy resources typified by the proximity of large oil producers (Nigeria and Angola), and maturing oil producer (Congo Brazzaville). The matured producers showing signs of decline (Cameroon

and Gabon) and new producers, (Equatorial Guinea, Ghana, Sierra Leon and Chad) continue to demonstrate a lot of potentials. (Francois, 2009). In addition to the maritime sphere and energy resources, other commodities are also important minerals like diamonds, the region's rain forest habitat, agricultural commodities such as 'Cocoa and tourism. All of these, form hubs of economic importance with international appeal (Francois, 2009). The GG contains 50.4 billion barrels of proven reserves and it produces 5.4 million barrels of oil per day. Its low Sulphur oil and proximity to Europe and the U.S further raise its strategic importance in global energy supply (Onuoha, 2012). The rich nature resources and commercial potentials of the GoG made it attractive transnational organized criminals. When the focal point of, wealth and power is situated offshore, Maritime boundaries are disputed and interstate tensions tend to escalate quickly (Francois, 2009). Moreover, these Volatile conditions would not only favour insurgent-styled activities at sea, but also all manner of criminality. Since majority of the states in the GoG are from West Africa, the GoG is seldom referred to as West African coast or West Africa. So in the study, West Africa and GOG will be used interchangeably.

Theoretical Analysis
Queer Ladder Mobility Theory

The study also adopts the Queer Ladder Mobility Theory (QLMT) as its theoretical framework. QLMT was influenced by an American Sociologist, Daniel Bell (1919-2011) (Chukwuma and Fakumo, 2014) who coined the idea of queer ladder mobility in an attempt to explain the instrumental essence of organized crime as a desperate means of economic empowerment and social climbing. This theoretical perspective has since fertilized into a popular theoretical framework widely used in contemporary crime studies. The basic assumptions of QLMT are thus: (a) organized crime is an instrumental behaviour (b) it is a means to an end. (c) It is an instrument of social climbing or socio-economic advancement. (d) It is a means to accumulate wealth and build power. Often ascribed to this theory is the notion that organized crime thrives in contexts where the government's capacity to detect, sanction and deter crime is poor; where public corruption is endemic and

where prospects for legitimate livelihood opportunities are slim (Nwoye, 2000; Lymen, 2007; Okoli and Oyinya, 2013).

A situation whereby most of the governments across West African States have failed to execute their quintessential responsibilities, especially in terms of the provision of social welfare security. Therefore, the resultant effect of it, is poverty, hardship and economic stagnancy. Thus, engaging in organized transnational crime could be an enticing alternative option to eliminate socio-economic malaise. The idea of ladder in QLMT denotes untoward pattern of social mobility. In effect those who take to TOC such as human trafficking does so as a desperate means of social climbing (mobility). Nobody wants to remain at the bottom of the social stratification of a society forever. The desire to move upward of the ladder of social hierarchy in order to remain influential and economically secured is inborn in everyman. Thus, if the society does not create a legitimate means to achieve the above, then achieving it through TOC could be an option. Meaning that TOC is a means to a socio-economic end. The theory provides some reasonable analytical assumptions for one to understand the foundation of the study at hand.

Some Forms of TOCs in the GoG
Diamond smuggling

The smuggling of diamonds has become something of a specialty in parts of West Africa, due largely to the occurrence of high-quality alluvial diamonds in Sierra Leone especially, that can be mined with no more equipment than a spade and a sieve, and deficiencies in government that permit smuggling and other evasions of official regulations on a massive scale. The most profitable part of the diamond trade is not the extraction of the stones, but their export to wholesale and cutting centers overseas, most notably in Belgium. This export business is dominated by foreigners, especially Lebanese and Syrians, many of them established in West Africa for generations, and, to a lesser extent, Israelis (UNODC, 2005) The mining and export of diamonds overlaps with organized crime in at least three respects. First, rebel groups use diamonds to finance their war effort. While the most notorious example is the RUF in Sierra

Leone, the same has been done by LURD (Liberians United for Reconciliation and Democracy) in Liberia and by elements in Côte d'Ivoire. It has been reported that there is a connection between Al-Qaeda and the illicit diamond trade in West Africa. Agents of Al-Qaeda allegedly systematically bought diamonds from Sierra Leone as a way of laundering money (Farah, 2014). There is substantial evidence that diamonds may be used for financing a variety of political or guerrilla movements in the Middle East. Second, diamonds are smuggled even from areas that are not prone to conflict. Statistics covering the diamond trade are full of discrepancies suggesting that, particularly during the war of the 1990s, diamonds mined in Sierra Leone could be smuggled to neighboring countries before being sent on to Belgium, so that Belgian import figures often bear little relation to the export statistics of other countries. The illegal trade is by no means new, with one study completed in the 1950s judging the smuggling of diamonds from Sierra Leone to be "the greatest smuggling operation in the world" (Fleming, 1960). In short, the existence of a huge, barely-regulated diamond sector in Sierra Leone implicates many countries and networks in the region in illegality. It is also exceptionally deeply-rooted, having existed for over half a century. Third, organized crime groups may engage in the licit diamond trade partly to cover illicit activities elsewhere, in other words as a form of money-laundering. Most observers of the diamond business believe that this takes place to some extent, although there appears to be little hard evidence available to suggest exactly how such networks may function. When Sierra Leone's economy declined in the 1980s, a shortage of foreign exchange through formal sources banks meant that Lebanese diamond traders were able to provide foreign exchange which they had procured through diamond sales. Some also acquired import businesses so as to complete an import-export cycle. Some experts believe that some diamond companies in West Africa continue to import legitimate goods to West Africa and use diamonds to settle their accounts in a form of hawala so as to minimize the necessity to use banks or other conventional financial mechanisms that would

expose them to tax obligations. Some diamond merchants who are prominent in West Africa also have diamond interests elsewhere, notably in Central Africa, suggesting the existence of very complex movements of goods and diamonds covering several different countries (Dietrich, 2004 cited in UNODC, 2005).

Cigarette smuggling
The smuggling of cigarettes is recorded in several countries of the region, including Sierra Leone, where the existence of a higher rate of excise duty on cigarettes than in the neighbouring republic of Guinea provides an incentive to smuggle cigarettes from one country to the other. Although the trade is not inherently violent, it flourished in conditions of the 1990s civil war. Cigarette smuggling is also recorded between Côte d'Ivoire and Ghana. An example of a cigarette smuggling group is the Wansa group (UNODC, 2005). They operating from Sierra Leone, having been brought into Guinea by legal means, the cigarettes are exported under cover of darkness in local boats known as pampas, avoiding customs controls. In Sierra Leone, Wansa has a team of four major distributors strategically located in Freetown, Bo and Kenema (UNODC, 2005). The cigarettes are moved between these locations by truck, generally covered by legitimate merchandise to disguise them. Membership of the organization is secretive and is dependent on kinship and ethnic bonds. It is notable that members of this group in many ways do not display some of the characteristics commonly associated with professional criminals. They are pious and otherwise law-abiding Muslims, who respect the authority of Islamic religious authorities, such that any dispute between them is generally settled by established social authorities rather than by the resort to violence (Lengor, 2004 cited in UNODC, 2005). The most highly specialized in cigarette smuggling are believed to have begun as traders in legitimate goods but to have branched into the cigarette business as a means of investing capital earned elsewhere. One of the consequences is, as a Sierra Leonean police officer notes, that "money gained from the illegal smuggling of cigarettes is protected and covered by the genuine general merchandise business they operate

between Guinea and Sierra Leone, making it difficult to distinguish between legitimate and illegitimate profits in their overall turnover.

Illegal, Unreported and Unregulated (IUU) Fishing
Illicit fishing activities pose a significant threat to Africa, which is surrounded by some of the most diverse and high-yielding waters on earth. Marine resources in and around the continent provide an important (and often the only) source of revenue and food for millions of people. Marine fisheries in Africa provide direct employment to about 2.8 million people and indirect employment to more than 14 million (Berh and Sowman, 2016). In 2016 it was estimated that the continents share of the global IUU catch was about 4.7 million tons of fish, valued at about US$10 billion and representing about 80% of reported catches. IUU fishing is widespread in Africa, with an estimated one in four fish caught illegally (Daniels et al., 2016). The continent is surrounded by diverse ocean basins –the East Atlantic Ocean, the West Indian Ocean, the Gulf of Guinea and the Mediterranean and Black Sea. Of the 54 African countries 38 have a coastline, placing much of the continent at risk of illicit fishing activities. African has the highest record of IUU fishing in the world. In East Africa countries with coasts along the Indian Ocean are estimated to lose approximately US$400 million per year in landings and nearly US$1 billion in related processed products. In the north, five countries border the Mediterranean Sea, which has been labelled the most overfished sea in the world. West Africa, in particular, has regularly been cited as an epicenter, with studies suggesting that more than 40% of the catch is illegal (Daniels et al., 2016). It is estimated that the region loses about US$1.3 billion annually to IUU fishing, with Senegal, Guinea and Sierra Leone losing US$300 million, US$110 million and US$29 million annually respectively (Daniels et al., 2016). It has also been suggested that eliminating IUU fishing could bring 300 000 new jobs to the region. Several countries outside of Africa, including China, Taiwan, Russia, South Korea, Spain, France and Thailand, have been known to engage in illicit fishing activities along the continent's coast (Kaysser and Adal, 2020). Increasing sophistication, internationalization

and convergence with other crimes make the fight more pressing than ever, but also more difficult

Kidnapping in the GoG

Global piracy and armed robbery numbers increased in 2020, according to the international maritime bureau center. Global piracy and armed robbery numbers increased in 2020, according to the International Maritime Bureau Piracy Reporting Centre (IMB PRC, 2020). Its latest annual report lists a total of 195 actual and attempted attacks in 2020, up from 162 in 2019.The agency attributes the rise to an increase of piracy and armed robbery reported within the Gulf of Guinea as well as increased armed robbery activity in the Singapore Straits. The figures are broken down as three vessels hijacked, 161 vessels boarded, 20 attempted attacks, and 11 vessels fired upon. The report also warns of an alarming trend in kidnap for ransom incidents. Globally 135 crews were kidnapped from their vessels in 2020, compared to 134 in 2019, with the Gulf of Guinea accounting for more than 95% of crew numbers. There is no doubt that the Gulf of Guinea presents a serious and immediate threat to the safety and security of crews and vessels operating in the region. The

IMB PRC recorded a total of 84 armed robbery incidents against vessels in the Gulf of Guinea in 2020, a year-on-year increase of more than 30% for this region alone. The region accounted for all three vessel hijackings that occurred in 2020, as well as nine out of 11 vessels that reported coming under fire. The Gulf of Guinea region also recorded the highest ever number of crews kidnapped, with 130 crews taken in 22 separate incidents. Of particular concern is the fact that attacks are increasingly violent, the use of guns were reported in more than 80% of the incidents in the region, in 2020.They occur farther from shore, and larger groups of seafarers are kidnapped per incident (IMB, 2020). The situation off Nigeria continues to be the main concern for vessels and crews trading to the Gulf of Guinea. While the majority of incidents and number of crew kidnapped in the region can still be attributed to Nigeria, the fact that pirates are being observed attacking vessels further out to sea also affects Nigeria's neighbouring countries. According to the IMB PRC, Benin, Ghana, Angola and Guinea, in addition to Nigeria, represented the top five locations for incidents recorded in the Gulf of Guinea in 2020 (See Table 1).

Table 2: Types of violence to crew by location, January - December, 2020

Location	Assault	Hostage	Injured	Kidnap	Killed	Threat
(S/E Asia) Indonesia		2				2
Malaysia				5		
Philippines			1			
Singapore straits		1	1			2
(Americas) Brazil		1				1
Ecuador		2				
Haiti		1				
Mexico			1			
Peru		2	2			2
(Gulf of Guinea) Angola		1				
Benin				29		
Equatorial Guinea			2	6		
Gabon				10		
Ghana			1	6		
Guinea	5					
Ivory Coast		18				
Nigeria		6		62		
Sao Tome and Principe			1	14		
Congo						1
Togo				3		
Sub total	5	34	9	135		8

Source: IMB Annual Report, 2020   Total = 191

From table 1, out of 135 kidnap attacks perpetrated globally, 130 attacks took place in the GoG region of which 62 persons were kidnapped in Nigerian territorial waters, whereas Benin and Sao Tome and Principe territorial waters recorded 29 and 14 respectively. However, kidnapping activities in the jurisdiction of GoG littoral states are attributed to Nigerian criminals. The indicators that corroborate this assertion are: first, all pirates arrested in the year 2020 were from Nigeria, second, majority of the hijacked vessels or kidnapped crew were brought into Nigerian territorial waters, held in captivity in Nigeria and got released on payment of ransom (Kamal-Deen, Yussif, Stephanie, 2020).

Atrocities of Fishmeal/Fish oil Producing Factories in the Shorelines of GoG

The establishment of Exclusive Economic Zones (EEZs) in the 20th century enabled coastal states to exercise sovereign rights for the exploitation of fisheries occurring in a wide area of their coastal waters (Morin, 2020). Theoretically, GoG states were expected to have converted this huge opportunity to graciously utilize the aquatic resources in their EEZs that will bring wealth to her population. Unfortunately, the reverse is the case. Countries from Europe and Asia that are into fishery, are the ones exploiting GoG EEZs' marine resources. Foreign fishing fleets uses all manner of ways to catch fishes and grind same mechanically into Fish-meal and fish-oil (FmFo). A strong demand for FmFo, as an ingredient in livestock and aquaculture feeds, has led to a rapid development of Fish-meal and fish oil producing factories in African states (FAO, 2020). These countries are mostly in Southern, Eastern and Western Africa (FAO, 2020). More than 50 FmFo plants line up in the GoG coast mostly especially in Gambia, Mauritania and Senegal (ADF Report, 2021). A single factory can process 7,500 metric tons of fish a year. Mauritania agreed in 2017 to phase out fishmeal factories by 2020, but the country's 25 foreign owned factories have tripled production instead (ADF Report, 2021). The US Department of Agriculture estimates that Senegal exports 12,000 metric tons of fishmeal par year. One metric ton of fishmeal requires about 5 metric tons of fresh fish to produce (ADF, Report 2021). The UN reported that 90 percent of Senegal's fisheries already are fully fished or facing collapse (ADF Report, 2021).

Contemporary times, fish bones, offal and fish leftovers are no more used for producing FmFo that used to be traditionally. Rather, entire fishes like round sardinella, flat sardinella and bonga (family of Pelagic) are grilled into FmFo (Standing, 2019). Predominantly, fishmeal is used to feed animals and farmed fish while that of fish oil is used in pharmaceutical companies and cosmetic industries in Europe and Asia, mostly especially in Turkey and China (Standing, 2019). FmFo processing factories in W/A especially in Mauritania, Gambia and Senegal are owned and controlled by Chinese companies. Foreign owned FmFo processing factories uses destructive and illegal methods to exploit the sub region fisheries and grind same into FmFo. IUU fishing and illegitimate FmFo industries has grave implications for the region some of the consequences are:

Overfishing Repercussions

Overfishing is the phenomenon when more fish are caught than the population can replace through natural reproduction; it occurs due to illegal, unreported and unregulated fishing. In the GoG specifically, this diminishment is attributed to an increased presence of foreign commercial fishing vessels, and an increased foreign demand for fish-based products such as oil and farm feed. Economically, their presence costs Western African economies $2.3 billion a year and is a detriment to private and national income (Ebiotubo, 2021). Fishing in this region contributes significantly to the macroeconomic improvement of the nations and the microeconomic level as it creates a diversity of jobs and generates income for local economies. But the stability that fishing creates for the nations and peoples of West Africa is threatened by the presence of large, foreign fleets and the depletion of fishing stocks. The decreased amount of fish exacerbates the poverty in this region and forces the local fishermen to resort to unsustainable tactics to meet their economic needs

Threats of Extinction

Environmentally, in marine waters from Mauritania to Angola, 37 species of bony fish are threatened with extinction and 14 species are near-threatened (Ebiotubo, 2021). All of which are imperative and staple sources of food. In conjunction with lower numbers due to the slowed natural re-population of a species, the slowed rebound reduces the gene-pool and reduces the ability to adapt to the effects of climate change. Furthermore, the increased presence of boats searching for a fewer amount of fish has turned both local and foreign boats to more destructive, habitat-decimating techniques like dynamite, bottom trawling, beach seining and increased capture of endangered marine life. The turn towards unsustainable and environmentally hazardous practices allow for temporary economic relief, but will ultimately result in the destruction of an imperative industry, food, and job security and the environment (Ebiotubo, 2021).

The Relationship between Globalization and TOCs

Globalization and capitalism

Taylor suggests that capitalism has benefited from globalization, allowing it to spread across to the developing world. For businesses, the developing world are the new proletariat who can be exploited and made profit out of. Lash and Urry cited in Stella (2016) suggest that globalization has led to a 'disorganized capitalism' with decreased regulations for businesses who employ in developing countries, where there are less strict rules on health and safety and no minimum wages. Taylor argues that this has overall lead to increased inequality, with less job opportunities in the West, and more exploitation in Less Developed Countries (LDCs) This undermines social cohesion and leads to increased crime. Economically, globalization has, on the whole, reinforced the economic marginalization of African economies and their dependence on a few primary goods for which demand and prices are externally determined. This has, in turn accentuated poverty and economic inequality as well as the ability of the vast number of Africans to participate meaningfully in the social and political life of their countries. Globalization introduces anti-development by declaring the state irrelevant or marginal to the developmental effort. Development strategies and policies that focus on stabilization and privatization, rather than growth, development and poverty eradication, are pushed by external donors, leading to greater poverty and inequality and undermining the ability of the people to participate effectively in the political and social processes in their countries. Welfare and other programs intended to meet the basic needs of the majority of the population are transferred from governments to non-governmental organizations that begin to replace governments making them to lose the little authority and legitimacy they have for the state.

Growing individualization

Bauman cited in Stella (2016) suggests that there is growing individualization, meaning that individuals are self-dependent for their success. Taylor suggests individuals now see it as up to them as to whether they achieve the rewards which are based on a western ideology of consumerism. This leads to people putting more importance on personal gain than community benefit, and thus being more likely to turn to crime which could harm others for their own benefit. Globalization created a platform where by individuals are allowed to stand alone or fall according to their worth unaided by the state. Individuals are left to work out their destiny without the assistance from the government. It means those that cannot withstand the vagaries of life are meant to remain suffering or die. The desire to become rich and there by eliminate poverty is innate in every human and at the same time no one wants to die because of suffering. Hence if TOC will make the unfit, weak and vulnerable ones to get rid of poverty and suffering, then it will become attractive and enticing option of survival.

Complication of Security

As a result of globalization, it is now difficult to track down non-state actors, especially crime syndicates due to the borderless nature of the world. The vast marine domain is even worst as there are no security-mounted physical border demarcations, separating states territorial space. In the same vein, Patrick (2010) stated that 'on the security side of globalization, state security has become complex and multi-dimensional. The

consequence is that traditional national border settings and security perceptions are less capable of recognizing new threats that transcend national borders'. 'He further contend that transnational criminal organizations have become globalized by forming strategic alliances. These alliances are particularly disturbing in that they could well pervade weakening regional states'. This explanation of globalization as an enabler of piracy, also explain why the exclusive economic zones of states in the GoG domain are easily invaded and exploited by foreign fishing vessels and as well as kidnappers doing their illegitimate business with impunity.

Intensified Commerce and Technological Revolution

With increased interconnectedness of the world with communication and transportation availability across almost every country and space in the world, has led to criminality occuring at ease. The growing interdependence between states, improved international transportation and deregulation within states as well as the explosion in information technology are the catalyst of the commercial distribution systems. The distribution systems often carry more products, people, currencies and information across it at rate that exceed the ability of nation states to either monitor or regulate (Uadiale, 2010). A study by Caroline Liss as stated in Donna's work (2008) opined that, as over 90 percent of world trade by volume is carried by ships, globalization will only lead to an increase in maritime trade, providing a favourable number of potential targets for attacks. Globalization with the aid of technological revolution and advances, allow transnational criminals access to modern weapon, fast moving vessels, sophisticated offshore communication gadgets, telescope and GPS. The above explanation increases the success of illicit operation of TOCs. Some vessels and trawlers involved in IUU fishing has the requisite technology to instantly convert full fledge fishes into Fishmeal and fish oil for exportation to feed farmed fishes inland in Europe and Asia. Kidnappers has sophisticated weapons to scared their victims.

Cultural globalization

Through globalization, media has become global, meaning people all over the world are exposed to the same Western culture, messages, ideologies and concepts of success. People in developing countries receive the message that living a Western middle class lifestyle centered around consumerism is a means of achieving success. Young argues that people in LEDCs have little chance of obtaining western lifestyle, creating a 'bulimic society' encouraging a turn to crime as a means of achieving this lifestyle. For many people living in poverty, it is a highly desirable route as huge profit can be made to get the western lifestyle they want.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The study established that Transnational organized crimes ranging from human trafficking, drug trafficking, piracy, money laundering, organ trafficking, cyber-crime, arms trafficking and so on are age long menaces that has being hindering socio economic development and peace in the GoG. Recently, globalization has enabled new types of TOC in the said area - kidnapping, illegal activities of fishmeal and fishoil processing industries illicit activities, diamond smuggling, illegal fishing, cigarette smuggling. These threats have colossal implications for the region's political, economic, social, environmental and health architectures.

Transnational crime is taking advantage of the globalization process to enhance the speed and frequency of its conduct of illicit activities, and as well to avoid detection and adverse consequences of law in various jurisdictions. Criminals are increasingly adapting to quick changes and developments in technology, people and goods mobility to cross borders through social networks while exploiting the lack of international cooperation between countries. They also exploit different legal frameworks between countries to successively undermine states efforts in curbing their illicit Activities. The study finds out that globalization and its parameters set the fertilize ground for TOC to strive. Globalization made West African countries in the GoG area dependent and volatile economies, to be constantly exploited by the Western countries because African countries generally, were

wrongly integrated into the global economy. It is also the findings of the study that, ToCs in the GoG flourishes because technology and effective communication gadgets at disposal of criminal organizations to utilize their nefarious activities.

Globalization has made the world to be borderless, therefore criminals can perpetrate their illegitimate businesses from any corner of the world. Excessive liberalism and individualism as indices of globalization create the gap between the poor and rich in the GoG states; communalism is almost eroded. Due to the forgoing, people will always take to crime in order to survive. Thus, there is a huge correlation between TOC and globalization. Nevertheless, to curb the excesses of transnational organized crimes the study suggests that TOC in the GoG region takes place because the area's governance is weak and TOC is more profitable than legal enterprise. States should be able to correct the imbalances by strengthening up governance in the region.

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EFFICACY OF INTERNATIONAL LAW IN COMBATING TRANS-BOUNDARY CRIMES

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Abstract

Trans-boundary organized crime is an issue of growing concern. This article is aimed at analyzing the efficacy of International Law on Trans-boundary Crimes prevention. The study gathered data from UN Conventions, reports and journals, based on detailed guidelines and practical instances. Data collected were analysed using doctrinal method. The article concluded that the impact of transnationally organized crime is profound, and not only does it undercut state institutions but greatly increases the challenges for genuine travellers and business operators who are targeted by customs and law enforcement agencies. As part of recommendations, International Police Organization reform, more effective forms of regional and international cooperation, greater political will by states in an attempt to curb corrupt practices are imperative to effectively combat trans-boundary crimes.

Introduction

Transboundary crimes which could also be known as transnational crimes or cross-border crimes are crimes that have actual or potential effect across national borders and crimes that are intrastate but offend fundamental values of the international community. These crimes are diverse and include: drug trafficking, advanced fee and Internet fraud, human trafficking, diamond smuggling, forgery, smuggling of commodities, illegal manufacture of firearms, trafficking in firearms, Transboundary armed robbery and the theft and smuggling of petroleum products. The term transboundary crime is commonly used in the international law enforcement and academic communities. They are violations of international law that involve more than one country in their planning, execution or impact thus; this could mean that the crime is planned in one country, executed in another but impacts yet a third country or another combination thereof. Offenses of transboundary crimes are distinguished from other international crimes in their multinational nature, which possess unique problems in understanding their causes, developing prevention strategies and in mounting effective adjudication procedures. Transboundary crimes can be grouped into 3 broad categories involving provision of illicit goods such as drug trafficking, trafficking in stolen property, weapons trafficking and counterfeiting which is the process of fraudulently manufacturing, altering or distributing a product that is of lesser value than the genuine product. Counterfeiting is a criminal offense when it involves intent to defraud in passing off the counterfeit item to another country. The second category of transboundary crimes is illicit services which include commercial sex and human trafficking while the third category of transboundary crimes is infiltration of business and government such as fraud, racketeering, money laundering, cybercrime and corruption affecting multiple countries (Albanese, 2005) Transboundary crimes are distinct from international crime which involves crimes against humanity that may or may not involve multiple countries. Examples of international crimes are genocide and war crimes.

According to a UNODC report, West and Central Africa are affected by a combination of factors making it vulnerable to illicit trafficking, organized crime, terrorism and drug abuse. This is notable due to its geographical location, mid-way between South-America and Europe, porous national borders, long coastline as well as weak public service infrastructure. Many

countries in the region have vast territory and borders located either in very remote or densely populated areas thus making enforcement activities particularly difficult in an efficient manner.

The issue of cross-border criminal activities, such as trafficking in drugs, persons, firearms and cigarettes, terrorism and money-laundering is often linked to persons or organizations located well beyond the African Continent. Therefore, this paper examined the effect of transboundary crimes as a serious issue that needs to be addressed using the application of international law.

Forms of Trans-boundary Crimes

Transboundary organized crime is not stagnant, but is an ever-changing industry, adapting to markets and creating new forms of crime. In short, it is an illicit business that transcends cultural, social, linguistic and geographical boundaries and one that knows no borders or rules. Drug trafficking continues to be the most lucrative form of business for criminals, with an estimated annual value of $320 billion.2In 2009, UNODC placed the approximate annual worth of the global cocaine and opiate markets alone at $85 billion and $68 billion, respectively (World Drug Report 2011). Human trafficking is a global crime in which men, women and children are used as products for sexual or labour-based exploitation. While figures vary, an estimate from the International Labour Organization (ILO) in 2005 indicated the number of victims of trafficking at any given time to be around 2.4 million, with annual profits of about $32 billion. Recent research on overall forced labour trends however would suggest that the scope of the problem is much bigger (ILO, 2012).

In Europe, the trafficking of mostly women and children for sexual exploitation alone brings in $3 billion annually and involves 140,000 victims at any one time, with an annual flow of 70,000 victims (UNODC, 2012).

Smuggling of migrants is a well-organized business moving people around the globe through criminal networks, groups and routes. Migrants can be offered a "smuggling package" by organized crime groups, and the treatment they get along the route corresponds to the price they pay to their smugglers. In the process of being smuggled, their rights are often breached and they can be robbed, raped, beaten, held for ransom or even left to die in some cases, when the risks get too high for their smugglers. Many smugglers do not care if migrants drown in the sea, die of dehydration in a desert or suffocate in a container. Every year this trade is valued at billions of dollars. In 2009 some $6.6 billion was generated through the illegal smuggling of 3 million migrants from Latin America to North America, while the previous year 55,000 migrants were smuggled from Africa into Europe for a sum of $150 million (TOCTA, 2010).

Illicit trading in fire arms brings in around $170 million to $320 million annually (UNODC, 2011)and puts handguns and assault rifles in the hands of criminals and gangs. It is difficult to count the victims of these illicit weapons, but in some regions (such as the Americas) there is a strong correlation between homicide rates and the percentage of homicides by firearms.

Trafficking in natural resources includes the smuggling of raw materials such as diamonds and rare metals (often from conflict zones). The trafficking of timber in South-East Asia generates annual revenues of $3.5 billion (TOCTA, 2010). In addition to funding criminal groups, this strand of criminal activity ultimately contributes to deforestation, climate change and rural poverty.

Problems of Transboundary Crimes

The problems transboundary crimes pose to a nation or nations include a growing threat to national and international security, penetration of state institutions, corruption and threats to governance, threats to the economy, also crime-terror-insurgency nexus, expansion of drug trafficking, human smuggling and cybercrime. These problems gradually damage the national and international security because people are unsafe even in their own country and beyond and also these transboundary crimes pose a threat to the economy because the economy gradually begins to depreciate and this causes poverty and an uncomfortable life to the people. Transboundary crime could weaken the economy with illegal activities (such as cigarette trafficking and tax evasion

scams) that result in a loss of tax revenue for state and federal governments. This is particularly of issue given the current state of many countries' economic health. Their fraudulent activities in the domains of strategic commodities, credit, insurance, stocks, securities and investments could weaken the already-troubled financial and housing markets.

In addition to concerns surrounding the many industries in which transboundary criminals operate, both analysts and policymakers have expressed concern about the potential nexus between transboundary crime and terrorism. The principal distinction authorities make between organized crime groups and terrorist group is motivation. Money motivates organized crime and ideology motivates terrorism.

Despite the difference in motivation for organized crime and terrorism, the linking element for the two is money. Terrorist organizations may obtain funds from criminal acts, similar to transboundary crime groups. Also terrorist organizations may launder these funds, similar to criminal organizations. One example of a domain in which both organized criminals and terrorists may both benefit monetarily is piracy. Although there is currently less evidence of terrorist involvement in piracy, this business is said to be of high-profit, low-risk activity, attractive to both criminals and terrorists.

Even if organized crime groups and terrorist organizations do not form long-term alliances, the possibility of short-term business alliances may be of concern to citizens and policymakers alike. For instance, the FBI indicates that although it has not yet had a case of organized crime groups working directly with terrorist, the possibility exists and it continues to be watchful for this nexus. Because organized criminals are monetarily motivated, the FBI believes that these criminals would be inclined to work with terrorists if offered sufficient funds.

Although, there are few reported instances of organized crime groups actually aiding terrorists, there are reported instances of international organized criminals conspiring to provide support to terrorist organizations. One

of such instance is Viktor Bout, an international arms trafficker who has been charged with conspiring to sell weapons to the Revolutionary Armed Forces of Columbia (FARC). Federal law enforcement has distinguished between organized crime groups and drug trafficking organizations. Although there are no reported instances of narco-terrorism or terrorism funded through the proceeds of drug trafficking; the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam, members of Hezbollah and the Al-Qaida network are all examples of terrorist groups with close ties to drug trafficking. GAO reports that U.S officials are concerned with the threat in Eurasia of the links between terrorist organizations and organized crime and trafficking in persons and drugs.

For transboundary crimes to be combated so that people can have a comfortable life and be safe, international law becomes an instrumental tool for combating these crimes which are transnational in nature and in kind. Efficacy of international law by means of international mechanisms is discussed.

International Mechanisms of Combating Transboundary Crimes

In combating these transboundary crimes, international law which is a body of rules established by nations as binding in their relations with one another has been used in the form of multilateral security organizations and others. Multilateral security organizations are called multilateral because they involve many countries, this involves countries working with international organizations to help publicize and investigate transboundary crimes. The first multilateral organization is INTERPOL which is the international criminal police organization, it is an organization established to help police organizations around the world cooperate with one another. INTERPOL does not make arrests but issues alerts called red notices about fugitives who are wanted due to an arrest warrant or court decision. These notices can help build international exposure of these criminals and encourage countries to cooperate. These notices can also severely limit the freedom of movement of these criminals.

International law has been able to prevent transboundary crimes through the United Nations legal framework such as the United Nations Convention against Transboundary Crime adopted by the General Assembly Resolution 55/25 of 15 November 2000, it opened for signature by member states at a high level political conference convened for that purpose in Parlemo, Italy on 12-15 December 2000 and entered into force on 29 September 2003. The convention is further supplemented by three protocols, which target specific areas and manifestations of organized crime: the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children; the Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air and the Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition. Countries must become parties to the convention itself before they can become parties to the protocols. The convention represents a major step forward in the fight against transboundary organized crime and signifies the recognition by member states of the seriousness of the problems posed by it, as well as the need to foster and enhance close international cooperation in order to tackle those problems. States that ratify this instrument commit themselves to taking a series of measures against transboundary organized crime, including the creation of domestic criminal offences provisions in their domesticated criminal laws (participation in an organized criminal group, money laundering, corruption and obstruction of justice), the adoption of new and sweeping frameworks for extradition, mutual legal assistance and law enforcement cooperation and the promotion of training and technical assistance for building or upgrading the necessary capacity of national authorities.

The Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children was adopted by General Assembly Resolution 55/25. It entered into force on 25 December 2003. It is the first global legally binding instrument with an agreed definition on trafficking in persons. The intention behind this definition is to facilitate convergence in national approaches with regard to the establishment of domestic criminal offences

municipal criminal law provisions that would support efficient international cooperation in investigating and prosecuting trafficking in persons cases. An additional objective of the protocol is to protect and assist the victims of trafficking in persons with full respect for their human rights.

The Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air was also adopted by the General Assembly Resolution 55/25 and entered into force on 28 January 2004. It deals with the growing problem of organized criminal groups who smuggle migrants, often at high risk to the migrants and at the great profit for the offenders such as the case often observed off the Libyan coast through the Mediterranean Sea to European countries over the years and also more common is human trafficking which almost perpetrated on daily basis through international land borders. A major achievement of the protocol was that, for the first time in a global international legal instrument, a definition of smuggling of migrants was developed and agreed upon. The protocol aims at preventing and combating the smuggling of migrants as well as promoting cooperation among state parties while protecting the rights of smuggled migrants and preventing the worst forms of their exploitation which often characterize the smuggling process.

The Protocol against the Illicit Manufacturing of and Trafficking in Firearms, their Parts and Components and Ammunition was adopted by General Assembly Resolution 55/255 of 31 May 2001. It entered into force on 3 July 2005. The objective of the protocol which is the first international legally binding instrument on small arms that has been adopted at the global level is to promote, facilitate and strengthen cooperation among state parties in order to prevent, combat and eradicate the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms, their parts and components and ammunition. By ratifying the protocol, states make a commitment to adopt a series of crime-control measures and implement in their domestic legal order three sets of normative provisions: the first one relates to the establishment of criminal offenses related to illegal manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms on

the basis of the protocol requirements and definitions, the second to a system of government authorizations or licensing intending to ensure legitimate manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms and, the third one to the marking and tracing of firearms.

In addition, international law on transboundary crime is beneficial as it provides a framework to facilitate technical assistance. This is particularly important in third world countries as the majority of them are developing states which may not have sufficient resources, expertise and capacity to combat transboundary crime more effectively. A lack of financial resources within the third-world countries is a major problem but should not be an excuse not to assist each other as there are ways to mitigate this. Effective legislative frameworks and procedures for confiscation of criminal proceeds are crucial in this regard. The first international legal instrument touching upon this is the Convention against Illicit Traffic in Narcotics and Psychotropic Substances. Although, the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (UNTOC) applies to organized crime generally and therefore provides a better framework. Under Article 12, states have to enhance their domestic efforts to confiscate criminal proceeds while Article 13 places an additional obligation to facilitate international cooperation for this purpose. Finally, sharing the confiscated proceeds with other states as well as international organizations is envisaged under Article 14.

The Financial Action Task Force (FATF) is an international security organization also established to help countries fight transboundary crime, in regards to the case of financial crimes. FATF was established in 1989 by the G7, the countries with the world's seven most advanced economies, in order to help fight money laundering. The organization does this by establishing government best practices or the most ideal policies for countering money laundering and encouraging countries to adopt these measures. Example of recommendations for countries include: 1) that governments criminalize the financing of terrorism, 2) that governments require banks to report accounts being used to finance criminal activity or terrorism. Iraq is a member of FATF's Middle East affiliate. It has committed to implementing several FATF recommendations such as criminalizing money laundering and establishing customer due diligence requirements. Organizations like INTERPOL and FATF do not have the power themselves to prosecute criminals or make arrests and therefore should be given at least the power to make arrest. They are instead international security organizations that help domestic police and courts do their work. Furthermore, INTERPOL and FATF are not the only multilateral security organizations fighting transboundary crimes. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) for instance, trains member states on best practices for fighting illicit drugs, crime and terrorism. It also conducts research and pushes countries to ratify relevant treaties. The United Nations Global Initiative to Fight Human Trafficking as part of UNODC performs similar work on trafficking issues and countless NGO's work on these issues by publishing reports, supporting government programs and providing services for victims of transboundary crimes. It is worth noting that the international legal organization called International Criminal Court (ICC) does not prosecute transboundary crimes and so should be given such power especially on a high profile one that poses threat to world peace and security, its authority is instead over international crimes such as genocide, war crimes and crimes against humanity. There are several other important organizations whose focus is on fighting if not prosecuting transboundary crimes.

The Application of International Legal Frameworks in Combating Transboundary Crimes

Another way in which international law has been used in combating transboundary crime is through extradition and mutual legal assistance which can also be called bilateral mechanisms because they are between two countries, not many countries as in multilateral mechanisms.

In 2009 and 2010, Estonia had received from the United States three requests for the extradition of three persons accused of membership in criminal organizations who had committed computer-related bank fraud.

Those request had been made using the as a legal basis Article 16 of the Organized Crime Convention, as well as the 2006 extradition treaty between Government of Estonia and Government of the United States and the Council of Europe's Convention on Cybercrime.

Mutual legal assistance treaties are written so that countries may help one another investigate, prosecute and punish criminal offenses. Countries enter into mutual legal assistance treaties or any other treaties in order to accomplish together what they cannot achieve alone. In this case, mutual legal assistance treaties help countries track and capture criminals across their borders. Some mutual legal assistance treaties require that countries return stolen assets to one another. Other treaties require that countries help one another train their law enforcement agents, some other treaties require that countries exchange information about cases and crimes and other treaties, though very few of them require that others be allowed to pursue suspects into their own territories, in the language of law enforcement, this is known as hot pursuit which in all should be strengthened.

Iraq has had at various times legal assistance treaties with Turkey, Hungary and the Soviet Union. These treaties contain many of the provisions described above. The assistance treaty with Hungary for instance, requires the countries to help one another enforce criminal judgments, that is, take assets and exchange information on criminal cases. None appear to help with law enforcement training, though all contain provisions on extradition. In this way Iraq, like many other countries, uses mutual legal assistance treaties at least in theory, if not in practice to assist in the prosecution of transboundary crimes. Yet, it should be noted that, Iraq and its allies rarely use these treaties. Turkey, for instance, has repeatedly requested that Iraq extradite people it believes to be criminals and terrorists with no success. Similarly, Iraq has requested that Turkey extradite its former vice president, again without result.

The second bilateral mechanism is the Extradition Treaty which could also be considered as a form of legal assistance treaty but is so important that it is worth considering separately. Extradition allows one state to arrest a criminal accused of a crime in another state. For instance, if a person commits a bank robbery in Nigeria, then flee to United Kingdom, UK may arrest and return such person on Nigeria's behalf if the countries have an extradition treaty between one another. More specifically, the state to which the criminal has fled often make a provisional arrest, that is, a temporary detention until the requesting state can assemble the documentation for a formal extradition request, in order for this to occur however, the arresting state must have some jurisdiction over the criminal.

There are four common limitations to Extradition Treaties that are important to understand. First, for extradition to apply, the perpetrator's actions must have been a crime in both countries. So for example, a criminal can only be extradited for bribery if bribery is a crime in both countries where the crime was committed and where the criminal was caught. This means that, it is not that the crime must have occurred in both countries, only that it be defined as a crime in both. Looking at the example cited above, when a person commits a bank robbery in Nigeria, then flees to United Kingdom, such person can only be captured in UK if his actions are considered a crime in both Nigeria and UK.

A second important limitation is the political offense exception. In many extradition treaties, countries will not extradite individuals accused of committing violent acts for political reasons. So if a person destroys a government property in Nigeria during a protest, then flees to Ghana, Ghana is unlikely to extradite him, even if such vandalism is a crime in both countries.

Thirdly, many extradition treaties require that individuals who are extradited only be prosecuted and detained for the crimes for which they are extradited. So a country cannot have an individual extradited for one crime, only to charge him with another, perhaps for more serious crime. In the United Nations model treaty on extradition, on which many bilateral extradition treaties are based, this is known as the "Rule of Specialty". To understand the rule in practice, one has to consider the following example; Great Britain

once extradited a suspected murderer to the United States of America. Once there, however, the U.S charged the suspect not with murder but with a different crime: inflicting pain and unusual punishment. The U.S Supreme court in essence said this charge violated the rule of specialty and dismissed the conviction.

Mutual Legal Assistance Treaty (MLAT) is an agreement between two or more countries for the purpose of gathering and exchanging information in an effort to enforce public or criminal laws. A mutual legal assistance request is commonly used to formally interrogate a suspect in a criminal case, when the suspect resides in a foreign country. Examples of mutual legal assistance treaties include but not limited to:

- Convention on Mutual Administrative Assistance on Tax Matters (1988)
- European Convention on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters (1959)
- European Convention on the International Validity of Criminal Judgments (1970)
- Inter-American Convention on Mutual Assistance in Criminal Matters
- United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime (2000)

See also the case of deportation, extradition and judicial assistance.

- OAU/AU Convention on the Prevention and Combating of Terrorism (1999)
- AU Convention on Preventing and Combating Corruption (2003)
- AU Convention on Cross-border Cooperation (2014)
- AU Convention on Cyber Security and Personal Data Protection (2014)
- Statute of the AU Commission on International Law (AUCIL) 2009

Legal Challenges and Limitations of International Law in Combating Transboundary Crime

Some countries such as China and Australia have bans on extraditing their own citizens meaning that they will not extradite their own citizens under any condition. Instead they have laws following their governments to prosecute citizens for crimes committed abroad. Iraq has a number of extradition treaties with for example Iran (signed in 2011), Turkey (1932), the United Kingdom

(1934) and the United States (1934). The Iraq-US extradition treaty, for instance, requires that each country turn over people who have been charged by the other country of rape, murder, arson or other serious crimes. It also has several of the limitations listed above. Criminals for instance can only be extradited for crimes recognized in both countries and cannot be extradited for political offenses.

One example of success comes from Kurdistan. In 2007, 2 Iraqi men strangled a woman in an honor killing in England. After strangling the woman, the 2 men fled to Iraq and ultimately to Sulaimaniyah. The location of the 2 men did not stay secret for long, however. One went to prison for a fatal car accident, the other was found in a hospital after surviving a gunshot wound. Once the locations of the 2 men were discovered, women's rights groups working with British investigators, were able to convince the Iraqi courts to extradite the 2 men to the UK (the 2 countries already had an extradition treaty between one another). Both men were extradited, convicted and sentenced to jail terms of over 20 years.

Applicability of International Law on Transboundary Crimes Cases

The application of international law in combating transboundary crimes can be seen in several cases. Some of these cases are Wright V Henkel, 190 U.S 40(1903). This case was argued on April 28th to 29th 1903 and decided June 1, 1903. This was a case of a director of a company who committed the crime of fraud in England and then he ran to United States where he was extradited because the crime of fraud is an offense within the extradition treaty between the United States and Great Britain.

We can also see another extradition case in Kelly V Griffin, 241 U.S 6(1916). This case was argued on April 6th and 7th 1916 and decided on April 17, 1916. This case was a case of a person who committed perjury in Canada, obtained money under false pretence and received stolen property which is within the meaning of the extradition provisions of the treaty with Great Britain both in Canada where the offenses were committed and in Illinois where the person demanded was arrested.

There is also the case of Collier V. Vaccaro where the accused was extradited for arresting the plaintiff in Canada and forcibly carried him across the boundary into the United States. He was extradited for the crime of kidnapping which was within the extradition treaty between Canada and United States.

The extradition treaty can also be seen in the case of Ornelas V Ruiz, 161 U.S 502 (1896) which was argued on January 13, 1986 and decided March 16, 1896, it was a case of a complaint made by the Consul of the Republic of Mexico charging Juan Duque, Inez Ruiz and Jesus Guerra with the commission of murder, arson, robbery and kidnapping at the village of San Ygnacio in the State of Tamaulipas, Republic of Mexico on December 10, 1892; that they were fugitives from justice of the State of Tamaulipas and the Republic of Mexico and had fled into the jurisdiction of the United States for the purpose of seeking asylum and that the alleged crime were enumerated and embraced in the treaty of extradition then in force between the United States and the Republic of Mexico, warrants were issued by L.F Price, commissioner of the Circuit Court of the United States for the Western District of Texas, duly authorized for their apprehension on which they were arrested and brought before the commissioner to answer the premises and to be dealt with according to law and the provisions of the treaty. The cases were heard and the commissioner found that the evidence was sufficient in law to justify their commitment on such charges and that they should be placed in custody to await the order of the president of the United States in the premises.

See also the case of Benson V McMahon, 127 U.S 457 (1888) which was argued on May 1, 1886 and decided May 14, 1888. In this case, the accused was extradited and surrendered to the Mexican authorities for a crime in Mexico.

Conclusion

In conclusion, derived from the ongoing that has been discussed above including the relevant cases cited, one can see that international law is capable and has the efficacy to produce a desired effect in combating transboundary crimes.

In terms of steps to be taken in addition to criminalizing money laundering and financial organized crimes, a specialized agency should be established and staffed with sufficiently trained law enforcement officials.

In addition, financial investigation should be conducted in parallel with criminal investigations into organized crime so that the relevant authorities can identify and trace criminal proceeds sooner rather than later.

It is imperative to recommend that proactive international cooperation and communication with private financial and related institutions, which may be in contact with criminal proceeds, should be facilitated.

Regionally, the establishment of the asset recovery inter-agency network noted above is a positive step forward but more practical training and intelligence sharing should accompany this.

Furthermore, the willingness of states to observe and implement harmonization and mutual recognition of international legal frameworks combat transboundary crime is important in order to enhance their capacity to identify and confiscate criminal proceeds.

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GLOBALIZATION AND THE EVOLUTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA: APPRAISAL OF NIGERIA'S ENVIRONMENTAL SITUATIONS

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Abstract

Environmental problems faced by the people globally have risen to a deplorable state with a resultant depression of the economic, social and health systems around the globe, particularly in the less advanced technological countries. Most economies are weak while few others strived to survive but with very low Gross Domestic Products (GDP) due to the hazards on the environment. Agrarian societies from where raw materials for the industrial nations are produced, suffered poverty, unemployment and infrastructural decay while the industrial nations which depended on these raw materials suffered economic melt-down in turn, in spite of their technologies. This study therefore, is aimed at examining the global environmental problems despite all the international, regional and domestic interventions. The researcher focused on effective environmental governance as a panacea to the recalcitrant global environmental pollutions (hazards). Nigeria's environmental situations are used as a case study in the globalised environmental problems, especially, to show how ineffective environmental governance in Nigeria has contributed to its poor environmental conditions. To actualize the control of environmental hazards from globalised pollutions, using effective environmental governance approach, the study adopted the doctrinal research method which assisted the researcher in the appraisal of some related international, regional and national laws on environmental governance. It was found that some related international conventions, treaties, protocols, laws etc, regional laws, charters as well as some Nigeria's environmental laws enacted have conferred already on each country, Nigeria inclusive, the "rights of environmental "governance" as to how its environment should be used to bring about the development of its people. However, it was also found that these instruments for environmental governance were not effectively utilized as "Fundamental Human Right", hence, strict application was lacking. It was further found that there was no sincere political will on the part of the government to strictly enforce the laws against environmental violators, as "Fundamental Human Rights" provided for in the "African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights". The technological and developmental gap between the industrialized countries and the naivety of developing countries of the world were also found as contributing negatively towards effective environmental governance as a major approach for controlling environmental problems on the globe. However, it is concluded that since globalization has come to stay, environmental problems cannot be avoided but controlled to the barest minimum levels, if all the identified problems are tackled with utmost tasks in line with the Nation's development policies.

Key Words: Globalization; Environmental Hazards, Environmental Governance, Enforcement.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The problem of environmental pollutions and degradation is now the concern of the entire world, irrespective of the areas of primary impact. The concerns arise from the fact that, the world is a global village where ideas, technologies and information are in the public domain, not minding the levels of civilization attained by the individual cultures and socialization.

Again, the effects or hazards borne by the particular localities where environmental pollutions occur are in turn shared by distant localities from the original impacted localities due to the global connects of the entire world. The shared effects emanate from the various

dispersal and causal agents of such environmental problems[1] which this research will attempt to discuss. This work will focus on the global effects of environmental pollutions, degradations and the various solutions offered to prevent and manage such environmental pollutions when they occur.

Generally speaking, globalization and the evolution of environmental governance in Nigeria attempts to explain the causes of environmental pollutions, prevention and management at both macro and micro levels in Nigeria. In other words, this research work combines or looks at the combined effects of global and local challenges on environmental governance. The roles of the Nigerian government in managing both its local and globalized environmental problems in the light of globalized environmental governance. In doing this, four vital issues are germane to form our main areas for discussion. These four vital issues include: (i) Role of the multinationals (MNCs) in environmental governance, (ii) Rationale for the collectivity of actions between local and global collaborators; (iii) The local community and environmental governance and ; (iv) The role of authorized institutions in the effective and efficient management of globalized environmental problems.

1.1 GLOBALIZATION AND EVOLUTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE

The concept of environmental governance will always be made meaningful when viewed holistically. The environment is universal, therefore, the concept of globalization is needed to be understood first as to grasp with the effective relationship between environmental pollutions and governance. In this reasoning therefore, environment deals with the ecosystem, being the most complex and largest abode within the biosphere where human live and interact with one another. All the interactions of man to man, man with

micro and macro organisms (faunae & florae), economic activities, commercial and industrial endeavours occur within the biosphere.

Studies have shown that environmental problems arise from these activities of man, most of which are done some thousands of miles away from the area of impact. Thus, globalization[2] has made the whole world become an approachable smaller village where interactions between different distant countries are determined and controlled by regimes of international powerful organizations who formulate international rules and regulations. Environmental degradations and pollutions are mostly orchestrated by these international organizations, oftentimes referred to as the Multinational Corporations (MNCs) and Transnational Corporations (TNCs).

Similarly, Giddens, in his view, defined globalization as the "intensification of worldwide social relations[3] which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring miles away and vice versa".

Globalization therefore leads to the homogenization and convergence in organizations' strategies, structures and processes. It introduces dictated choices for the global consumers, a tailored labour with the tendencies of widening the income gap between the developed and developing countries.

It is important to observe that the world is now practicing accelerated globalization which encourages and strengthens the dominance of a world capitalist system, thereby supplanting the dominance or supremacy of the nation state[4] with transnational corporations and organizations, and hitherto eroding local cultures and traditional values through a global culture. However, this expository study will be limited to the globalized view of the environmental pollution and management. The neo-capitalist view of globalization will be avoided completely. In other words, this study

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[1] Ascher, W. (1999), 'Why Governments Waste Natural Resources'; Barbara G. , Ivanova, M. and Chee, V.L. (2002), 'Designing a New Architecture for Global Environmental Governance'. World Summit for Sustainable Development Briefing Papers (IIED) London
<http://www.poptel.org.uk/iied/test/searching/ring.pdf/wssd-21-international-environmental-governance.pdf> accessed 13 – 11 – 2014.

[2] Giddens A, *The Consequences of Modernity,* Cambridge and Oxford: Polity and Blackwell (1990). England
[3] Giddens (n 2)
[4] Castells, M; 'The Information Age: Economy, Society and Culture', vol. 3, End of Millenium (1998) Oxford and Blackwell, England.

shall focus and be directed on the globalization of environmental pollutions, degradation and the emergence of environmental governance.

1.2 EVOLUTION OF ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE

Environmental governance evolved out of the consciousness of the domestic government to effectively harnessed its natural resources, control their usages with little or minimal dangers to the health of its citizens and above all, to create from these resources, wealth and sustainable development.

Evolution of environmental governance attempts to expose to our understanding, the origin or foundation as well as the sources of how Nigeria began to manage and control its environmental practices (environmentalism), though fraught with obvious enforcement difficulties. The study revealed that environmental governance in Nigeria originated from two basic orientations. These are the international environmental awareness or management conferences, summits, seminars etc and the local environmental hazardous practices.

International laws, treaties, protocols, resolutions and regional charters are sometimes treated as independent and outstanding source of this environmental governance. However, this will be treated in some details.

What then is Environmental Governance?

Environmental governance refers to the participation of a national government in the socio-political decision making in the global/domestic use and management of their natural resources.

In other words, the process by which a nation is given the opportunity to participate in the socio-political decisions in the use and management of its natural resources. Having defined what environmental governance is, it is necessary to now look at the international and domestic (national) origins of environmental governance.

2.0 INTERNATIONAL ORIGIN OF ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE

The international approach to environmental governance is also referred to as the "International Awareness"[5] of environmental governance. International conferences, summits, treaties and resolutions highlighted the importance of our environment and the need for government and other valued agencies or organizations to take necessary steps towards the protection of the environment. These steps were being discussed at different international fora but without linkage to human rights.[6] Thus, the "African Charter" was the first international instrument to proclaim the right to a satisfactory environment for development as a "declaration on Fundamental Human Rights".

2.1 The Stockholm Conference, 1972

The right of nations to protect and manage their environment, vis-à-vis, natural resources for sustainable development was seriously proclaimed and declared at Stockholm by the United Nations in 1972 at a conference on the human environment. The Stockholm Conference conceded to nations the right to exploit their resources in line with their domestic policies and within their jurisdictions. Thus, Agenda 21 of the Stockholm Declaration which conceded to nations the right to exploit their resources is regarded as the first origin of environmental governance to all nations, Nigeria inclusive.

2.2 United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP)

In 1982, the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP), held a special session to reinforce the "21 Principles Agenda" of the 1972 Stockholm Conference which hitherto raised the efforts of different countries in the adoption of legal regimes aimed at entrenching the principle of sustainability as a focal point of environmental law.

2.3 The United Nations Earth Summit (Rio Declaration)

Another important international awareness on environmental governance was that created by the United Nations Earth Summit held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, at Brazil. In this summit,

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[5] Chris Peter, 'Taking Environment Seriously: The African Charter of Human and Peoples' Rights and the Environment' in Review of the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights/Africa (African Society of International and Comparative Law edition, 1993) vol. 3, pts 1& 2, 38 at 38.
[6] *Ibid.*

the direct relationship between the environment and development was established. The Summit emphasized that environment must be properly harnessed and managed in order to meet the needs and aspirations of the current generation without compromising the ability to meet those of future generation.[7]

Following this summit, the international community now became conscious of the world as a "global impacted village". Environmentally, international community identified the following environmental problems[8] addressed at the Conference on Earth Summit. These problems are: Urbanization; Health care; Mineral and other Resources Exploitation; Desertification and coastal erosion, Agro-ecosystem, oil pollution, Pollution of inland and underground waters and industrialization.

The above identification of environmental problems prompted the dialectics that now constitute the environmental policies in various countries.

2.4 The United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED)

In 1999, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development was organized to enhance the recommendations of the 1972 Stockholm Conference and that of the Rio Declaration in 1992. Thus, the UNCED appeared to galvanize the efforts of the international community as to the question on the actualization of sustainable development in the countries of the world. This conference, led to the formulation of environmental policies to be adopted by all the member states and indeed, all the countries on the globe. What this means is that, a globalized (collective) approaches in environmental issues, rather than the individualistic attitude of states to environment before the Stockholm and Rio Declaration. In other words, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) acts as the bridge connecting the "21 Principles Agenda" of the

1972 Stockholm Conference and the "Earth Summit" Conference (Rio Declaration) in terms of implementations by the various states of the world. Thus, it is aimed at practically implementing the recommended environmental sustainable programmes[9] (projects).

However, the above discussed international conferences in respect of environmental sustainable development and governance gave rise to the "BRUNDTLAND REPORT",[10] otherwise known as the 'Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), 1997. In compliance with the "Action Plan and the Declaration on Human Environment", the Brundtland Report attempted to present common solution to the problems of the environment, particularly, emphasizing on sustainable development.

2.5 THE AFRICAN CONTINENT AND ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE
i)   African Charter on Human and People's Rights

Africa is one of the seven continents of the world where environmental problems affect so much, perhaps, because of underdevelopment and effect of western industrialization. The African countries, being present at all the world environmental conferences and summits, adopted the resolutions on environmental problems to better their living. Importantly, the concept of sustainable development which of course is the bedrock of environmental governance was carefully adopted at the platform of the African Union.

Thus, in 1981, the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, provided at its Article 24 as follows: "All peoples shall have the right to a general satisfactory environment favourable to their development".

The pronouncements of this Charter forms the basis and indeed the evolution of the African states, the rights to governing their natural resources and sustain their development there

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[7]   Handi G., 'State Liability for Accidental Transnational Environmental Damage by Private Persons' (1980) 74 A.J.I.L. 525 at 528

[8] van Heijnsbergen P, 'The Pollution Concept in International Law: Environmental Policy and Law' (1979) 11

[9] Peter Malanczuk, Akehursts, *Modern Introduction to International Law* (New York: Routledge, 1997) at pp. 241-253

[10] Ajai, W. 'Achieving Environmental Protection through the Vehicle of Human Rights: Some Conceptual Legal and Third World Problems' (1995) U.B.L.J., vol. 2, No. 1 p. 41.

from. This provision was adopted by the African States without hesitation on the premise that it will check and control the reckless attitudes of the western industrialized nations using African soil as the dumping grounds for their industrial hazardous wastes.[11]

The African Charter declaration of 1981, being the first international instrument to proclaim the right to a satisfactory environment for development as a human right was followed up immediately with adoptions by member African states. This is followed by other regional treaties as vehicles of implementation. Thus;

i) **The Bamako Convention of 1990**

The Bamako Convention of 1990 was an aftermath of the 1981 African Charter's declaration. The Bamako Convention prohibits and thereby bans the importation as well as the dumping of all forms of hazardous wastes into Africa. The Bamako Convention was held to protest against the dissatisfaction of the developing countries with the "Basel Convention" which permitted partial ban on trans-boundary movement of hazardous wastes. Generally, Articles 4(3)(b) and 6 of the Convention permitted intra African states movement of wastes and that such movement (trans-boundary) should be based on the written permission of the exporting state and on the approval of the importing state.

ii) **The Lome (IV) Convention of ACP/EEC**

iii) **The Lagos Plan of Action**

The Lome (IV) Convention of ACP/EEC and the Lagos Plan of Action followed the Bamako Convention almost immediately for the realization of environmental governance[12] by the states in order to provide municipal legislation[13] required to protect and manage the environment.

With growing awareness created by the international conventions, statutes,

conferences, summits etc, on environmental issues, states become drifted into adopting similar approach towards governing their environment. In Nigeria, environmental problems became seriously tackled following and after the dumping of toxic wastes[14] in Koko farm, in Delta State in 1988. This incidence of environmental hazards led to the promulgations of the following domestic laws in Nigeria on environmental problems.

2.6 FEDERAL ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AGENCY (FEPA) 1988

The dumping of Italian company's toxic waste in Koko, a community in Delta State with reckless abandon warranted the promulgation of FEPA and the (ii) Harmful Waste (Special Criminal Provisions) Act 1988.

The establishment of the Federal Environmental Protection Agency is aimed at protecting the Nigerian environment (air, land and water) through the enactment and enforcement of laws on the environment.

The Harmful Waste (Special Criminal Provisions) Act was also promulgated to prevent foreign and indeed, any company from dumping toxic wastes within the Nigerian territories. This research is careful not to discuss the roles of these Nigerian environmental laws in details but to identify these laws and enforcement on environmental governance.

2.7 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT ASSESSMENT ACT (EIA) 1992

In order to have good control of management over the Nigerian environment and achieve sustainable development from the use of our natural resources, the Federal government enacted the EIA[15] in 1992. The basic aims and objectives are to enhance sustainable development through proper assessment of the impact of any projects.

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[11] Smith, P. and George A. 'The Dumping Grounds', No. 94, South Magazine August, 1988, 37; Ezeth, P. 'Nigerians who Stole Toxic Waste', No. 253, New African, October 1998, at 22; Newswatch Magazine, June 27, 1988.

[12] Malcolm, R. *A Guide Book to Environmental Law* (London: Sweet & Maxwell 1994) 9-11

[13] *Ibid,* 10-15

[14] P Smith and A George (n 11)

[15] Adedipe N. O., 'A Workable Structure for the Proposed Federal Environmental Protection Agency' in Aina E.O.A. and Adedipe N.O. (eds.), *The Making of the Nigerian Environmental Policy* (Ibadan: University Press, 1991) 127 at 132

However, it was observed that in spite of the promulgations of the various environmental protection laws, abuses of the use of the Nigerian environment by both foreign and indigenous companies have been on the increase. Increasing growth in the rates of pollutions on the water, land and air was found to be due to non-enforcement of these laws. This situation warranted the establishment of the following enforcement agencies in Nigeria.

2.8 National Environmental Standards Regulations Enforcement Agency (NESREA) Act, 2007

The enforcement of Nigerian environmental laws with the aim of maintaining international best practice standards warranted the promulgation of this Act in 2007.

It enhances domestic governance of the Nigerian environment by controlling the use of its natural resources and biodiversity to ensure sustainable development. Thus, section 35 of the NESREA Act 2007 enumerates the saving principles or provisions for the environment.

This is an enforcement agency of the Federal government of Nigeria which enforces compliance with the "Rio Declarations and the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights".

2.9 National Oil Spill Detection and Response Agency (NOSDRA) 2006

This Agency is established by law to detect oil spillages and responses of the polluters immediately. It applies the "polluter pays principle"[16] to enforce compliance to sustainable development.

2.10 The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (as amended)

The CFRN is the *grundnorm* of all the domestic laws or legislations in Nigeria. It is the first authority for the governing of the Nigerian environment. Thus, s. 20 of the CFRN 1999 (as amended) gave to Nigeria the rights to protect its environment under the "Fundamental

Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy".[17] Unfortunately, because of the provisions of s.6(6)(c) of the 1999 Constitution (as amended), the provision of s.20 cannot be enforced by individuals in any court of law in Nigeria.

There are other laws on the evolution of the environmental governance in Nigeria which are inexhaustible. Having dealt with the basic legal framework on the evolution of the environmental governance in Nigeria, the study will be conducted with the examination of environmental governance.

2.11 ENVIRONMENTAL GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA

Environmental governance refers to the socio-political aspect of making participatory decision over the use and management of natural resources.[18] In other words, environmental governance can be defined as the process whereby any given state is given the opportunity to actively participate in the socio-eco and political decision making in the use of all the natural resources within its environment.

Defining further, environmental governance is defined as the sovereign rights of a country to participate without prejudice or discrimination in the decisions or policies on the use, management and control of its environment. This environment spans to cover the land, water and the atmosphere within its jurisdiction. This definition is ably captured in **Article 77(1)** of the **United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS) 1982.** Similarly, **s. 2 (1) of the Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) Act of 1978.**

This same right to participate in the decision making on the socio-eco-political aspects of the use of natural resources of a country extends beyond a given geographical jurisdiction to trans-national boundaries[19] (international, regional and inter-regional).

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[16] Bonus and Holgar, 'Implications of the Polluter Pays and the User Pays Principles for Developing Countries' in Edward Dommen (ed.), *Fair Principles for Sustainable Development* (Cambridge, 1993) 67.

[17] S.20 CFRN 1999 (as amended)
[18] United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea (UNCLOS), 1982, Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ) Act 1978.
[19] Ajai, W. (n 10), UNEP: Conference on Strengthening Transboundary Freshwater Governance (National University of Ireland, 2014).

This assertion is borne from the fact that the entire world is a globalized village, where any environmental hazards in a particular location do affect other distant states as a result of the environmental dispersal agents[20] (air, water and bovine). Building on this premise therefore, every state of the world should be given the rights to participate in the decisions and policies making process on the use of natural resources and environmental management. It is important to state that environmental governance is concerned with the political and legal rights, regulations and responsibilities of every member of the society.[21] This includes; the civil society, private sector, non-governmental organizations and government.

According to John Borrows,[22] this participation should include indigenous communities. Explaining further, Borrows emphasized that environmental decision making process should involve different forms and levels of community participation in planning and implementation on the use and management of natural resources found on their native land. In doing this, a holistic view on the biodiversity, river system, dry land, coast, oceans and cities needed to be balanced.

Since environmental governance deals and advocates on the inclusion of all the states as stakeholders in the use, control and management of the natural resources, it is important that the cultural values, beliefs and social norms of the communities be given autonomous considerations. Environmental governance, as a concept, hinges on sustainable development and significantly, it deals with the creation of wealth[23] for members of the society from the available natural resources without damaging the environment for the generations yet unborn;

hence, the process of economics and social development are in no doubt, both natural and environmental. In-build in environmental governance is expanding the pace of socio-economic transformation[24] under globalization in both the developed and developing countries.

The summation in respect of environmental governance is the process by which all member states including all the rural communities from where natural resources are found are allowed the opportunities of participating in decisions and policies that will lead to the elimination and or control of the "systematic depletion of natural resources such as land, water and air, soil erosion, desertification, oil pollution, poor and inefficient management of solid waste/sewage disposal, household refuse and the invasion of water ways by water hyacinth and dumping of toxic wastes". The words "control" and "management" used in this explanation, simply means that environmental problems are ongoing and bound to occur insofar as man explores to survive. Thus, inevitable but efforts should be directed to manage. Host countries should be involved with other environmental actors in such environmental management. This idea seemed to be heralded in the opinion of the **International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN),** when it defined Environmental Governance as the 'multi-level interactions of local, national and international/global actors in matters concerning the control and management of natural resources. According to the IUCN, there are three main actors in environmental governance, though not limited to these three which interact with one another in formulating and implementing policies in response to environmental related matters. Norms of behavior among members of communities can guide resource management in line with the desired environmental governance policies. The policies are based on the following

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[20] Gareau, Brian J. *From Precaution to Profit: Contemporary Challenges to Global Environmental Protection in the Montreal Protocol* (Yale University Press, 2013).

[21] Lowry, A. and Donahue, T.P., *Parks, Politics, and Pluralism: The Demise of National Parks in Togo* (Society and Natural Resources 1994) 7, 321-329

[22] Borrows, J. 'With or Without You: First Nations Law' (McGill Law Journal Canada, 1995) vol. 41 at 629

[23] Coleman, J.S. *Foundations of Social Theory* (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press 1990)

[24] Agrawal, A. 'Enchantment and Disenchantment: The Role of Community in Natural Resource Conservation' (World Development vol. 27, No. 4, 1999) 629-649

environmental factors.[25] These factors are discussed as follows:

2.12 Environmental Factors for Governance

i) **Soil deterioration:** The soil is a natural gifts from God upon which the lives of the people depend. Any use of the land (soil) that will lead to its inability to absorb, capture, store and recycle water, energy and food, then such soil is no longer suitable for sustenance of lives. It is therefore required that actors of the environment should make policies that would sustain the viability of the soil as propagated by the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) during the 21 Agenda – principles at the Rio Declaration in 1972. In the Rio proposal paper, these statements amongst others are listed for our consumption viz:

- Save our soils to sustain our societies
- Include soil rehabilitation as part of conventional and popular education
- Involve all stakeholders, including policy makers and authorities to manage incentives and enforce regulations and laws
- Establish a set of binding rules, such as an international conventions
- Set up mechanisms and incentives to facilitate transformations
- Mobilize funds nationally and internationally

ii) **Climate Change:** This is life threatening and of grave global concerns because of its devastating effects on the globe. Climate change has been scientifically proven to be emanating from human activities and greenhouse effects as well as gas flaring being responsible for global warming. Environmental actors should evolve policies in line with the problems so far identified.

The Kyoto Protocol[26] and the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and the UNCED need to enforce and review their policy statement programmes by involving all the states, including the local communities.

iii) **Biodiversity:** This is another important aspect of environmental problem that requires good governance. It involves moving and management of organisms in the environment. It includes man, faunae and florae and other ecological habitat. Good laws and regulations are needed to be promulgated at international, regional and national levels to maintain the conservation of biodiversity. Promoting biodiversity is concerned with good agricultural activities, good urbanization, industrialization, safe water, control of invasive species, correct use of good water, quality air and maintenance of good ecosystem. Environmental governance must ensure adequate and effective enforcement of good biodiversity in each local environment.

iv) **Institutional Policies and Environmental Governance:** According to Eliot, a range of institutions contribute towards a practical environmental governance through the promulgation of good environmental laws, rules and guidelines, most, which are done through conventions, conferences, summits, and treaties. Environmental actors such as the states, non-states, NGOs and international organizations are expected to engage all the states, their cultural milieus, and practices at all levels to ensure good environmental governance.

3.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- From the research findings deduced from literature and case laws; it is true that the entire World of seven continents is reduced to a small village where economics, social and political antecedence of the developed world affect those of the developing world (globalization). It is also concluded that

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[25] Newell, P. 'Environmental Governance: In International Encyclopaedia of Public Policy' (vol. 4 Social, Environmental and Corporate Governance, 2010); IUCN 2007, 'Guidelines for Applying the Precautionary Principles to Biodiversity Conservation and Natural Resources Management' <cmsdata.iucn.org/downloads/250507-ppguidelines.pdf> accessed 25/5/2014.

[26]World Commission on Environment and Development – WCED, *Our Common Future* (Melbourne: Oxford University Press 1990) 85.

environmental governance is the legitimate rights of all sovereign nations; therefore it is mandatory that the less developed countries be given the free hand to formulate their environmental policies and laws for the management of the environment

- To this end, it is important that joint environmental governance be done to include the less developed countries who suffer from severe poverty, poor health, environmental pollutions and political imperialism as a result of the abundance of natural resources on their soil. Countries like Nigeria and other African countries suffer this environmental hazards and resultant short life span. The current "Ogoni-Clean-Up" exercise in Nigeria arose from a careless and negligent oil explorative activities of Shell Petroleum Company (Nigeria) Ltd. and the cold feet developed by the government of the Federal Republic of Nigeria before and during the Clean-Up exercise is a clear indication of lack of political will to address the environmental problems in Nigeria. Lack of regional collaborations among African countries and the recklessness in environmental issues have been shown for lack of cooperation on the use of the adjoining rivers, seas and land to preserve sea foods, wild lives etc.
- The import of this research is that all the countries of the world at all levels should be allowed the freedom of participating in environmental decision making (Pan Decision).
- This freedom is seen and should be globally recognized as one of the fundamental human rights which Article 2 of the 1981 African Charter on Human and People's Rights advocated.
- The evolution or origin of environmental governance is also treated with particular references to international and regional conventions. International conventions include the Stockholm Conference in 1972, the UNCED 1999, the Rio Declaration 1992, and the Kyoto Protocol in Japan 2006.
- At the regional level, the African Charter on Human and People's Rights in 1981. In Nigeria, the Federal Environmental

Protection Agency in 1988 and in 1992 and many other laws on environmental protection. However, the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (as amended) at section 20 (chapter II) provided for protection of the environment. This however, cannot be enforced by the provisions of s.6(6) of the CFRN 1999 (as amended).

- The study hereby recommends and emphasizes on the importance of collective decisions making for a better and goal oriented environment by enforcing all the enabling environmental laws holistically.
- All actors of the environment are enjoined without prejudice to be involved in the environmental governance.
- Since the world is a global village, it is understood that pollution of a local environment will affect the other distant localities through environmental dispersal agents, therefore, collaborative efforts is required as recommended.
- Effective environmental governance must take into consideration all the mining and explorative activities in the country by strictly ensuring that mining, leasing and explorations are done in line with the regulatory approved laws. Soil deterioration can be properly controlled by complying with the "Rio declaration Principles (UNCED) 1972.
- Environmental governance should also control "climate change" in line with the Kyoto Protocol (WCED) 1990; Biodiversity, Institutional Policies and Environmental pollutions.
- All the prohibitive environmental practices should be stopped by all users of the environment and there should be continental and regional (world) monitoring and enforcement bodies to identify non-compliance to the international conferences on environment, especially, the UNCED, UNFCCC, IUCN, RIO DECLARATION etc.
- All users of explorative ultra and mega waves should be mandatorily made to carry out environmental impact assessment (EIA) test before their explorations are carried out and each impacted areas from the activities of any environmental hazards, irrespective of the

provisions of s.6(6) of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as amended) should be properly compensated.

- For Nigeria, "section 20" of the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999 (as amended), that is, the right to protect one's environment should be enforced as a "Fundamental Human Rights" as it is enabled by the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights in 1981.
- The Federal Government of Nigeria, and indeed, the United Nations' Committee on Enforcement of environmental laws, treaties, protocols, conventions and

regulations should enforce the Kyoto Protocol 2006, where "gas flaring", amongst others have been prohibited.

- Our environment should be preserved for the oncoming generations by enforcing planting of trees, prevention of erosions and maintaining balanced eco-system between all the habitats (fuanae and florae).
- Local communities from where mineral and oil and gas are extracted should be involved in environmental governance through their various Community Development Committees (CDCs) and periodic environmental assessments should be encouraged.

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RE-HUMANIZING HUMANITY IN THE FACE OF INSURGENCY: HELON HABILA'S *THE CHIBOK GIRLS* IN FOCUS

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Abstract

Inhumanity experienced through the activities of Boko Haram insurgency in the North-Eastern part of Nigeria a matter of critical concern. Violent and inhuman activities of the Boko Haram insurgents are directed at vulnerable groups such as women, children, and the aged. Activities of these insurgents range from massacres, rapes, physical abuses, abductions, forced trafficking and forced marriages among other cruel acts. These activities have led to internal and external displacements of the people in North-Eastern Nigeria. This paper evaluates Helon Habila's The Chibok Girls, using the theory of realism as basis to establish the inhuman nature of insurgency in North-Eastern Nigeria and how these activities render the dignity of humanity worthless; how the violent and inhumane activities of Boko Haram insurgency dehumanises its victims psycho-socially and traumatically. The paper concludes that the activities of Boko Haram insurgency remain dehumanising in nature and must be tackled with instructive focus via relevant dynamics that can strengthen the re-humanisation and rehabilitation of the dehumanised victims. This analysis aims at proffering further submissions towards de-radicalising, rehabilitation, re-integration and further reconstruction of vulnerable victims into the functional whole of the society.

Keywords: De-radicalising, Insurgency, Realism, Rehabilitation, Re-humanising

Introduction

Nigeria recently has witnessed increasing terrorist activities by Boko Haram in absurd ways – involving women, young boys and girls and a molested percentage of aged men and women as victims of this terror group which has received great international condemnation. Boko Haram insurgents have continually abducted women and children, killing men and women, young and aged in North-Eastern Nigeria and its surroundings since 2009. The abduction of 276 teenage girls from Chibok in April, 2014 by the group resulted in the "Bring Back our Girls" campaign that arose as a voice not only to free the kidnapped girls but also a salient voice against the activities of the insurgents. Boko Haram insurgency has graduated from using young women, men, and children as carriers of arms and foodstuff to their deployment as suicide bombers. These actions do not only violate the personality of these young men and women alongside their children but also dehumanize their integrity and reduces their personality to mere tools for achieving crimes against humanity. In Nigeria, the dominant narrative of female and child involvement in terrorist violence is one

of coercion and oppression that degrades the identity and nature of the victims involved. The argument is supported by the high incidence of kidnapping of boys, girls and young women and men as well as the old, and subsequently rape and molestation, which in most cases result in their death.

More than 2000 women and children have been kidnapped since insurgency began in 2009, and the testimonies of some escapees have acknowledged that as victims, they experience enormous physical and psychological abuses at the hands of their Boko Haram captors. This further implies that their fundamental human rights are greatly violated and their individualities greatly dehumanized. Human right groups have reported that some young women, men and children appear to have been "brainwashed" into accepting insurgency as a way of life. This, in every sense is not far from outright dehumanization which reduces the dignity of these victims to mere objects for operations during insurgency. Incidence of violence and other human rights violations by Boko Haram forces also push young women, men, and children to support or join Boko Haram out of

fear. These dehumanizing circumstances have raised the complexity of gender violence and atrocities in insurgency prone arrears like the North-Eastern part of Nigeria and its environs. This has contributed to the growing insight into post-conflict policy formation and practice nationally and internationally which is aimed at de-radicalising, rehabilitation of these victims to make them psychologically acceptable and relevant to the society again.

Efforts in this regard have given rise to various literary creative writings which represents these occurrences vividly as insurgency continues to ravage, destabilise and dehumanize the Nigerian populace generally. In this paper, Helon Habila's *The Chibok Girls: The Boko Haram Kidnappings and Islamic Militancy in Nigeria,* a fictional text which depicts the violent and dehumanising activities of Boko Haram is evaluated to decipher Habila's depiction of the cruel treatment of young women, men and children leading to their dehumanization and psychologically disoriented conditions. The essence of this evaluation is to proffer suitable propositions which will go a long way to remedy the condition of these victims so as to initiate sustainable measures towards de-radicalising, rehabilitating and reconstruction of their social cognition for reintegration to the secular society.

Synopsis of Helon Habila's *The Chibok Girls*

The novel begins with a journalist's inquisitive trip to the Chibok town where on the night of April 14, 2014, 276 girls from the Chibok community in Northern Nigeria were kidnapped by Boko Haram, the deadly insurgency group. Fifty seven of the girls escaped few months after their kidnap. The novel tells the story of the dehumanizing conditions of the activities of the insurgency activities on not only the girls but also the entire north eastern Nigeria. Habila's *The Chibok Girls* provides a poignant portrait of everyday Nigerians whose lives have been traumatized and dehumanized by the insurgency resulting from religious conflicts that have ravaged the north eastern region of Nigeria recently.

Theoretical Framework

This paper adopts realism as its theoretical framework. This theory serves as an anchor to the evaluation of Helon Habila's *The Chibok Girls*. Realism in literature is an approach that attempts to describe life without idealization or romantic subjectivity. Although realism is not limited to any one century or group of writers, it is most often associated with the literary movement in 19th century France, specifically with the French novelists Gustave Flaubert and Honoré de *Balzac*. George Eliot introduced realism into England, and William Dean Howells introduced it into the United States. Realism has been chiefly concerned with the commonplaces of everyday life among the middle and lower classes where character is a product of social factors and environment is the integral element while representing life in literature. Realism became an important tradition in literature and especially in theatre in the late 19th and early 20th centuries in the works of Henrik Ibsen, Bernard Shaw and others.

In Ferdinand Iorbee Asoo's (2016) prescription to this concept, realism in literature is the theory or practice of fidelity to nature or to real life and to accurate representation without idealization of everyday life (p.14). The 18th-century works of Daniel Defoe, Henry Fielding, and Tobias Smollett are among the earliest examples of realism that Asoo cites to arrive at his definition. According to Rene Wellek (1982), the development of realism in the annals of creative literature in early eighteenth century Europe could be persuasively described as "writing committed to changing man's consciousness" (p.17). This implies that, as the work of criticism using realism continues, there is always the motive by the critic to reconstruct the society either consciously or unconsciously through the depictions of reality.

Thus, 'reconstruction' entails re-humanisation, especially in a violence stricken environment like the North-Eastern geographical part of Nigeria. This is the intent fostering the adoption of this perspective in the analysis of Habila's depictions of the hazardous impact of the Boko Haram insurgency in North-Eastern Nigeria. Yomi Olusegun-Joseph (2008) also posits that the application of realism as a

critical tool in literature, "through the nineteenth to the twenty first century, has helped to argue the fact that literature thrives in the reflection of very delicate human issues in any age, and is able to affect positive development in the resolution of telling human conflicts" (p. 3). Yomi's submission affirms the fact that a realistic evaluation of a literary work is not just a re-presentation of the work, but an effort towards proffering a proactive integrative model to intricate issues in the society including conflicts.

In realistic evaluations, the society should not be seen as a background against which personal relationships are studied, or individuals are merely illustrations of aspects of the way of life. This is because every aspect of personal life is radically affected by the quality of the general life and all humans attend with their whole senses to every aspect of the general life. Thus, if using realism as a literary critical tool entails revealing personal and general problems, which finally leads to the representation of the entire society or mankind as a whole, then, there is need to energise enthusiasm in the necessity of applying it as a critical framework for human uplift and development. Helon Habila's (2016) *The Chibok Girls* reflects and illuminates the crisis torn North-Eastern zone of Nigeria and how it has been ravaged with dehumanizing conditions by activities of Boko Haram insurgency. It is only through realism that a critic can understand the depth of this destruction and dehumanization caused by the violent activities of Boko Haram insurgents in order to ascertain further moves to arrive at relevant factors that can strengthen the re-humanisation and rehabilitation of the dehumanised victims of Boko Haram activities in North Eastern Nigeria.

Published in 2016, Habila's *The Chibok Girls* has received series of criticism since its release. For instance, Dave Eggers says that the text "…is a controlled, lucid and deeply felt account of Boko Haram's unconscionable kidnappings. This is essential to understanding the tragedy of the Chibok girls" (para. 3). From this perspective, Eggers identifies with the fact that the activities of these insurgents as represented in the text are realistically catastrophic and dehumanizing to the victims.

Zaynab Alkali (2017) reaffirms this when she posits that "the account of the author is made more real considering the fact that he was born in Gombe, halfway point between Chibok and Maiduguri, the two hottest melting pots of the Boko Haram activities" (Para 3). Similarly, Patrick Heardman says "Habila's account is a fascinating portrait of a community stricken by tragedy…" (para 3). Both Alkali and Heardman ascertain the reality of the dehumanizing activities of insurgents in the North Eastern part of Nigeria by establishing the reality and enormity of the activities of insurgents. Ann Hulbert also says that Habila's *The Chibok Girls* "evokes the traumatized aftermath [of the insurgency victims]… and sketches the history leading up to the horror: the violent rise of Islamist extremism in Nigeria" (p. 4). This means that the trauma faced by the victims devastates their personalities as humans. Eugene Yakubu (2017) says, Habila's style realistically creates "a solemn empathy and pity for the victims of this terror group" (p. 2).

According to Jenny Rogers (2017), "the narrative weaves and wanders its way to Chibok, both structurally and literally … [and reveals how] the terrorist devastation extends far beyond Chibok … through ghost towns, of burned schools, destroyed bridges and roofless houses" (p.7). This typifies the extent of degradation caused by the insurgents and their activities. This renders the status of the inhabitants of the Chibok community degraded as they become refugees in their own homes. In the same view, Gloria Mwaniga (2017) says that "in *The Chibok Girls*, Habila gives us a sneak peek into the society…. We witness insecure zones still susceptible to attacks. We see traumatised parents, some of whom have gone mad or despaired and died" (p. 10). This traumatic experiences show the extent of vitiation humans in the North Eastern region undergo in the hands of insurgents. From the vivid descriptions of these experiences by Habila, there is urgent need for the re-humanisation and rehabilitation of the victims of the activities of the insurgency group.

Dehumanizing Realities of Boko Haram Insurgency in Habila's *The Chibok Girls*
The consequences of the violent activities of Boko Haram insurgents on the atmosphere and living conditions render young women,

men and children - boys and girls into unfriendly, vulnerable, harmful and dehumanizing spheres. For the essences of survival, children and women become hawkers, beggars, at roadblocks and checkpoints. This dehumanizing situation enhances their delinquency status and exposes them to unfriendly gender issues like sexual harassment for the girls, since the roadblocks and checkpoints have "…become settlements for humming beggars, idlers, and boys and girls – out of school due to insurgency – selling water and food to travellers" (p. 16). The fact that schools and by extension formal education has closed up, the future of the children also remains vulnerable to social ills. They are visible in these surroundings as a vulnerable group to diverse otherworldly conditions that dehumanise their mental orientations.

Ordinarily, the dehumanizing effect of terror activities frightens children and women alike. The worst of it is represented in Habila's depiction of the reality that family heads become leaders and kingpin of Islamic militancy in Nigeria. The psycho-social effect of this reality has a dehumanising effect on especially the children and women. For instance, if "…Shekau … had married Yusuf's widow, and adopted his children … taking over Yusuf's household …" (p. 20), then, it is obvious that Yusuf's children and their mother will continue to experience traumatic and psychological disorders from the transition of terrorist parenting. The effect of having a parent as an insurgent no doubt has a negative lot to play on the psyche of the child; the consequences are also dehumanising and devaluing.

These insurgents act in dreadful ways that are capable of dehumanizing the psycho-social composition of victims, especially women and children. For instance, the abduction incidence that took place on the 25th of February 2014 as revealed by Habila has it that he insurgents

> came in pickup trucks at around 9:00 at night, and threw explosives into the boys' dorm rooms, then shot and stabbed the boys as they tried to escape. They rounded up the girls, lectured them on the "evils of Western education," ordered them to get married, burned down the school buildings, then left. They didn't touch

> the girls but fifty-nine boys were murdered in cold blood. (p. 22)

This action will presumably attack the mentality of teens that are in the secondary school level of education with a heavy wave of trauma. The traumatic experiences that accompany the brutality of the activities of the insurgents leave an indelible degrading memory of horror on the children as especially as they are teens. The girls are forced into accepting the option of early marriage against their will - an issue that continuously receives condemnation from contemporary agitations for women liberation. Although, "… they didn't touch the girls" physically, it is obvious that by "… order[ing] them to get married" (p. 22), it is more derogatory and dehumanizing than physical assault and battering. The girls are later forced to become early mothers through rape and sexual brutality without prior preparations. The innocence of their psyche is practically punctured by these horrendous activities, leaving them in traumatic, dehumanised conditions. Children, girls and women are the worst hit by these degrading activities. As insurgency activities increase around the North-East, gender violence also infiltrates the area thereby violating the rights of the women and children. Boko Haram insurgents kidnap them because the "fighters also need children and older women to cook and clean for them, and younger women became "wives" – sex slaves and mothers to the next generation of fighters" (p.23). Sex slavery becomes their path through life and leads them into unprepared motherhood and exposes their health to hazards dangerous to their age and stage. The unfortunate thing is that they are left in the struggle to regain their integrity. This signifies that the dilemma women and children experience amidst insurgency activities is quite derogatory and dehumanising to their integrity. The savagery and slavery nature of their roles in either the insurgency camps, the battle fields where they are mostly forced to carry bullet bags violates to a greater degree their fundamental human nature.

The responsibility of providing basic survival needs like water and preparing food for the family has hitherto been that of women. Since the emergence of insurgency, social amenities

like "electricity [had] been cut off by Boko Haram for years. There [is] no running water – all day men and women pushed carts with yellow jerry cans … carrying water from wells" (p. 24). This reality affirms the fact that gender accessibility to basic daily survival needs remains a regional challenge in the North-East as far as insurgency exists. This enables and encourages risk based opportunities to both women and children in this region causing their social psychology to become depleted and further dehumanised.

The women who become adopted wives for the Boko Haram men face a lot of other challenges that worsen their psycho-social turmoil. Their motherly responsibilities increase as children under their guardianship multiply. Motherless children follow any woman they see or think can become their mother since theirs is lost either to a nuclear blast, a violent raid, or a disease outbreak. These children "…did not belong to the women, they were orphans, abducted from their homes by Boko Haram or found wandering after the terrorists had killed their parents" (p. 65). The weight of this burden challenges the response ability of women in this regard given the social, economic and psychological conditions they face or have been facing. The increased burden and their inability to live up to it as a result of poverty usher them into a new wave of thought; that of a return to the insurgency mainstream. They intend to return to their Boko Haram husbands where perhaps they can find menial activities which will earn them scraps to feed on. The women also face discrimination and are socially stigmatized when they attempt to return to the society. They are perceived to have committed sacrileges by mingling with Boko Haram men who are not their husbands. In some cases, they are viewed as adulterous because they conceive and beget children outside their legitimate marital lives as a result of their sexual ordeals with these insurgents. Since its emergence in 2002, Boko Haram has paid particular attention to women in rhetorics and actions, partly because of the intense debate surrounding their role in society in the North-East. With patriarchy, poverty, corruption, early marriage and illiteracy thwarting their life chances, some women see an opportunity in Boko Haram to advance their freedom which

can eventually reduce their hardship. Unfortunately, they lose their humanity to the brutality they face in insurgency camps as a result of physical and psychological harassments.

One striking reality that has fuelled the development of insurgency is religious fanaticism. The *almajiris* are an integral component of Islamic region and continually create a veritable recruitment platform for insurgency groups. The *almajiris* consist of mostly young boys and occasionally girls who receive religious classes amidst brute and grow with these teachings. According to Habila, the *almajiris* are "…mostly kids about … ten or eleven years younger, sent by their parents to live with their teacher and learn the Koran by rote until they mastered it" (p. 44). This becomes a phenomenon when "unscrupulous teachers and politicians … turn these young boys into their private foot soldiers for their selfish ends. Many Boko Haram fighters [are] drawn from this pool" (p. 44).

The consequences of this in-depth, unrelenting method of brutal education become mentally and psychologically indelible thereby constituting terror instincts in the boys as they grow and develop. Killing and maiming becomes a routine as wasting human lives becomes pleasure. This is occasioned as a result of the fact that these children have lost their human nature and can act the terrible script outlined to them by their leaders and trainers. This has remained a worrisome phenomenon the future of these children remains social security.

The future of the children is obviously doomed. The possibility of their continuous quality education becomes a mirage. This means that there is no hope for the children to go on with educational activities because "half of the classrooms [have] been transformed into living quarters for the refugees, while the other half was still used for lessons" (p. 65). The synergy that will exist between IDPs camps and a proper school terrain can only be imagined because the tutelage that will affect the psyche of students and of pupils alike in the environment created by insurgency is capable of creating an off-putting which will affect both students and children in these camps. The imagination of this situation arises

from the comparison occasioned by the population of children coming from rural dwellings to infiltrate those in the urban schools in a close mixed inhabitation like IDPs camp. These are the consequences that children face or challenge children's continuous education amidst the effect of insurgency activities. For the children, if formal education is grounded by the burning down of school buildings and other parts of the school buildings are occupied by displaced people, it is obvious that the children's educational prospects "[holds] little promise, the boys would end up begging in the streets and the girls would most likely become prostitutes" (p. 65).

Poverty has also been identified as one index that has stimulated insurgency and militancy in Nigeria. The dubious will, actions and inactions of political elites in Nigeria have left the entire Nigerian citizenry in total and abject lack, poverty and confusion. The elites capitalize on this and have continued to loot the nation's treasury without reprimand. This situation has caused an increased level of instability because

> violence is a symptom of a dysfunctional system …. The poor don't believe they can get justice from the courts… violence, or the threat of it, helps to keep the populace in check, just as poverty does. Keep the people scared and hungry, encourage them to occasionally purge their anger on each other through religiously sanctioned violence and you can go on looting … without interference. (p. 39)

This implies that the agenda of political office holders and those at the helm of affairs remain that of personal greed against the basic needs of the people. The creation of an enabling atmosphere for corruption to pave way for the elites' personal greed leaves the populace in an entirety of destruction and confusion. Out of lack, young men, women and children are seen scavenging the streets for anything that could pass as food to keep soul and body alive. Although, "[n]ot all of them [are] refugees. Some were housewives impoverished by the war" (p. 66) but have to make extra effort to fend for the family. This extra effort includes sexual exploits, menial jobs, and anything dehumanising that can provide a source of little food to be alive. The

political class show total privation of commitment to the situation causing the people to take up self-defensive and protective tendencies that end up dehumanising their personalities. These people had

> "…lived in the cities, but they had run away to the villages – which were safer when Boko Haram was mainly an urban threat. They sold their houses cheaply to get away from the rising from insurgency. Now that Boko Haram had sacked and razed their houses in the villages, the camp was their only home" (p. 67).

If the IDPs camps are conducive, they can serve as an only option for shelter, and give the people consummation to harness peace and co-habit in harmony. To the contrary, the camps are traps for diseases and bombings by insurgents and women and children are the paramount victims. The psychosocial effect of insurgency on the people of North-Eastern Nigeria cannot be underestimated. This is because its dehumanizing nature remains derogatory and affects the social wellbeing of the victims as citizens. As the activities of these insurgents continue in the Northeast, people lose their social cognition and psychology and become dehumanized from the traumatic experiences caused by these horrendous activities. For instance,

> A depressed father … couldn't continue to live knowing his daughter was a Boko Haram prisoner in the forest, soon after that his heart gave out and he died. Another father had disappeared and couldn't be found for days. He was discovered wandering in the hills, shouting his daughter's name. He said he was sure she was out there and could hear him. He had lost his mind. (p. 74)

The threat and the experience of insurgency activities are distressful and traumatic. According to Vasilis Stavrou (1993) people who are exposed to war and political violence directly or indirectly suffer symptoms of post-traumatic stress (p. 2). This also indicates that mere living in a violent prone area where images of horrible violence and destruction are experienced can result in people experiencing symptoms of loss of memory which leads to

dehumanization and loss of integrity. These psychological effects are devastating and dehumanizing and must be timely and appropriately addressed.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Activities of insurgents remains a dehumanising experience and must be tackled with instructive focus on relevant factors that will strengthen the re-humanisation and rehabilitation of the dehumanised victims in order to ensure they are psychologically rehabilitated and reconstructed for further reintegration in the society. Insurgency portends great danger to the development of every nation. There is no nation that thrives under the heat of insurgency. The dehumanizing impact of insurgency on the people retards the development of any nation in which insurgency is rooted. Therefore, the onus is vested on relevant authorities to ensure immense aid for the fight against the war on insurgency in the North east of Nigeria. This can be achieved by standing against political wills that hinder the harmony and symmetry in the politics of Nigeria's polity to ensure that every individual is accorded equal recognition and level playing field in the socio-political and economic spheres of the nation. This will go a long way in the re-humanization process of not only the victims of insurgency in the North east but the insurgents to a great extent. The adherence of these norms in our polity will go a long way in reducing areas of discontent and help in building bridges across aggrieved parties involved in the insurgency war for peaceful co-existence and unity.

There is every need for the government to create accessible and sustainable social programmes towards the elimination of poverty but provide sustainable social security and empowerment to the youth. Victims of insurgency need to undergo tedious psycho-social, emotional, economic trainings to enhance their gradual but necessary re-humanisation and personality reconstruction. The existing frustration, misery, stress, economic imbalance and inequitable distribution of wealth which has given rise to unemployment in the country has remained an encouraging factor for intending insurgents. Jobless, poor Nigerian youth with less hope of gaining a job prefer to join insurgency as a means of survival. This ugly situation arises because only a handful of the people are rich while majority (including young Nigerians) languish in abject poverty. Thus, by reducing the poverty rate, authorities can succeed in curbing the rising profile and population of Boko Haram insurgents and general insecurity situation in the country to ensure that the citizenry - especially young men, women, and school children, are assured of their safety against dehumanizing circumstances occasioned by insurgency.

The fundamental human rights of every child, male or female, must be socially protected by all relevant agencies. The need to enhance collaboration with local and foreign partners, civil society organisations, faith based organisations and relevant stakeholders in the country to ensure that school boys and girls as well as women abducted by Boko Haram are rescued and psychologically rehabilitated. Schools, hospitals, skill acquisition centres are necessary to help these dehumanized victims regain their lost dignities. A synergy of duties from all security agencies in the country will ensure that intelligence is shared for prompt action in order to curb further planned terrorist attacks by insurgents against Nigeria and its people. Nigeria needs an integrative security approach (local and international) in handling issues of insurgency so that the dignity and integrity of its people including the victims of insurgency will be re-humanised. There is need to ensure that the political class acknowledges the need to engage meaningful development polities and policies to avoid issues of corruption, marginalization, poverty, unemployment, inequality at every level in the country. The focus should also be placed on the development of policies aimed towards re-constructing their mental skills for the possible reintegration into the society. These focal ideas, if heeded will go a long way rehumanise not just the victims of insurgency but the insurgents in particular.

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UNIVESAL BASIC EDUCATION COMMISSION ALLOCATIONS AND THE ATTAINMENT OF UNIVERSAL BASIC EDUCATION GOALS IN PUBLIC JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN RIVERS STATE

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Abstract

Educational empowerment in junior secondary schools is dependent on Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) budgetary allocations; hence the study examined the relationship between UBEC allocations and the attainment of Universal Basic Education (UBE) goals. The study was guided by three research questions and three corresponding hypotheses. Correlational design was adopted for the study. Population comprised 266 public junior secondary schools, from which a sample of 60 schools were selected using stratified random sampling technique. Data was collected using an 18 item questionnaire tagged "UBEC Allocations and Goal Attainment Questionnaire (UAGAQ)". The instrument was validated by experts in the Department of Educational Management, with reliability of 0.866 tested using Cronbach Alpha. Mean and standard deviation were used to answer the research questions while Pearson Moment Correlation coefficient was used to test hypotheses at 0.05 significance level. The result of data analysis revealed a low extent of UBEC budgetary allocation to junior secondary schools; and a high extent of influence between UBE goal attainment and UBEC budgetary allocation on school infrastructural procurement, instructional materials and staff development. Results on the test of hypotheses showed that there was a high positive significant relationship between UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure, instructional materials and staff development; and the attainment of UBE goals in the State. The study concluded that there was low UBEC budgetary allocation to the state and junior secondary schools. It was therefore recommended among other things that the UBEC budgetary allocation should be re-visited and allocations should be audited and effectively supervised for the attainment of UBE goals in the State.

Keywords: Universal Basic Education Commission, Universal Basic Education, Budgetary allocation.

Introduction

Education is conceived as a vital tool for self and the communal growth of any society. This view is also accepted in Nigeria, as the National Policy on Education by the Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN, 2014), views education as an instrument that is used in achieving human capital excellence for effective national development. Education is also a social institution that serves the needs of the society, an indispensable tool for the survival and progress of any society. This is supported by Ezeikiel-Hart and Adiele (2010) who defined education as a form of systematic training and instruction through which knowledge, development of abilities, character and mental power are developed to enable one to be useful to one and the community.

The Nigerian government understands the importance of education as a tool for national development and that is why the government has over the years introduced different educational programs of which the Universal Basic Education program is an example. These programs are aimed at bringing about educational reforms in the sector that are in

line with the national policy on education, hence the reason why several attempts of different educational programs have been made in the past. And then finally in 1999, the Nigeria government introduced the Universal Basic Education (UBE) program, with the aim of providing free, compulsory and basic education for primary (6 years) and junior secondary (3 years) education.

Agabi (2005) explains that the Universal Basic Education (UBE) program is an improvement of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) program of 1976 given that it has similar characteristics. In another view, Wali (2007) asserts that the establishment of the Universal Basic Education program by the federal government for the country is a means of solving the challenges of education in view of the fact that Nigeria is a signatory to the 1990 Jomitien declaration of Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's). For Owhondah (2018) the introduction of the Universal Basic Education program in Nigerian is for the development and expansion of the education sector towards sovereignty.

The Universal Basic Education program is a significant educational reform as it recognizes the apses of the past programs, hence the introduction of a program that stand as a life-long learning activity intended to impact reading, writing, and all necessary skills required for personal and societal development. The goals of the Universal Basic Education according to Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN, 2000) include;
1. The provision of a free, universal and compulsory basic education for children of school age in the country;
2. The development of the Nigerian citizenry by means of a strong consciousness for education and a strong commitment to its rigorous promotion;
3. To reduce drastically the challenge of students drop out from formal school system;
4. To cater for young persons whose education was interrupted and as such were not able to complete formal education.
5. To inculcate among its citizens, the acquisition of an appropriate level of literacy, numeracy, manipulative and life skills, ethical and moral.

As a way of ensuring the success of Universal Basic Education in the country, theFederal Government gets its funding from 2% of Nigeria's Consolidated Revenue Fund (CRF). The fund is dedicated at supporting the different states in the country with quality education for primary and junior secondary schools. Every State including the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) supports this fund withan equal amount as counterpart fund contribution in order to meet the matching grant. And for any state to qualify for the grant, that state must be able to contribute 50% of the total cost of the projects, which signifies the states commitment in the execution of the project(s).

Different studies have been done on Universal Basic Education program ranging from the journey from Universal Primary Education (UPE) to Universal Basic Education (UBE) (Nwagwu, 2002), UBE and the educational sector (Ibraham, 2014), to national development (Anaduaka & Okafor, 2013), issues on the contributory agreement (Onuoha, 2019) and its implementation (Ifedili & Alutu, 2011).

Onuoha (2019) explains that the Universal Basic Education by the federal government is a laudable educational intervention program that is geared towards building a fundamental foundation for Nigerian's educational system. The goals of the program spread across all spheres of under privileged citizens who want access to formal education or vocational skills. This study is therefore aimed at investigating the relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) budgetary allocations and the attainment of Universal Basic Education (UBE) goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Statement of the Problem
The funds to the education sector are grossly inadequate, and as such, this affects the amount of funds allotted to the State Universal Basic Education Commission to adequately accomplish the goals and objectives of the Universal Basic Education Program. It is in this vein that counterpart funds are solicited for so that with the combination of the 50/50% counterpart funding more funds will be

available to embark on program and projects for the program. As such the budget of the Commission has to be efficiently planned with the sole aim of achieving educational goals for primary and junior secondary schools as well as attaining the goals of basic education in the country. Where the budget does not cover some educational objectives such as the provision of capital infrastructure for learning activities to take place; instructional resources to enhance effective teaching and learning processes; and staff development to keep staff abreast with modern and up to date educational innovations then the budget may not have been planned to fulfill the Universal Basic Education goals.

This study is therefore hinged on identifying the extent of influence between Universal Basic Education Commission (UBEC) budgetary allocations and the attainment of Universal Basic Education (UBE) goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State in the areas of school infrastructural procurement and maintenance, instructional resources and staff development.

Objectives of the Study
The specific objective of the study was to examine the relationship between:
1. Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocations on the provision of school infrastructure and the attainment of UBE goals;
2. Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocations on the provision of instructional materials and the attainment of UBE goals;
3. Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocations on staff development and the attainment of UBE goals;

Research Questions
The study was guided by the following research questions:
1. To what extent does Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State?
2. To what extent does Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials influence the attainment of

Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State?
3. To what extent does Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State?

Hypotheses
The following null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

Ho_1: There is no significant relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructural and the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho_3: There is no significant relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials and the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho_4: There is no significant relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development and the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Methodology
The study adopted the Correlational research design since the researcher sought to ascertain the relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocations and the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals without manipulating the values. The population of the study comprised 266 Principals of the public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. The sample was derived using Yamane's (1969) statistical formula and the sum of one hundred and sixty (160) junior secondary school Principals were selected. The instrument for data collection was a self-structured questionnaire titled "UBEC Budgetary Allocation and Goal Attainment Questionnaire (UBAGAQ)". The responses to the items were assessed on a four point likert scale of Very high extent (VHE) = 4 points, High extent (HE) = 3 points, Low extent (LE) = 2 points and Very low

extent (VLE) = 1 point. The reliability of the instrument was statistically obtained through Cronbach Alpha using Statistical Package Social Sciences (SPSS), results obtained showed 0.866. Descriptive statistics was used to answer the research questions based on the Mean ratings of 3.50-4.00 = VHE, 2.50-3.49 = HL, 1.50-2.49 = LL and 1-1.49 = VLL; and a criterion mean of 2.50. Pearson Moment Correlation was used to test the hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance.

Results

Research question 1: To what extent does Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State?

Table 1: Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure and the attainment of UBE goals.

Items	N	Mean	SD	Remarks
There is UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure in Rivers State.	I60	2.47	.817	Low Extent
There is UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure in my school.	160	2.47	.752	Low Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of classrooms will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.03	.543	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of staff rooms will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.20	.591	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of laboratories will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	2.75	.591	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of libraries will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.23	.604	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of utilities will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.16	.678	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of furniture will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.19	.311	High Extent
Grand Mean	**160**	**2.94**	**.298**	High Extent

Table 1 shows the extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure and its influence on UBE goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. Results showed that there is Low Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure in Rivers State (2.47) and in public junior secondary schools (2.47); on the other hand, results showed that to a High Extent the

implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of classrooms (3.03), staffrooms (3.20), laboratories (2.75), libraries (3.23), utilities (3.16) and furniture (3.19) will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. The aggregate mean (2.94) further shows that UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure to a High Extent

influence the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Research question 2: To what extent does Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State?

Table 2: Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials and the attainment of UBE goals.

Items	N	Mean	SD	Remarks
There is UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials in Rivers State.	I60	2.43	.781	Low Extent
There is UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials in my school.	160	2.41	.948	Low Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on visual resources will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.18	.903	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on audio resources will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.10	.933	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on software resources will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.04	.961	High Extent
Grand Mean	**160**	**2.83**	**.736**	High Extent

Table 2 shows the extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials and its influence on UBE goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. Results showed that there is Low Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials in Rivers State (2.43) and in public junior secondary schools (2.41); on the other hand, results showed that to a High Extent the implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of visual resources (3.18), audio resources (3.10) and software resources (3.04) will enhance the attainment of UBE

goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. The aggregate mean (2.83) further shows that UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of infrastructural materials to a High Extent influence the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Research question 3: To what extent does Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State?

Table 3: Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials and the attainment of UBE goals.

Items	N	Mean	SD	Remarks
There is UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development in Rivers State.	I60	2.01	.805	Low Extent
There is UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development in my school.	160	2.45	.742	Low Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on E-training will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	2.58	.865	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation for on-the-job training will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	2.75	.625	High Extent
The implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on professional development will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in my school.	160	3.04	.751	High Extent
Grand Mean	**160**	**2.57**	**.533**	High Extent

Table 3 shows the extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development and its influence on UBE goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. Results showed that there is Low Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development in Rivers State (2.01) and in public junior secondary schools (2.45); on the other hand, results showed that to a High Extent the implementation of UBEC budgetary allocation on E-training (2.58), on-the-job training (2.75) and professional development (3.04) will enhance the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. The aggregate mean (2.57) further shows that UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development to a High Extent influence the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho$_1$: There is no significant relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructural and the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Table 4: Pearson Moment Correlation analysis on the provision of school infrastructure

	Mean	SD	N
The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	3.14	.346	160
Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on school infrastructural procurement	2.94	.298	160

Correlations

		The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on school infrastructural procurement
The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	Pearson Correlation	1	.161[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.041
	N	160	160
Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on school infrastructural procurement	Pearson Correlation	.161[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	
	N	160	160

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

The result on table 4 shows Pearson correlation value 0.161 indicating a positive influence and significant value of 0.041 which is below the significant level of 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure significantly influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho₂: There is no significant relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation and the provision of instructional materials in the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Table 5: Pearson Moment Correlation analysis on the provision of instructional materials

	Mean	SD	N
The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	3.14	.346	160
Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on instructional materials	2.83	.736	160

Correlations

		Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on instructional materials
The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	Pearson Correlation	1	.067
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	160	160
Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on instructional materials	Pearson Correlation	.067	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	160	160

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

The result on table 5 shows Pearson correlation value 0.067 indicating a positive influence and significant value of 0.000 which is below the significant level of 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on school instructional materials significantly influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Ho₃: There is no significant relationship between Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development and the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Table 6: Pearson Moment Correlation analysis on staff development

	Mean	SD	N
The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	3.14	.346	160
Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development	2.57	.533	160

Correlations			
		Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development
The Universal Basic Education goal attainment in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State	Pearson Correlation	1	.206[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.009
	N	160	160
Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development	Pearson Correlation	.206[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	
	N	160	160

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

The result on table 6 shows Pearson correlation value 0.206 indicating a positive influence and significant value of 0.009 which is below the significant level of 0.05. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that Universal Basic Education Commission budgetary allocation on staff development significantly influence the attainment of Universal Basic Education goals in junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Discussion

Analysis on the extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure showed that there is Low Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructures. Results further show that in spite of the low extent of allocations on the provision of school infrastructures, if they are properly implemented in the provision of classrooms, staff rooms, laboratories, utilities and libraries, it will enhance the attainment of UBE goals. On the test of hypothesis, results showed that UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure has a positive significant influence in the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. These results are in agreement with Odey (2018) and Afolaya (2010) who

concluded from their various studies that the provision of school infrastructure is a fundamental aspect of the attainment of the Universal Basic Education programme in the country.

Analysis on the extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional material showed that there is Low Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials. Results further show that in spite of the low extent of allocations on the provision of instructional, if they are properly implemented in the provision of visual resources, audio resources and software resources, it will enhance the attainment of UBE goals. On the test of hypothesis, results showed that UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of instructional materials has a positive significant influence in the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. Bassey and Amie-Ogan (2019) and Ambe (2018) are in agreement with the results that instructional materials influence students' academic performance in schools thereby influencing the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State.

Analysis on the extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development showed that there is Low Extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development. Results further show that in spite of the low extent of allocations on staff development, if they are properly implemented in the provision of on-the-job training, E-training and professional development, it will enhance the attainment of UBE goals. On the test of hypothesis, results showed that UBEC budgetary allocation on staff development has a positive significant

influence in the attainment of UBE in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. These results are in line with Chiemeka-Unogu (2018) and Akpan and Ita (2015) who from their various studies attested that teachers' education influences students' academic achievement which enhances the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools.

Conclusion

In conclusion, there was low extent of UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure, instructional materials and staff development. It also revealed that UBEC budgetary allocation on school infrastructural procurement, instructional materials and staff development to a high extent influence the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers State. UBEC budgetary allocation on the provision of school infrastructure, instructional materials and staff development has a positive significant influence on the attainment of UBE goals in public junior secondary schools in Rivers state.

Recommendations

Based on the results the following recommendations are made;

i. Government should re-visit the budgetary allocation to Universal Basic Education Commission.

ii. Educational policy makers should ensure the full implementation of UBEC allocations to schools.

iii. There should be effective auditing of UBEC allocations to states and schools.

iv. There should be regular supervision of junior secondary schools to ensure that UBE goals are attained.

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FACIAL AND FINGERPRINT AUTHENTICATION SYSTEM USING PARTICLE SWARM OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHM

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Abstract

Facial and fingerprint authentication system helps human to communicate with computer systems and also protect confidential information and activities. The efficiency of the Particle Swarm Optimization algorithm can be influenced by variables such as the biometric identifiers, the extracted feature. The work presents an authentication system with the use of a facial extracted feature and a fingerprint extracted feature with a particle swarm optimization algorithm, the extracted identifiers features will fuse together to a 50% before authentication can take place, the identifiers has to report their best position and the best global position before authentication. The datasets were collected manually with the use of a camera for capturing the face and a fingerprint scanner for the finger, and the features were extracted with Neurotechnology biometric algorithm, after the PSO algorithm where the identifiers would with the score fusion before authentication could take place.

Keywords: Particle swarm optimization, fingerprint recognition, facial recognition, algorithm

INTRODUCTION

Biometrics system refers to the term that encompasses the application of modern statistical methods to the measurements of biological objects. As a check of the dangers posed by fraudulent use of identity documents, a lot of biometrics technologies are emerging. Among these are: Voice recognition, Fingerprint recognition, Iris recognition, Face recognition and Gait recognition. These are referred to as biometric identifiers which can be used for distinctive physiological and behavioral characterization of persons.

However, these characteristics should satisfy the following properties: Robustness: This means that the biometric should sufficiently invariant (Permanence) over a period of time and thus maintain a low intra-class variability. Distinctiveness: This indicates that biometric identifiers should differentiate (Uniqueness) any two persons and thus have large inter-class variability. Availability: Ideally, a biometric identifier should be possessed by every person (Universality). Accessibility: The

characteristics should be easy to acquire (Collectability). Since biometric system is essentially a pattern-recognition system, the need for data acquisition, pre-processing, data representation and decision making is required. This encompasses the extraction of physiological or behavioral from one person beforehand and using it as a sample database to be used later for recognition. Biometric identifiers which are conceptually unique attributes are today portrayed as the panacea to verify a person's identity.

Biometric system represents the way for having an accurate and confident automatic personal recognition based on biological traits from fingerprint, iris pattern, face layout, palm print, hand geometry, vascular pattern and voice recognition or behavioral characteristics as gait, signature, and typing pattern.

The behavioral characteristics may be exposed to be changed over time, while physiological characteristics may never change. Fingerprinting is the most common and oldest

biological trait that has been utilized for the last two centuries by law enforcement officials to keep track of criminals. Biometric systems operate in two modes verification and identification.

During verification mode, the system works on validating an individual's identity by comparing the occupied biometric data with that individual's biometric template gathered by the system's database which is enrolled on the system. While in the identification mode, a person is recognized by the system through searching in stored templates of all users in the database for a match. Thus, the system performs a one-to-many comparison in order to establish a person's identity.

Biometric systems could be simply implemented using only one biometric trait as the finger print, face or iris, and hence, it is known as the unimodalbiometric, but it unfortunately cannot afford an accurate and secured identification it is easier to falsify a single biometric characteristic, which gives lower protection to bluffing.

Otherwise, it could be implemented with more than one biometric; hence, it is known as the multimodal biometric.

Multimodal is more critical to counterfeit, as it cannot be easily falsified because of its multiple biometric characteristics, but it is easier to falsify a single biometric characteristic, which gives a higher protection from bluffing. The biometric system covers a wide range of applications that can be used to verify person identity by measuring human physiological or behavioral characteristics.

In computational science, particle swarm optimization (PSO) is a computational method that optimizes a problem by iteratively trying to improve a candidate solution with regard to a given measure of quality. It solves a problem by having a population of candidate solutions, here dubbed particles, and moving these particles around in the search-space according to simple mathematical formulae over the particle's position and velocity.

Each particle's movement is influenced by its local best known position, but is also guided toward the best known positions in the search-space, which are updated as better positions are found by other particles. This is expected to move the swarm toward the best solutions.

Ezhilarasanet al., (2010) defines fingerprint recognition be to the automated method of verifying a match between two human fingerprints. Fingerprints are one of many forms of biometrics used to identify an individual and verify their identities.

Fingerprint identification is perhaps, the oldest of the biometric sciences. Fingerprints were used in China as a means of positively identifying one person as the author of a document. During the British occupation of India in the 1800's, a British policeman called Henry established the first systematic classifications of fingerprints. The then fingers classification scheme allowed fingerprint image records to be divided into relatively small groups. The fingerprint set of a person who was arrested and classified according to the Henry system could be compared to small group of similar records which narrows the search processes and led to better identification rates.

Problem Statement

Biometrics system is the application of modern statistical method to the measurements of biological objects. Biometric is the field of study which aims at identifying and recognizing people based on the traits they exhibit. There are two types of biometric system, which is unimodal and multi modal. Unimodalbiometric systems perform person recognition based on a single source of biometric information. Such systems are often affected by problems such as noisy sensor data and non-universality, inter-class similarities, and spoof attacks (Aranuwa, 2017). However, due to the problems faced, the error rates associated with unimodalbiometric systems are quite high and consequently it becomes unacceptable for deployment in security critical applications. Hence, this work aims at developing an adaptive biometric multimodal system using PSO algorithm, which will be characterized by minutiae and texture using fingerprint and for face the detection of boundaries and contours of the image. This study develops a fingerprint and face authentication system using PSO (Particle Swarm Optimization) the level in which development are done are:

i. To collect finger and facial data
ii. To develop an authentication module using PSO
iii. To evaluate performance of the developed system

LITERATURE REVIEW

Face recognition has been a very interesting issue for both neuroscientist and computer engineers who are interested in artificial intelligence (A.I). A healthy human detects a face and recognizes that face, whereas for a computer to recognize faces, the face area should be detected and recognition comes next. Hence, for a computer to recognize faces the photographs should be taken in a controlled environment; a uniform background and identical poses makes the problem easy to solve.

Face recognition methods can be classified into three categories, which are early geometrical feature-based methods and pattern matching methods, neural network methods and statistical methods. The earliest face recognition was based on geometrical features of a face. Simply, the basic idea of this kind of method is to capture the relative position and the relative size of representative facial components, such as eyebrows, eyes, nose and mouth. Then the face contour information is included to classify and recognize the faces. Pattern matching methods are the simplest classification methods in the field of pattern recognition. In face recognition, face images in a dataset are treated as the pattern so once a new image is available; a correlation score between the pattern and the new image can be calculated to generate the final result.

Artificial neural network dates to the 1940's when Warren McCulloch and Walter Pitts first computed the concept to mathematics and algorithms. The idea of artificial neural networks is established by biological neural networks, which consist of a large number of neurons. The neurons in artificial neural networks are actually a group of individual functions, each of which is responsible for a certain task.

The neurons are connected with weighed lines which pre-process the input generated from the previous neuron. The advantage of applying neural network to face recognition is its ability to store distributed data that can be processed in parallel. The structure of a single neuron is simple with limited functionality; however, an entire neural network consisting of a number of neuron is able to achieve various complicated goals. Furthermore, the most significant feature that neural network possesses is self-adaptability, which means it is able to enhance itself through iteration. The most representative neural network methods in face recognition are multi-level Back Propagation networks (BP) and Radical Basis Function networks (RBF).

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The fingerprint set of a person who was arrested and classified according to the Henry system could be compared to small group of similar records which narrows the search processes and led to better identification rates.

In recent years, fingerprints comparisons have been on "minutiae" that is individual unique characteristics within the fingerprints pattern. There is an average of 30-40 minutiae in every fingerprint image obtained by a live scanner. The Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) has shown that no two individuals can have more than 8 common minutiae.

Fingerprint identification technology has undergone an extensive research and development effort over the past couple of years. The initial reason for the effort was in response to the FBI requirement for an Automated Fingerprint Identification System (AFIS). The AFIS application, the fingerprint identification process has a 98% identification

rate and the false positive identification is less than 1%.

According to Jain *et al(2011),* fingerprint recognition or fingerprint authentication refers to the automated technique of verifying a match between two individual fingerprints. Comparison of several features of the print pattern is generally required for the analysis of fingerprints matching.

Three basic patterns of fingerprint ridges are the arch, loop, and whirl.

i. Arch: The ridges enter from a side of the finger, move towards the center making an arc, and then exit the other part of the finger.
ii. Loop: The ridges come from one side of a finger, create a curve, and then exit on that same side.
iii. Whirl: Ridges create circularly around a central point on the finger.

Fingerprint is an impression that is formed through deposit of minute ridges and valleys when a finger touches a surface. Facts exist that the ridges and valleys do not change for lifetime no matter what happens and in a case of injury or mutilation, they reappear within a short period. The five commonly found fingerprint ridge patterns are arch, tented arch, left loop, right loop and whorl. The uniqueness of friction ridges implies that no two fingers or palm prints are exactly alike. Fingerprint identification involves making a comparison between two or more fingerprints to determine if they originated from the same finger under some threshold scoring rules.

Human Face recognition and Fingerprint Recognition

When building artificial face recognition systems, scientists try to understand the architecture of human face recognition system. Focusing on the methodology of human face recognition system may be useful to understand the basic system. However, the human face recognition system utilizes more than that of the machine recognition system which is just 2-D data. The human recognition system uses some data obtained from some or all of the senses; visual, auditory, tactile. All these data are used either individually or collectively for storage and remembering faces. In many cases, the surrounding also plays an important role in human face recognition system. It is hard for a machine recognition system to handle so much data and their combinations. However, it is also hard for a human to remember many faces due to storage limitations. For a human face recognition system, the important feature is it's parallel processing capacity. The issue "which features human use for face recognition" has been studied and it has been argued that both global and local features are used for face recognition. It is harder for humans to recognize faces which they consider as neither "attractive" nor "unattractive".

Holistic and feature information are important for the human face recognition system. Studies suggest the possibility of global description serving as a front end for better feature based perception. If there are dominant features present such as a wide nose, big ears, holistic descriptions may not be used. Also, recent studies show that an inverted face (i.e. all the intensity values are subtracted from 255 to obtain the inverse image in the grey scale) is much harder to recognize than a normal face. Hair, eyes, ear, mouth, face out line have been determined to be more important than nose for perceiving and remembering faces. It has also been found that the upper part of the face is more useful than the lower part of the face for recognition. Also, aesthetic attributes (e.g. attractiveness, beauty, pleasantness) play an important role in face recognition; the more attractive the faces are easily remembered. For humans, photographic negatives of faces are difficult to recognize. But, there is not much study on why it is difficult to recognize negative images of human.

Bruce *et al.,* (1999) based on his study on the direction of illumination and showed the importance of top lighting. He demonstrated that it is easier for humans to recognize faces illuminated from top to bottom than the faces illuminated from bottom to top.

Human verification based on fingerprint was then carried out electronically by extracting the fingerprint patterns after scanning the inked image with high-resolution page scanners. In recent years, the need for fast and reliable fingerprint verification systems has necessitated the shift from the ink card method to live scan devices, which are

categorized into optical sensors, electrical sensors and ultrasonic sensors.

Fingerprint image enhancement is performed to remove the enrolment attracted noise and it requires a number of processes including normalization, segmentation, ridge orientation and frequency estimation, filtering, binary and thinning. Several algorithms were proposed for these processes. Existing fingerprint feature extraction algorithms include Crossing Number, Adaptive Flow Orientation, Orientation Maps, Gabor Filter, Mathematical Morphology and Minutiae Maps and Orientation Collinearity. Others are Poincare Index, Curvature and Multi-Resolution. Several studies on fingerprint matching have produced several algorithms that are correlation, minutiae and ridge feature-based. The matching of two minutiae sets based on these algorithms is usually posed as a point pattern matching problem and the similarity between them is proportional to the number of matching minutiae pairs. Although the minutiae pattern of each finger is quite unique, contaminants and distortion during the acquisition and errors in the minutia extraction process result in a number of missing and spurious minutiae. Due to difficulty in obtaining minutiae points from poor quality fingerprint images, other ridge features like the orientation and the frequency of ridges, ridge shape and texture information have formed the bedrock for several fingerprint matching algorithms. However, several of these methods suffer from low identification capability. In correlation-based fingerprint matching, the template and query fingerprint images are spatially correlated to estimate the degree of similarity between them. If the rotation and displacement of the query with respect to the template are not known, then the correlation must be computed over all possible rotations and displacements, which is computationally very expensive. Furthermore, the presence of non-linear distortion and noise significantly reduce the global correlation value between two impressions of the same finger. To overcome these problems, correlation is locally done around the high curvature, minutia information and other interesting regions of the fingerprint image.

One main shortcoming for fingerprint identification systems is that the presence of small injuries and burns may cause disproportionate results due to presence of false minutiae points.

Statistical Approaches

Statistical methods include template matching based system where the training and test images are matched by measuring the correlation between them. Moreover, statistical methods include the projection based methods such as Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Linear Discriminant Analysis (LDA), etc. In fact, projection based systems came out due to the shortcomings of the straightforward template matching based approaches; that is, trying to carry out the required classification task in a space of extremely high dimensionality

Template Matching

Hong (1998) explained that template matching is conceptually related to holistic approach which attempts to identify faces and fingers using global representation. These types of methods approach the face and finger image as a whole and try to extract features from the whole region and the classify the images by applying a pattern classifier. One of the methods used to extract features in holistic system, is based on statistical approaches which are discussed in the following sections A simple version of template matching is that a test image represented as a two dimensional array of intensity values is compared using a suitable metric, with a single template representing the whole images. There are several other sophisticated versions of template matching on face and finger recognition. More than one face or fingerprint template from different viewpoints to represents an individual's identification.

Particle Swarm Optimization

Particle swarm optimization proposed by Dr. Eberhart and Dr. Kennedy in 1995 is a computational paradigm based on the idea of collaborative behavior and swarming in biological populations inspired by the social behavior of bird flocking or fish schooling. Particle Swarm Optimization is an evolutionary algorithm that has been applied to many different engineering and technological problems with considerable success.

Since its first publication in 1995, it has been continually modified trying to improve its convergence properties. Thus, many variants have been proposed, some of these variants were related to a particular problem and had little application outside the field where they have been proposed. Others have been used for solving different kind of problems and have enjoyed a longer life. These PSO variants have been used to solve a wide range of optimization and inverse problems: continuous, discrete, dynamical, multioptima, combinatorial, with and without additional constraints.

Neural Network Based Approaches
A neural network is a simplified model of the way the human brain processes information. It works by stimulating a large number of interconnected units that resembles abstract version of neurons.

The processing units are arranged in layers. There are typically three parts in a neural network: an input layer, with units representing the input fields; one or more hidden layers; and an output layer, with units representing the target field(s). The units are connected with varying connection strengths or weights. Input data are presented to the first layer and values are propagated from each neuron to every neuron in the next layer. Eventually, a result is delivered from the output layer.

The network learns by examining individual records, gathering a prediction for each record, making adjustments to the weights whenever it makes an incorrect prediction. This process is repeated many times, and the network continues to improve its prediction until one or more of the stopping criteria have been met. Initially, all weights are random, and the answers that come out from the net are probably nonsensical. The network learns through training. Examples for which the output is known are repeatedly presented to the network and the answers it gives are compared to the known outcomes. Information from this comparison is passed back through the network, gradually changing the weights. As training progresses, the network becomes increasingly accurate in replicating the known outcomes. Once trained, the network can be applied to future cases where the outcome is unknown. Mammone (1993) explained Neural Network as a powerful tool for pattern recognition problems. The use of neural network (NN) in faces has addressed several problems: gender classifications, face recognition and facial expression classification.

Machine Learning Approach
Machine learning aims at simulating human activities using computer, so it is able to recognize known knowledge with which to improve its performance and optimize it. Machine learning is applied to various fields such as biology, chemistry, economics, and computer science. In 1999, an applied machine learning approaches to prediction of signal peptides and other portion sorting signals. In 2005, CO AIM *et al.,* proposed a method for predicting emotion based on text using machine learning. Generally, machine learning targets our categories of problems, which are regression, classification, clustering and modelling uncertainty known as inference.

i. Classification: In classification, input data is divided into different categories. Normally, a classification task belongs to supervised learning, as the categories are labelled.

ii. The learning system gains knowledge, with which to assign new input data to one or more of these categories.

iii. Regression: to some extent, a regression problem is similar to classification, as it is also processed in a supervised way. The most significant difference is the output generated from regression problem is continuous, instead of discrete, like classification.

iv. Clustering: Clustering can be regarded as unsupervised version of classification. The basic functionality is also to classify a set of input into different classes; however, in clustering, the categories are not labelled anymore, which means the categories are generated as the system runs.

v. Modeling uncertainty: Modeling uncertainty is not just to protect the frequency of random events. It integrates various factors that affects the occurrence of the event and analyzes the event using mathematical approaches, like Bayesian representation.

The process of establishing a multimodal biometric system is to teach computers to recognize human behavior, that is, it is a learning procedure. Therefore, machine learning becomes a perfect solution to this problem.

RESEARCH METHOD

This research presents face and fingerprint authentication system using particle swarm optimization. This system composed of three phases which are enrolment, identification and verification global best and position best of particle swarm optimization. These phases consist of pre-processing procedure for face and fingerprint images, extracting the feature vectors, fusing at feature level, and classifying

with Radical Basis Functions. The essence of this research work is to clearly determine the impact of the particle swarm optimization on two (2) biometric identifiers as parameter to authentication. In other words, the experiment carried out is a way of showcasing how the biometric identifiers can fuse together to get an authentication by determining their best positions and their global best positions via PSO.

The extracted features of the identifiers were depicted in the images used by the authentication model of the developed system that consider the procedure of enrolment, identification and verification before authentication in PSO algorithms.

```
┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────┐
│     Face     │              │  Fingerprint │
└──────┬───────┘              └──────┬───────┘
       │                             │
       ▼                             ▼
┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────┐
│ Preprocessing│              │ Preprocessing│
└──────┬───────┘              └──────┬───────┘
       │                             │
       ▼                             ▼
┌──────────────┐              ┌──────────────┐
│   Feature    │              │   Feature    │
│  Extraction  │              │  Extraction  │
└──────┬───────┘              └──────┬───────┘
       │                             │
       └──────────┬──────────────────┘
                  ▼
     ┌────────────────────────────────┐
     │  Particle Swarm Optimization   │
     └────────────────┬───────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
           ┌──────────────────┐
           │  Authentication  │
           └──────────────────┘
```
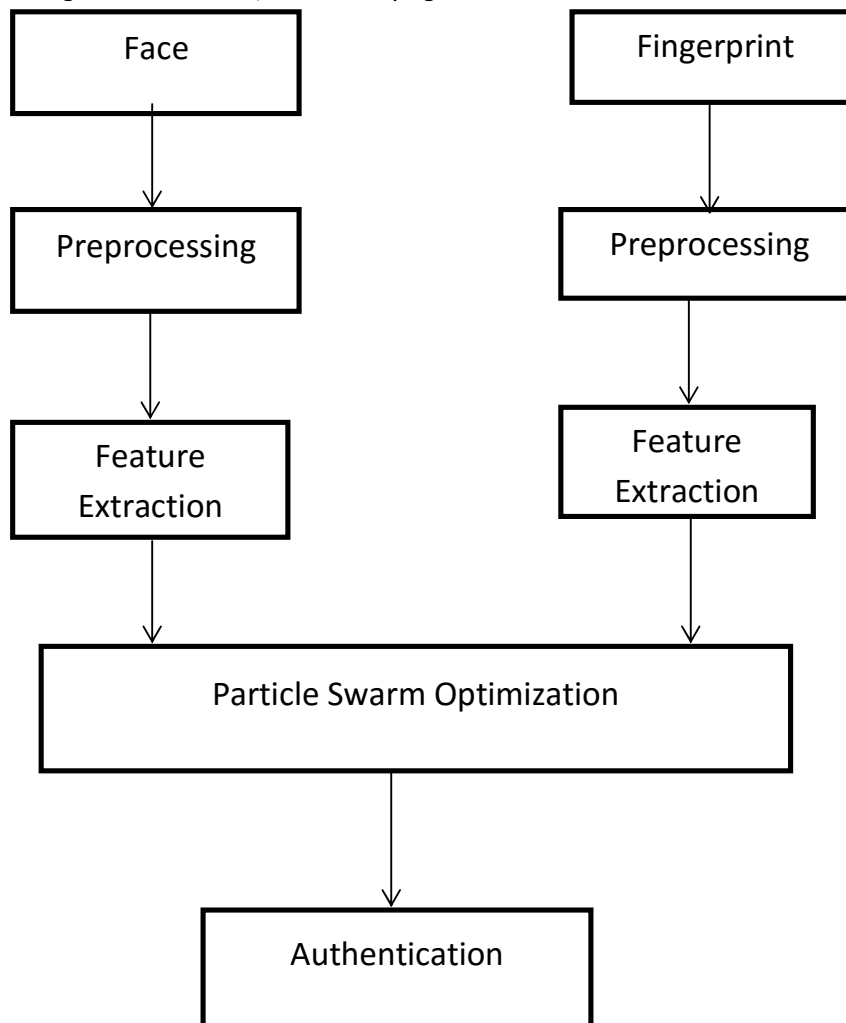
Model Overview

Particle Swarm Optimization Algorithm

The particle swarm optimization algorithm always begins with the initialization operation followed by the swarming of test images. The initialization procedure (Face and fingerprint) is as follows; Acquire an initial set of face and fingerprint images (to form a training set).

Having initialized the system, the following steps are used to identify the positions of the particles and evaluate the facial and fingerprint images randomly for fitness, then the best position for the fitness is initialized and it repeats until a certain percentage of accuracy is attained.

Determine the best position and the current position of the particles, in this process, the as the particle swarms from its current position (pbest, X_{ij}^{t}), the differences from its current position increases attracting it to its best position (pbest$_{ij}$– X_{ij}^{t}).There is a parameter $c_1$which exist as a positive constant which is an individual cognitive parameter weighs the importance of the particle's own previous experiences. There is also a parameter, this is the random parameter r_1, the random value parameter with range [0,1]. This random parameter avoids premature convergence and increasing the most likely global optima.

The final step is the social learning stage, this stage all the particles in the swarm are able to share the information on the best point achieved regardless of the particle who has found it (gbest). This acts as an attraction for the particles to the best point until it finds an iteration t, (gbest$_i$ - X_{ij}^{t}).There is alsoC_2which is also a social learning parameters, it weighs the importance of the global learning of the swarm. And $r_2$plays the role ofr_1.

$$V_{ij}^{t+1} = wV_{ij}^{t+1} + c_1r_1^{t} (pbest_{ij}– X_{ij}^{t})+ C_2r_2^{t}(gbest_i - X_{ij}^{t}) + C_2r_2^{t}.......................................Equation 1$$
$$X_{ij}^{t+1} = X_{ij}^{t}+ V_{ij}^{t+1} ....Equation 2$$

Where:

pbest is the best position of the particle.

Gbest is the attraction of the particle's best position.

F(x) is the fitness function.

- *Initialization*
- *For each particle "i" in a swarm population size P:*
- *Initialize X_i randomly*
- *Initialize V_i randomly*
- *Evaluate the fitness f(X_i)*
- *Initialize pbest with a copy of X_i with the best fitness*
- *Repeat until a stopping criterion is satisfied*
- *For each particle "i"*
- *Update V_i^{t}andX_i^{t} according to Equ 1 and Equ 2*
- *Evaluate the fitness f(X_i^{t})*
- *pbest$_i$ ⟵ X_i^{t}if f(pbest$_i$)<f(X_i^{t})*
- *abest$_i$ ⟵ V_i^{t}if f(abest$_i$)<f(V_i^{t})*

Particle Swarm Optimization Algorithm

```
                          ┌─────────────┐
                          │    START    │
                          └──────┬──────┘
              ┌──────────────────┴──────────────────┐
              ▼                                      ▼
      ┌───────────────┐                      ┌───────────────┐
      │  Scan Facial  │                      │Scan Fingerprint│
      │    Images     │                      │    Images     │
      └───────┬───────┘                      └───────┬───────┘
              ▼                                      ▼
      ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │      INITIALIZE POSITION AND VELOCITY             │
      └───────────────────────┬──────────────────────────┘
                              ▼
      ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │                 SCORE FUSION                      │
      └──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘

      ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
      │            EVALUATE FITNESS FUNCTION              │
      └───────────────────────┬──────────────────────────┘
                              ▼
                        ◇ Pbest/Gbest ◇ ───────────►  ┌──────┐
                              │                        │  NO  │
                              ▼                        └──┬───┘
                   ┌──────────────────┐                  │
                   │   AUTHENTICATE   │          ┌────────────────┐
                   └────────┬─────────┘          │  STOP/ REPORT  │
                            ▼                     └───────┬────────┘
                       ╭─────────╮                        │
                       │  STOP   │◄───────────────────────┘
                       ╰─────────╯
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System Implementation
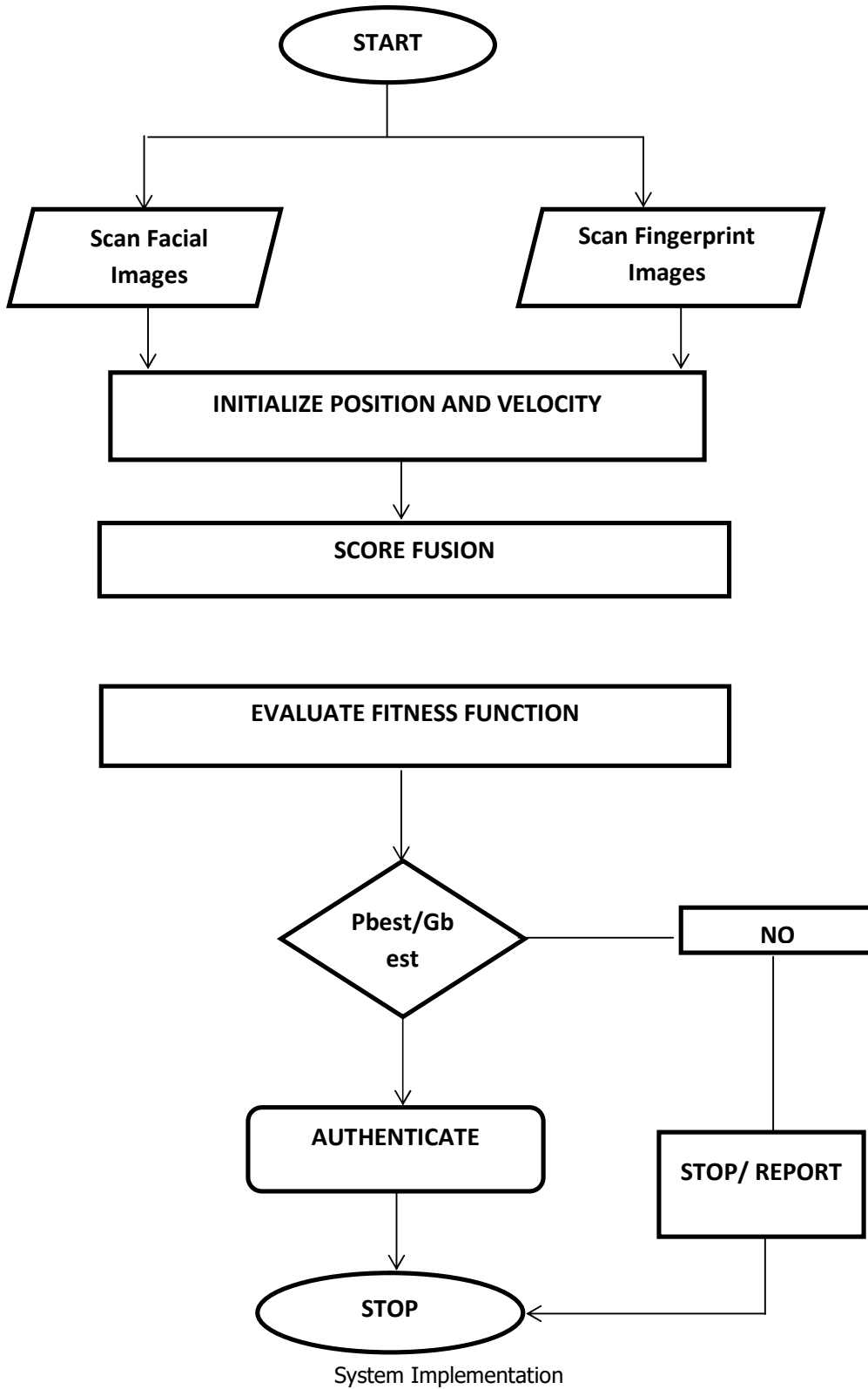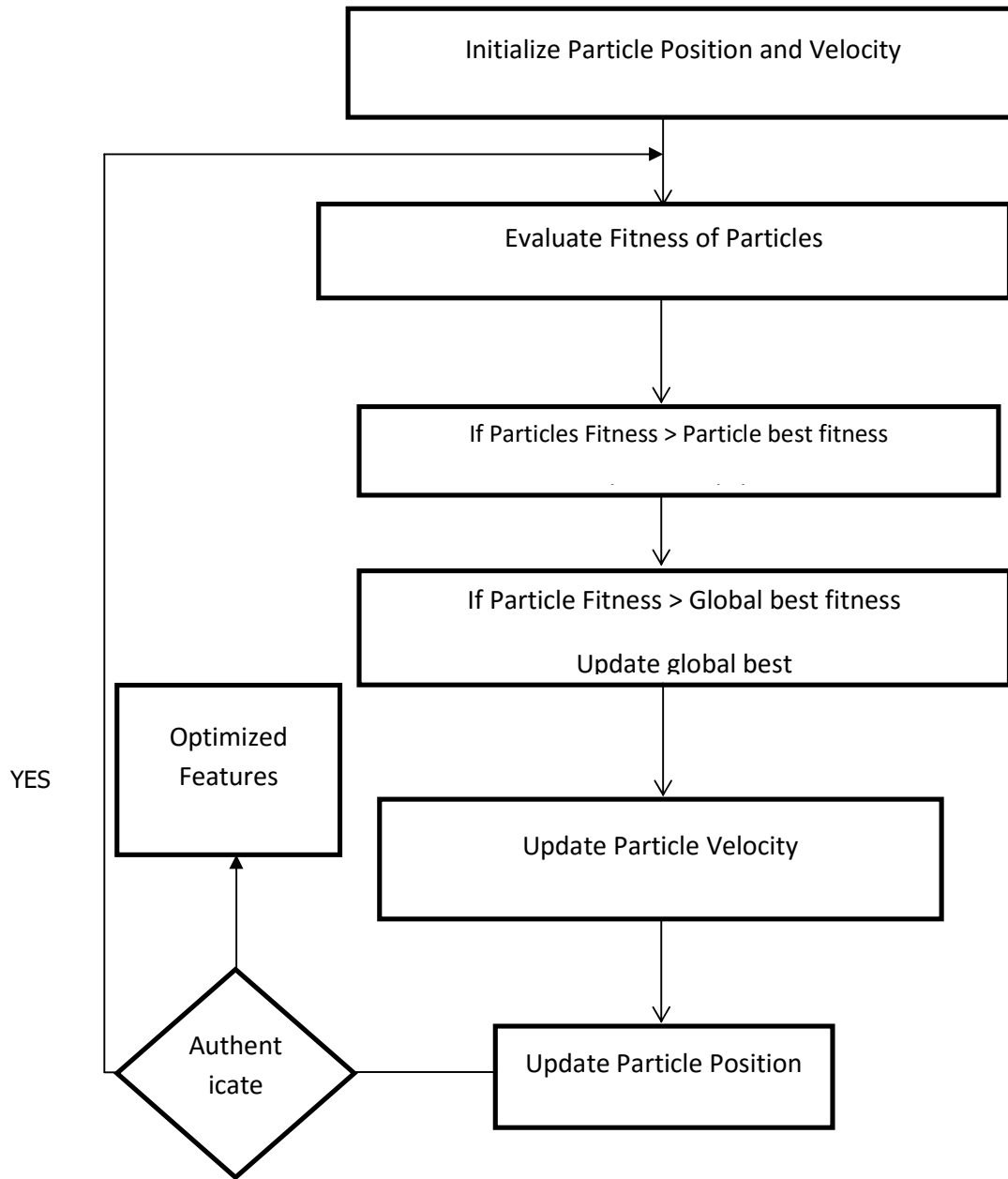
PSO Authentication flowchart
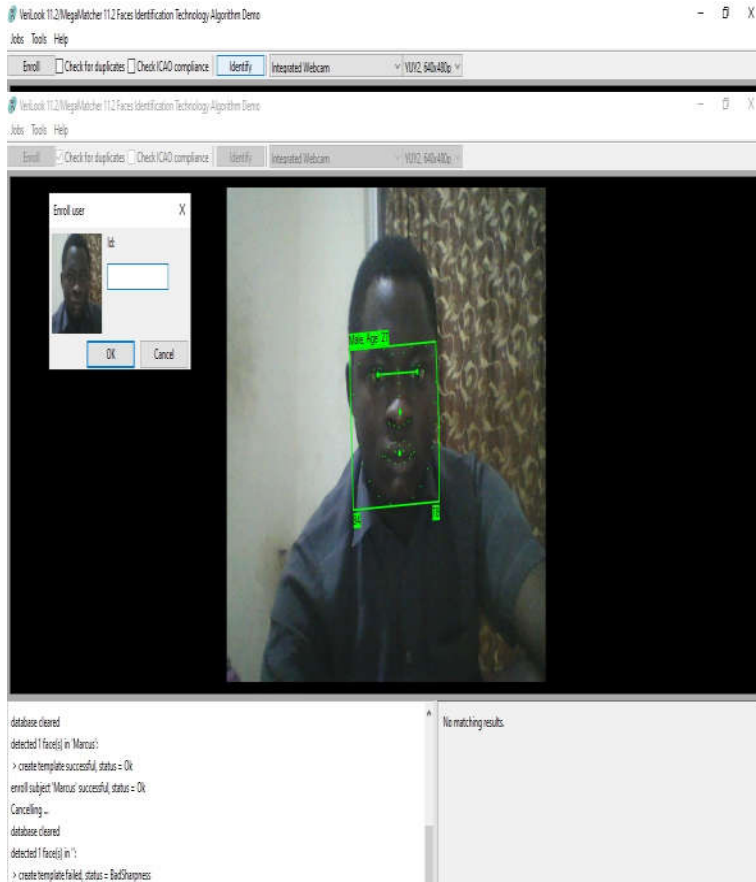
Facial Image Enrolment

Fingerprint Enrolment

CONCLUSION

The idea of combining two biometric identifiers with particle swarm optimization algorithm to develop an authentication system. The matching score are generated to achieve authentication. The extracted features of the identifiers generate the best position and the fitness function of the PSO algorithm for access to authenticated users.

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COVID-19 AND THE POLITICS OF PALLIATIVES DISTRIBUTION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The efforts made by the federal and state governments to curtail the spread of coronavirus in Nigeria such as lockdown, indoor policy and the ban on inter-state movement created a lot of hardship to businesses and households. These challenges necessitated the distribution of palliatives to businesses and households that were most affected by the pandemic. The dissatisfaction and lamentations that followed the distribution of palliatives by government agencies and ministry made the study of palliative distribution in the country very imperative. The study was designed to examine the template used by government agencies to distribute Covid-19 palliatives and the politics of deciding the beneficiaries. The study used qualitative descriptive approach and relied on secondary data to draw findings. The study observed that distribution of palliatives was politicised and done with a view to maintaining the strength of the party in power. The study concludes that the palliative distribution was poorly handled in the country. It therefore recommends that actions and policies made by those in power should be regulated by means of institutionalised code of conduct to ensure that all sections of the country experience a sense of inclusiveness.

Keywords: Covid-19, Pandemic, Politics, Palliatives and Distribution.

Introduction

Globalization has removed the barriers threatening the free flow of trade, capital and people from one part of the world to another. In the same manner, it has also increase the chances of diseases moving across national boundaries as it is the case with Covid-19. The novel Corona virus disease (Covid-19) has become an important health threat ravaging the entire globe with numerous health and economic implications.

The year 2020 was welcomed by a deadly viral outbreak called Corona virus disease 2019 (Covid-19), previously known as 2019-novel corona virus (2019-nCoV). Covid-19 was first reported in Wuhan, the capital and major business city of Hubei Province in China (Ohia, Bakarey & Ahmad, 2020). The global transmission of the disease is one of the dysfunctions of globalization, which offers both opportunities and catastrophes (Amzat, Aminu, Kolo, Akinyele, Ogundairo & Danjibo, 2020). Within a short space of time, the virus spread so fast that it met the epidemiological criteria of a pandemic such as infecting more than 100,000 people in at least 100 countries (Callaway (2020) as cited in Ohia, Bakarey & Ahmad (2020)).

The World Health Organisation (WHO) on March 11, 2020 declared Covid-19 a public health pandemic. Symptoms exhibited by Covid-19 disease range from fever, cough, respiratory symptoms, shortness of breath and breathing difficulties (World Health Organisation (WHO), 2020). Fatal outcomes can include lower respiratory tract illnesses such as Pneumonia and Bronchitis, or acute respiratory distress syndrome (SARS) in severe disease (Ohia, Bakarey & Ahmad, 2020). These complications are more pronounced in patients with underlying health conditions such as Cardiopulmonary disease, Immuno-compromised individuals, infants and the elderly (Centre for Disease Control Prevention (CDC) 2020).

In Nigeria, the first outbreak of Covid-19 occurred on 27[th] February, 2020 through an Italian business man who visited the country

(Nigeria Centre for Disease Control (NCDC), 2020). The declaration of this index case spurred the Nigeria government, with the support of relevant health agencies to embark on measures targeted at curtailing the spread of the disease (Omaka-Amari *et al*, 2020). These measures include self-isolation and lock down of entire cities and States, awareness creation on improve personal hygiene practices such as frequent washing of hands with soap and water or use of alcohol based hand sanitizer, wearing of face mask, maintaining social and physical distance at least one (1) metre away in public gathering etc.

Lockdown of cities, states as well as the entire country as advocated by World Health Organization (WHO) as the best approach to controlling or curtailing the spread of Covid-19 brought untold hardship to government, businesses and individual household especially in countries with low level of technology and infrastructural facilities to support electronic commerce. The depletion in the prices of crude oil in the international market due to global lockdown negatively impacted the country's gross domestic product (GDP) thereby increasing our economic woes. With the stay indoor policy introduced in the country, many businesses were shut down and workers laid off in the formal sectors of the economy. While in the informal sectors where large percentage of the people are engaged in, was in serious distress owing to the lock down policy implemented.

The untold hardship brought upon the people as a result of the lock down policy of government aimed at curtailing the spread of the virus led to mass outcry for measures to cushion the effects of the hardship. At this point the government announced series of palliatives as a way of cushioning the effect of the lockdown, the Federal Government of Nigeria rolled out the following palliative measures for targeted groups. Three months interest holidays for those holding Trader-moni, market-moni, and farmers-moni loans issued by the Bank of Industry, Bank of Agriculture, and the Nigeria Export and Import Bank. President Muhammadu Buhari also announced an expansion of the initial number of households that would benefit from the direct distribution of food and cash from 2.6

million household to 3.6 million household, whom he described as most vulnerable in the society (Eranga, 2020).

The dissatisfaction exhibited by Nigerians on the distribution of government palliatives as captured by Business Day (Newspaper) of 19[th] April, 2020 which reported thus: "It is lamentation and bitter wailing in Lagos and other parts of the country as Nigerians complain that the stimulus packages announced by the Federal government to cushion the effects of the lockdown imposed on some states and the Federal Capital Territory to contain the further spread of the Corona virus (Covid–19) Pandemic have not been sincerely deployed". From this background the paper aimed at identifying the various palliatives measures of the Federal Government, criteria of distribution, actual beneficiaries of the palliatives, and finally to make recommendations based on the findings of the paper.

2.0 Clarification of Concepts
Key concepts that constitute the topic of the paper such as Covid-19, pandemic, politics and palliative will be clarified.

2.1 Covid-19
Covid-19 is a new genre of Corona viruses that causes illness such as common cold, Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) (WHO, 2020 as cited in Awofeso and Irabor, 2020). It is an infectious disease that spread mainly through droplet of spittle or release from the nose when infected person coughs or sneezes (Nigeria centre for Disease Control (NCDC) 2020). Empirical investigations reveal that Corona virus diseases such as SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV was contracted from animal in China, 2002 and Saudi Arabia, 2012 respectively (Awofeso and Irabor, 2020). However, Covid-19 is a novel virus because it has not been previously identified in human system. The common symptoms of Covid-19 include fever, cough, dyspnea and tiredness (NCDC, 2020). The suffix '19' as used after Covid-19 correlates to the year of discovery of the virus in 2019 (Ohia, Bakarey and Tauseef, 2020).

2.2 Pandemic

The term pandemic is a generic adjective that describes a wide spread epidemic that affects people in many countries and continents. It is a term used to substantiate the rapid rate of contagious disease ranging from endemic and epidemic (Muthu 2005; Qiu, Rutherford & Mao, 2017 as cited in Awofeso and Irabor, 20200. An endemic disease is an infectious disease in a community at a particular time (Qiu, Rutherford, & Mao, 2017 as cited in Awofeso & Irabor 2020). The contagious effect and rate of spread of Covid-19 globally justify the pandemic nature of the virus. See (Table 1) below for number of countries, confirmed cases and number of death as at October 6[th], 2020). The WHO confirms Covid-19 as a pandemic on 11[th] March, 2020.

Table 1: Statistics on Covid-19 by World Health Organization (WHO)

No of Countries	No of confirms cases	No of deaths
235	35,274,993	1,038,534

Source: WHO website Corona virus update on the (6[th] October, 2020 01:00 GMT + 1)

2.3 Politics

The word politics' is gotten from a Greek word 'politika' meaning the affairs of the cities. Politics is the set of activities that are associated with making decisions in groups, or other forms of power relations between individuals such as the distribution of resources or status. It may be used positively in the context of a political solution which is compromising and non-violent, or descriptively as the art or science of government" but also often carries as negative connotation (Hague and Harrop, 2013). In the view of Harold Lasswell, Politics is who gets what, when and how (Lasswell, 1963). On the other hand, David Easton sees politics as the authoritative allocation of values for a society (Easton, 1981).

2.4 Palliatives

The word palliative according to Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary 7[th] Edition is an action, a decision that is designed to make a difficult situation seem better without actually solving the cause of the problems. In this paper, it refers to the sum of government activities, actions and decisions taken to reduce the harsh conditions caused by the outbreak of Covid-19 disease.

3.0 Methodology

The study made use of secondary data, utilizing relevant literature on Covid-19 pandemic, palliatives distribution in Nigeria were purposefully selected for content analysis. Official documents and statistics from key ministries and agencies handling palliatives distribution such as Ministry of Humanitarian Affairs, Disaster Management and Social Development; National Social Safety-Nets Coordinating Office (NASSCO), National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA). Data collected from these secondary sources are presented using tables and charts. Although, data on certain aspects of palliatives like loans and their beneficiaries is still not made public at the time of writing this paper. Richard C. Snyder (1962) theory of decision making is used for discussion of findings. and also to drive the study's point home.

4.0 Theoretical Framework

The researcher adopted the decision-making theory. Decision-making theory in political science was championed by scholars like Herbert Simon, James G. March, Richard C. Snyder and a host others. Decision-making is usually defined as a process or sequence of activities involving stages of problem recognition, search for information, definition of alternatives, and the selection by an actor(s) of one from two or more alternatives consistent with the ranked preferences identified in the first three stages that will maximize or satisfy the actor's goal. This paper adopts Richard C. Snyder's (1962) contribution or position on decision-making theory because it perfectly explain the attitude of Nigerian leaders when making public policy decisions. He see decision-making as a process analysis that is capable of dealing with dynamic situations. To him a process analysis may be of two kinds dealing with interaction and decision making. Snyder begins with this simple notion that all political action is undertaken by concrete human beings and that if we want to comprehend the dynamics of this action, we should be prepared to view the world not from our point of view but from the perspective of

the person(s) responsible for taking the decision. His main concern is with two things: who made the key decisions that gave rise to a particular action and how to assess the intellectual and interactive processes by following which the decision-makers reached their decision. Thus, he offered a model showing three main variables: internal setting, external setting and decision-making process.

The theory advocates that the background and perspective of the actor with the power to make the final key political decision should be the basis on which policies, programmes and key decisions of the government will be interpreted. In this case, President Muhammadu Buhari who constitutionally has the final say on government policies and programme will be the one whose previous antecedents and perspectives will serve as basis for interpreting current government policies and programmes in respect of Covid-19 palliative measures. Given President Muhammadu Buhari's pronouncement to give 95% to where his votes came from and 5% to areas where he was not voted. In addition to his consistent pattern of appointments and resource allocation throughout his five years of administration will help us to interpret the politics involved in Covid-19 palliative distribution.

Richard C. Snyder (1962:72) theory of decision-making also picked interest in assessing the interactive processes taken by decision makers in arriving at a particular decision. In this case, the decision making process was not open to the masses, experts or views of opposition party members but it was only restricted to appointees of the president. This scenario prevented alternative lines of thought that would have given room for rational decision making process. From the above, the decision making process is geared to maintain the hold of power and consolidate areas of stronghold.

5.0 Impact of Covid-19 on Businesses and Households

The stay at home directive by the government to mitigate the spread of Covid-19 brought untold hardship on businesses and households. Nigeria has a very high percentage of total labour force in informed sector of the economy that depend on daily interaction to carryout their business, the lock down meant reduction in household income, loss of business income and drop in quality of life of those who work in the informal sector. In Nigeria, the informal economy is significant because it provides employment opportunities for the teeming unemployed citizens and the medium to meet the needs of poor consumers through cheaper and accessible goods and services (Ogbuabor & Malaolu 2013 as cited in Awofeso & Irabor, 2020). Many businesses were shut down as a result of the lockdown and the stay at home policy. Even businesses providing essential services were compelled to operate below their average operation capacity thereby leading to massive retrenchment of workers, non payment of workers salaries and the need for government support for the survival of both businesses and households.

6.0 Government Responses on Covid-19 Impact

The growing number of confirmed cases across the country as can be seen in Table 2 below compelled many states of the federation to adopt, different measures of curtailing the spread of the virus in their domain. There was ban on inter-state movement as many of the states announced lock down or curfew at certain hours of the day to restrict movement. The federal government announced a lockdown on 30[th] March, 2020 in Lagos and Ogun States as well as Abuja (Federal Capital Territory) and later Kano State, which were considered epic centre of Covid-19 pandemic in Nigeria (NCDC, 2020). This was followed by similar directive by some state governments culminating into closure of schools, religious houses, social and sport gathering (Awofeso and Irabor, 2020).

Table 2: State Distribution of Covid-19 Cases

States	Number of Cases Laboratory Confirmed	Number of Cases on Admission	Number of Cases Discharged	Number of Deaths
Lagos	19,651	4,196	15,250	205
FCT	5,746	684	4,984	78
Plateau	3,497	749	2,715	33
Oyo	3,268	798	2.430	40
Edo	2,631	29	2,495	107
Rivers	2,517	125	2,334	59
Kaduna	2,444	57	2,347	40
Ogun	1,883	122	1,733	28
Delta	1,802	16	1,737	49
Kano	1,738	14	1,670	54
Ondo	1,635	54	1,545	36
Enugu	1,289	102	1,166	21
Kwara	1,044	37	982	25
Ebonyi	1,042	4	1,008	30
Abia	898	18	872	8
Katsina	884	19	841	24
Gombe	883	111	747	25
Osun	847	25	805	17
Borno	745	4	705	36
Bauchi	699	8	677	14
Imo	576	29	535	12
Benue	481	58	413	10
Nasarawa	452	114	325	13
Bayelsa	401	7	373	21
Jigawa	325	6	308	11
Ekiti	322	11	305	6
Akwa Ibom	293	7	278	8
Niger	259	15	232	12
Adamawa	248	23	208	17
Anambra	238	0	219	19
Sokoto	162	1	144	17
Taraba	105	10	89	6
Kebbi	93	1	84	8
Cross River	87	4	74	9
Zamfara	79	1	73	5
Yobe	76	6	62	8
Kogi	5	0	3	2
	59,345	7,464	50,768	1,113

Source: NCDC Website Situation Update 5[th] October, 2020 at 11:20am

Distribution of food items and conditional cash transfer to the poor and vulnerable citizens to cushion the effect of void-19 was carried out in some states of the federation. The number of household that benefited from the conditional cash transfer was estimated to cover 3.6 million citizens as can be seen in table 3 below. These are citizens who depend on daily wage and persons with disabilities, whose means of livelihood has been negatively affected by covid-19 lockdown and movement restriction (NJoku, Ebiri, Ohimide, Musa, & Agbohiaje, 2020 as cited by Awofeso & Irabor, 2020). The government also continue the Home Grown school feeding programme aimed at addressing malnutrition and ensuring provision of food ration to school children

(Onwuzoo, 2020 as cited by Awofeso and Irabor, 2020).

Fiscal stimulus packages like loans and reduction of interest rate, tax cut and tax holidays are implemented to mitigate the effect of covid-19 pandemic on household, small and medium scale enterprises. Soft loans were given to individuals and household through the platform provided by Central Bank of Nigeria in Partnership with some micro finance banks. The government implemented tax holidays for small businesses against company income tax. While tax rate for medium businesses were revised downward from 30% to 20% (Nnanna, 2020). The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) also approved uniform exchange rate system for inter-bank market to ease pressure of foreign exchange rate (Onyekwena and Ekeruche, 2020 as cited by Awofeso and Irabor, 2020). Other stimulus package are pronounced by the Federal Government such as assisting private organization to pay three (3) months of their staff salaries and also the establishment of 50 billion naira intervention fund to improve health facilities in the country.

7.0 Pattern of Covid-19 Palliative Distribution

There was no proper template designed to facilitate the proper distribution of palliative measures to those who were hit hard by covid-19 lockdown. The Presidential Task Force on Covid-19 adopted a social register that was questionable for distributing palliative items. The Social Register prepared by the National Social Safety-Net Coordinating Office (NASSCO) which existed years before the advent of Covid-19 became the sacred document used for determining those who will benefit from covid-19 packages particularly the conditional cash transfer. The National Social Register was initially prepared to cover poor and vulnerable people in 34 States and Federal Capital Territory (FCT) as can be seen in table three below but Ogun and Ebonyi States were not captured (Onah, Ugwuibe & Onah, 2020).

The National Social Register was prepared in President Muhammadu Buhari first tenure when the administration introduced the policy of conditional cash transfer to the poor and vulnerable citizens of the country. The criteria of selecting beneficiaries were questionable especially when some states were not captured, while the distribution of beneficiaries was skewed in favour of states where President Muhammadu Buhari was massively voted and where the All Progressive Congress (APC) was in control of the state government.

Table 3: Beneficiaries of Conditional Cash Transfer in States on Party Lines

S/No	APC States in 2015	Number of Household	Number of Beneficiaries
1	Adamawa	52,471	196,401
2	Bauchi	47,712	275,007
3	Benue	141,983	628,463
4	Borno	7,130	33,728
5	Edo (Buhari lost in Edo but it was an APC state in 2015)	43,260	144,676
6	FCT	41,485	156,260
7	Gombe (Buhari won massively though PDP)	31,982	156,553
8	Jigawa	168,542	656,757
9	Kaduna	90,794	358,486
10	Kano	151,315	763,919
11	Katsina	176,724	807,200
12	Kebbi	219,102	932,460
13	Kogi	96,646	447,40
14	Kwara	96,335	417,358
15	Lagos	14,434	52,319
16	Nasarawa	149,693	542,774

17	Niger	63,957	329,593
18	Osun	64,931	218,872
19	Oyo	28,382	99,569
20	Plateau	156,058	585,289
21	Sokoto	3,347	18,435
22	Yobe	31,665	163,711
23	Zamfara	291,629	1,341,153
24	Imo (Though Buhari lost in Imo but it is an APC State in 2015)	24,426	82,216
			9,408,669
	Non-APC states in 2015	**Number of Households**	**Number of Beneficiaries**
1	Abia	14,246	152,605
2	Akwa Ibom	52,471	405,822
3	Anambra	43,146	121,539
4	Bayelsa	51,727	184,876
5	Cross River	27,604	148,486
6	Delta	30,338	80,644
7	Ekiti	15,119	51,865
8	Enugu	6,886	27,013
9	Ondo	25,312	89,519
10	Rivers	73,601	267,812
11	Taraba	39,646	106,691
			1,636,868

Source: The National Social Safety-Nets Coordinating Office (NASSCO), 2020. Modified by the Author

It is expected that, the criteria for the distribution of Covid-19 palliative should have been base on the need and where the Corona virus pandemic hit hardest. Using these parameters, states with the highest numbers of confirmed cases and where lockdown was introduced should benefit more than states where the numbers of confirmed cases are low. In addition, people living in urban areas and engaged in informal sectors of the economy should have been given priority because they were the one who were hit hardest by the lock down. Many in formal sector were not paid salaries and some were out rightly disengaged by their employers. But unfortunately the Presidential Tax Force setup by President Muhammadu Buhari and comprised only his appointees and members of All Progressive Congress (APC) decided to adopt a social register prepared to favour sympathizers of the party (APC) prepared some years before the advent of Covid-19 pandemic. In addition to this insensitivity to the plight of Nigerians by adopting a National Social Register that was not updated to cover those working both in formal and informal sectors whose means of livelihood was badly affected in urban centres and States hit hardest by the Covid-19.

The Federal Government rather introduced a dangerous dimension to Covid-19 distribution by using it as a means of political party consolidation. The Guardian newspaper vividly captured this scenario in some states like Lagos, Ekiti, and Plateau where palliatives were handed over to political chieftains to share to party members (*The Guardian*, 2020). The distribution of Covid-19 Palliatives was even faulted by notable groups in the country. Onah, Uguibe & Onah (2020) captured the reaction of notable groups on the distribution of palliative package in a tabular form as can be seen below. The common concern raised by the groups is the politicization, lopsided nature, and lack of transparency in the distribution of palliatives in the country.

Table 4: Reactions of Groups over the Distribution of Conditional Cash Transfer

S/No	Groups	Comments over the distribution of CCT as a palliatives (Summary)	Recommendation and stand (Summary)
1	Governor's Forum	The distribution of the palliatives is selective	Involve the Governors fully in the process and reform the System
2	House of Representative caucus	The Distribution of the palliatives is selective and partial. It does not cover enough grounds	Ensure even and wide-spread distribution.
3	Senate President	The distribution is unfair. Distributing N20,000 to the poor is not the best at this time	Reform and change the strategy for more poor Nigerians to benefit. It should be based on legislation
4	Christian Association of Nigeria (CAN)	The distribution lacks transparency. It lacks coverage	Government should make the process more transparent and extend the palliatives to all the needy
5	Centre for Transparency Advocacy (CTA)	The palliative distribution appear to be politicized	Federal and State governments should not politicize the distribution of palliatives meant for all
6	Socio-Economic Rights and Account ability project (SERAP)	The data base upon which the palliatives are predicated are unreliable. The distribution lacks transparency	Provide more details for Nigerians to see.
7	Ohaneze Ndigbo Youth (Igbo Socio cultural association)	It is a skewed program that gives the impression that Igbos are second class citizens or not wanted in Nigeria.	President should ensure that no part of Nigeria is left out of the CCT palliative
8	The indigenous people of Biafra (IPOB)	There is lopsidedness in government on-going disbursement of the palliative to the exclusion of the South East geopolitical zone.	The distribution of the palliative is a humiliation of the Igbo and this is capable of creating more crisis.

Source: Onah, Uguibe & Onah (2020) modified by the author

8.0 Conclusion

The handling of palliatives distribution in Nigeria has further exposed a weak system of crisis management in terms of policy making as well as the dearth of comprehensive data for effective planning and proper management of resources. Public policies in Nigeria in most cases are designed to score a political point rather than promote development. The theory of decision making as propounded by Richard C. Snyder stresses that policies, decisions and actions of the government are best explained and understood when you look at it using the lens and perspective of the decision makers or those who have the final say on government policies and programmes (Snyder, 1962 as cited in Johari, 2011). In the context of this paper, the decision makers are politicians and their major concern or interest is to consolidate their hold on power. This best explains the politicization of Covid-19 palliatives distribution which is consciously done to favour states where APC All Progressive Congress (APC) is in control and to maintain the political stronghold of the President in view of future elections. The implication of such actions include: the increasing divisiveness in the country along various fault lines, violent partisanship before and during elections, and finally, slow the pace of development in every area of life as a people.

9.0 Recommendations

Public policies aimed at distributing scarce resources should be done based on accurate data devoid of politicization. Data used for distribution of palliatives in Nigeria was not timely and were collected long before the incidence of Covid-19 came up. In view of this obvious shortcoming of this National Social Register which was used for distributing palliatives, it became imperative for Federal Government to come up with a template designed deliberately to capture those are mostly hit by the lockdown and other measures taken by the government to curtail the spread of Covid-19. The absence of comprehensive and periodic update of data in Nigeria is a bane to effective planning and programming which is necessary for sustainable development. All government agencies must be structured and empowered to maintain an up-to-date data concerning their areas of jurisdiction. This will enhance smooth coordination of government activities aimed at improving the condition of the disadvantaged people through intervention. This will also reduce wastage and poor implementation of government interventions.

Politicization of policies and programmes of government should be discouraged through the institutionalization of certain code of conducts for public officials that they must uphold at all times. Sanctions should be imposed on public officials that go against these codes when they are found wanting. The Code of Conduct Bureau should be empowered by law to examine regularly government policies and programmes with a view to ensuring that they are designed and implemented in such a manner that the inclusiveness of all sections is guaranteed.

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HISTORICAL REVIEW OF ELECTORAL MANAGEMENT BODIES IN NIGERIA: 1958-2017

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Abstract

Interest of this paper is to examine the essence of the election management bodies in Nigeria from 1958 up to 2017 and their relevance to the conduct of free, fair and credible elections. The paper interrogates activities of politically non-partisan election management bodies; and attempts a discussion on how to resuscitate the Nigeria's political culture so that the political elite and the general public can show a commitment to the rules and regulations of electoral governance to ensure credible elections. Ostensibly, election is the heart of representative democracy by which means, legitimacy is conferred on political leadership. The paper argues that election provides citizens with the freedom to choose their rulers and to decide on public policy. Under any democratic system, citizens who are legally qualified to exercise their franchise are provided with the opportunity to choose political alternatives and to make decisions that express their preferences. Through interrogation of major primary and secondary documents, the paper proves that in a multi-party dispensation, choice is made out of the several parties and candidates competing in the electoral market. In all democracies, election performs several functions among which is to compel accountability from elected officials. It concludes that within the mandate of the electoral bodies, election is a legitimizing institution.

Key words: Election management bodies, Democracy, Political, Leaders

Introduction

It is a truism that election is at the heart of democracy and the democratization process. It has also been asserted and posited that elections are the litmus test for a democratic political system (Nwogu, 2015). What underscores the centrality of elections to democratization is the fact that there can be elections without democracy, whereas there can never be democracy without elections (Diamond, 2002). Nigeria has struggled to find ways to engender confidence in the conduct of free and fair elections. The problem is a two-sided one: how to design and ensure an efficient, effective, and politically non-partisan election management body; and how to reorient the country's political culture so that the political elite and the general public will show a commitment to the rules and regulations of electoral governance, in order to ensure credible and competitive elections.

As conceptualized above, election is the life wire of any democracy. Elections in a democracy are very important because they are the means through which the political expressions of the people are shown via legitimacy and leadership succession. In a free and fair conduct called election, the people do have the political will and right to decide who should govern them. However, free, fair and credible elections have been observed to be farfetched in developing countries. It is therefore no wonder that the democratic process in Africa and the third world countries particularly Nigeria continued to derail and collapse at the altar of bungled elections and electoral process. This is because of the centrality of elections to the whole essence of democratic process and the inability of these countries and their electoral bodies to conduct free, fair and credible elections.

From 1923, based on the 1922 Clifford Constitution, Nigerian representation in colonial legislative governance structures began when the 'electoral principle was introduced with the concession that three unofficial representatives from Lagos and one from Calabar should be elected by residents of those towns who had minimum incomes of (one hundred pounds sterling). Further landmark constitutional advances and electoral reform under colonial rule took place between 1945 and 1960, and included the 1947 Richards Constitution, which established a Legislative Council consisting of representatives from the North and South of the country, and separate and devolved regional governance institutions in the East, North and West; and the 1951 Constitution, which introduced indirect elections to the three Regional Houses of Assembly (Eastern, Northern and Western) through a system of electoral colleges. Further reforms led to the progressive introduction of universal adult suffrage in elections, starting with the 1950 Lagos Town Council elections, and expanding through the other regions by the time of the first federal elections in 1959 (Tenena, 1966).

Institutional Requirements for Credible Elections

The prominent institutional requirements for a free, fair and credible elections or electoral process are the following; an independent judiciary, a well-developed system of political parties, and a non-partisan electoral body. While a well-developed system of political parties is a necessary instrument for competitive elections and an independent judiciary is essential for the resolution of electoral disputes, an independent and non-partisan electoral institution is of the greatest importance to the whole electoral process being the body that is conducting the elections. This is due to the fact that the quality and credibility of elections are directly related to the competency of the organising institution (Edigheji, 2006).

Composition and Functions

The Election Management Body must be truly independent, transparent and impartial in the performance of its functions as stipulated by the law. It must also be perceived in reality by all actors in the electoral process to be neutral, objective, and above board. Apart from the above, it must be competent in the discharge of its constitutionally assigned duties with minimal or no institutional, structural or financial hindrances. It must be truly independent in every sense of the word. It will be stressed here that without a vibrant, competent and strong electoral body, the conduct of elections would be seriously flawed and the whole democratization process thrown into disrepute or grounded to a halt (Luqman, 2003).

The functions of an Electoral Management Body include the following among others: (a) management of all elections as may be provided for by the constitution or laws of the country; (b) registration of political parties in accordance with the provisions of the constitution or laws of the country; (c) monitoring and supervision of the activities of political parties including their finances; (d) arrangement of annual examination and auditing of funds and accounts of political parties and publishing of a report on such examination and audit for public information; (e) preparation, maintenance and revision of voters register for the purpose of any election under the constitution or laws of the country; (f) monitoring of political campaigns and provision of rules and regulations which shall govern the political parties; (g) organizing, conducting and supervising all elections into all elective offices provided in the constitution except those of local government council elections; (h) arranging for the annual examination and auditing of the funds and accounts of political parties and publish a report of such examination and audit for public information; (i) dividing the area of the Federation or as the case may be, the area of a state, local government or Area council into such a number of constituencies as may be prescribed by law for the purpose of election to be conducted by the Commission; (j) ensuring that all its agents which include permanent and ad hoc staff subscribe to the oath of office prescribed by law; (k) delegation of its powers to any of its agents, representatives, or officers; and (l) execution of such other functions as may be conferred upon it by the constitution or laws of the country (Okoh, 2005).

To be able to carry out the above listed functions and ensure a viable and hitch-free electoral system, the electoral body in charge of electoral management must be made up of men and women of proven integrity and honesty. This is a very vital factor which any electoral system must have, and it is not negotiable. The electoral body must demonstrate a good knowledge of the electoral laws and operate within the framework of these laws in concert and in synergy with political parties, security agencies, media houses, civil society groups and other relevant stakeholders or actors in the electoral process. This is the surest way by which an electoral body can conduct a free, fair and credible election and maintain a viable and hitch free electoral system and electoral management. Electoral management therefore can be seen as the process of arriving at free and fair selection of candidates to fill public positions. Such activity necessarily should involve well-coordinated actions by men and women aimed at achieving the goal of peaceful and orderly elections in a political system. Consequently, the overall goal of setting up an electoral body is to ensure a viable electoral system and a hitch-free electoral management (Ighodalo, 2008).

In summary, election management involves the management of the following: (a) participation of the people in the act of electing their leaders and their own participation in governance; (b) activities before, during and after elections; (c) legal and constitutional framework of elections; (d) the registration of political parties, regulation of political parties and financing of political campaigns; (e) the authenticity and genuineness of voters register; (f) the liberalism or otherwise of the political process in the country; (g) the activities of electronic and print media in terms of access; (h) the activities of security agencies and the government in power; (i) the independence of adjudicating bodies of elections; and above all; (j) the independence or lack of it of the electoral agency, organ or body.

Electoral Management Bodies/Electoral Commissions in Nigeria
Of the greatest importance and most central to election or electoral management among the activities and institutions listed above, is the independence or otherwise of the electoral management body. This is because the success or failure of any election can be easily traced to the doorstep of the agency, organ or body saddled with the responsibility of managing the electoral process. It is instructive to point out here that there exists a direct linkage between electoral process and the managing body. It has been posited and widely acknowledged that, the quality and credibility of elections depend greatly on the extent of competency and viability of the electoral bodies (Akinboye, 2005). Nigeria is a classic example of this assertion because it shows a strong relationship between elections and the managing body. This is because the process of holding elections as a peaceful and orderly means of power transfer has been problematic (Luqman, 2003).

As earlier pointed out, the history of elections in Nigeria has been a chequered one, because electoral conduct since independence has been an exercise in futility, characterized and marred by malpractices and corruption. A flash back at the political history of Nigeria since independence will glaringly reveal that past efforts at democratization collapsed due to failure of electoral bodies known as electoral commissions to conduct credible elections. It is also unfortunate to note that electoral commissions in Nigeria have failed to learn from history. The problem faced by past commissions continues to recur and beset present electoral management body while past shortcomings continue to manifest. The process of transition or transfer of power after each successive military regime becomes a process of rebuilding, recreating and bringing into being, institutions that have been dissolved or kept in abeyance. Therefore, the history of hitherto electoral management bodies or commissions in Nigeria has been a history of dissolutions, constitutions and reconstitutions (Okoye, 2007).

The history of Electoral Commissions in Nigeria can be traced to the colonial era and towards independence to be specific. During the 1954-58 constitutional conference which ushered in independence, delegates articulated recommendations in favour of the establishment of a permanent and impartial

body to conduct future elections in the country (Bratto, 1989, pp.251-266). In the end, a law was promulgated to that effect and the Electoral Commission of Nigeria (ECN) was formally established. The body was charged with the responsibility of voters' registration and the conduct of federal elections. The ECN had as its chairman, a colonial officer, Mr R.E Wraith. Other members of the electoral body were later appointed namely: Mr K.A Bohn (Southern Cameroun), Barr. A. Aniagulu (Eastern Region), Alhaji Bello Makaman Kano (Northern Region), Mr H. Orishejolomi Thomas and Mr Sho Silva (Lagos, the Federal Capital Territory). It is instructive to note that the Chairman of the very first electoral commission in Nigeria was a foreigner. Why was this so? This was due to the mistrust amongst Nigerians at the time due largely to the contestation for supremacy between the various regions of the country (Bratton & Nicholas, 1997).

The electoral Commission of Nigeria (ECN) headed by Sir Kofo Abayomi, was the first electoral management body or commission to be set up in Nigeria. The ECN administered, managed and conducted the 1959 elections that ushered in the first republic. After the 1959 elections and in anticipation of political independence under the disguise of flag or tissue independence, the need arose to reconstitute the election management body. This was in addition to the many issues thrown up by the way and manner the ECN conducted the 1959 federal election. Largely as a result of these, the ECN was replaced with the Federal Electoral Commission.

On the attainment of independence in 1960 and the inauguration of the first republic, the then Prime Minister, Sir Tafawa Balewa effected a change in ECN and renamed it as Federal Electoral Commission (FEC). The FEC headed by Mr Eyo E. Esua, conducted the 1964 general elections and the 1965 Western Region election. The incompetence and inability of FEC to conduct the elections in a free, fair and credible manner and the violence that ensued there from accounted largely for the collapse of the first republic. The military administration of General Aguiyi Ironsi that took-over the reins of government dissolved the FEC (Luqman, 2005).

The period between 1966 and 1978 represents an interregnum in the annals of election management bodies in Nigeria because of the thirty-month old fratricidal struggle and the long time it took the Nigerian military to rebuild damaged social and economic infrastructures. As part of the transition to civil rule programme, in 1978, the then military Head of State, General Olusegun Obasanjo, established the Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO) with Chief Michael Ani as Chairman. FEDECO had twenty-four members. The FEDECO conducted the transitional elections of 1979 which ushered in the second republic, with Alhaji Shehu Shagari as the First Executive President of Nigeria. President Shagari replaced Chief Michael Ani with Justice Ovie-Whisky as Chairman of FEDECO that conducted the 1983 general elections and re-elected the civilian administration of Alhaji Shehu Shagari. The FEDECO commissioners were sharply divided over the administration and conduct of the elections at the state and federal level. The violence and wanton destruction of life and property that followed led General Muhammadu Buhari to overthrow the government and FEDECO was again dissolved (Okoye, 2003).

Between 1983 and 1985 when General Buhari was in power, there was a brief lull in the evolution of electoral bodies in Nigeria because the Head of State never initiated any transition to civil rule programme. The growing unpopularity of the military in the nation's political process meant that an announcement of a programme of transition to civil rule would be required to resolve the legitimacy crisis which confronted the General Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida administration at the outset. During the transition brokered by General Ibrahim Babangida to usher in the aborted third republic, the military administration set up the National Electoral Commission (NEC) with Professor Eme O. Ewa as Chairman in 1987.

By 1989, Professor Humphrey Nwosu was appointed Chairman of NEC which conducted elections at the local, state and national levels in 1987, 1990 and 1991respectively. NEC initially made remarkable progress in the discharge of its assignments as is illustrated by its successful conduct of the local government

elections on zero party basis. However, the activities of NEC reached the peak in 1993 with the conduct of the controversial presidential election which was later annulled by the military government of General Babangida. He, however, appointed an eminent historian, Prof. Okon Edet Uya to replace Prof. Humphery Nwosu as Chairman of NEC.

He also installed an interim government headed by Chief Ernest Shonekan before he stepped aside. The annulment of the presidential election in June, 1993 rendered utterly useless NEC efforts at conducting a free, fair and credible election in the aborted third republic. Although NEC under Chief Shonekan was to complete the General Babangida transition programme, this was not possible largely because of the crisis of acceptance it had to battle throughout its life span (Oyovbaire, Sam, Olagunju, & Tunji, 1996).

NEC was eventually dissolved in November, 1993 after General Abacha overthrew the Interim Government of Chief Ernest Shonekan (Akinboye, 2005). As part of the process of initiating a programme of transition, in December 1994, the Abacha regime established the National Electoral Commission of Nigeria (NECON) headed by Chief Sumner Dagogo-Jack. NECON swung into action as soon as it was established by registering some political parties. The Commission also conducted Local Government and National Assembly elections. The erratic nature of the regime rendered the Commission powerless and ineffective as an independent electoral body. With the death of General Abacha in 1998, NECON was dissolved by his successor, General Abdusalam Abubakar, who established the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) and appointed Hon. Justice Ephraim Akpata as the first Chairman. The INEC conducted the 1999 general elections and ushered in the fourth republic. Thus, the current electoral body in Nigeria (INEC) is a successor to those electoral bodies which existed before and after independence. Dr. Abel Guobadia took over as Chairman of INEC in 2000 after the death of Hon. Justice Akpata. On completion of his tenure in 2005, Prof. Maurice Ewu was appointed as Chairman for a five-year tenure which ended in 2010. Prof. Attahiru Jega took over the helm of affairs of the electoral body from 2010-2015.

It is instructive to note that Prof. Jega is the only INEC chairman to oversee two Nigerian General Elections (2011 and 2015 elections). Amina Bala Zakari was appointed Acting Chairman of the Independent National Electoral Commission of INEC. Her appointment took effect from the directive of the President Muhammadu Buhari following the expiration of the tenure of her predecessor; Attahiru Jega on July 30, 2015.Zakari is the first woman to be appointed to the position of the leadership of INEC. In October of the same year, Prof. Mahmud Yakubu, the current INEC Chairman was appointed for five-year tenure.

Table 1: Nigerian Electoral Management Bodies and Chairmen, 1958–2017

S/n	Electoral Commission	Chairman	Tenure	Geo-Political Zone
1	Electoral Commission of Nigeria (ECN)	Mr R.E.Wraith	1958-1959	Foreigner (British)
2	Federal Electoral Commission (FEC)	Eyo E. Esua	1964-1966	South-South
3	Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO)	Chief Micheal O. Ani	1976-1979	South-South
4	Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO)	Justice Victor Ovie-Whiskey	1980-1983	South-South
5	National Electoral Commission (NEC)	Prof. Eme O. Ewa	1987-1989	South-South
6	National Electoral Commission (NEC)	Prof. Humphrey Nwosu	1989-1993	South-East
7	National Electoral Commission	Prof. Okon Edet Uya	1993	South-South

	(NEC)			
8	National Electoral Commission of Nigeria (NECON)	Chief Summer Dagogo-Jack	1994-1998	South-South
9	Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC)	Hon. Justice Ephraim O.I. Akpata	1998-2000	South-South
10	Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC)	Dr Abel I. Guobadia KSA	2000-2005	South-South
11	Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC)	Prof. Maurice Iwu	2005-2010	South-East
12	Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC)	Prof. Attahiru Jega	2010-2015	North-West
13	Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC)	Amina Zaka Bakari (Acting Chairman)	July 30 2015- October 21, 2015	North-West
14	Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC)	Prof. Mahmud Yakubu	2015-date	North-East

Source: Report of Nigeria's Electoral Reform Committee, Abuja, Nigeria, 2008: 98 with some modification.

It is instructive to note that the history of election management bodies in Nigeria is characterized by (a) the absence of continuity; (b) The history of electoral governance in the country highlights an amoral political culture, underscored by a general indifference to the desecration of the electoral process, in the form of grave electoral malpractices; (c) non-receptivity to change and; (d) the overwhelming dominance of the Southern minorities in the leadership of the electoral bodies until the year 2010 when Prof. Attahiru Jega opened the door for the northern hegemony of the electoral body.

Composition and Functions of INEC
The Independent Electoral Commission (INEC) consists of a Chairman, the Chief Electoral Officer of the Commission and twelve (12) other members who are known as National Electoral Commissioners. According to the law that established INEC, the Chairman and National Electoral Commissioners shall be persons of unquestionable integrity and not less than fifty (50) and forty years of age respectively. There shall also be for each State and the Federal Capital Territory (Abuja), a Resident Electoral Commissioner who shall be appointed by the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria after due consultation with the Council-of-State but subject to Senate confirmation (Musa, 2001).

The Commission's statutory functions include the following: (a) to organise, undertake and supervise all elections to the offices of the and State Assemblies; (b) register Political Parties in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution and an Act of National Assembly; (c) monitor the organisation and operation of the Political Parties including their finances; (d) arrange and conduct the registration of persons qualified to vote and prepare, maintain and revise the register of voters for the purpose of any election; (e) monitor political campaigns and provide rules and regulations which shall govern the political parties; (f) ensure that all Electoral Commissioners, Electoral and Returning Officers take and subscribe to the oath of Office prescribed by law; (g) carryout any such other functions as may be conferred upon it by an Act of the National Assembly (Okoh, 2005).

Evaluation of Electoral Commissions since Independence
As earlier highlighted, and as it can be easily discerned from the historical analysis on electoral commissions in Nigeria, the history of electoral Management body is a history of dissolutions, constitution and reconstitution. Under these historical circumstances, it is difficult for the Electoral Commission to develop, take root and build a culture of professionalism and expertise necessary for the conduct of credible elections. In such a situation whereby military interventions and transitional governments are very frequent and rampant, the law and the constitution cannot

work. The Commission is denied autonomy and independence, as the power of incumbency by those in power or government is being used, misused and abused. The security agencies are deployed and used against opposition parties or alliances in order to keep those in government in power. This is why it becomes imperative to have election observation and monitoring in place (Okoye, 2007).

INEC as presently constituted has structural and credibility problems which include allegations of bias, impartiality and corruption levelled against it by the opposition parties. It is believed that INEC cannot be completely transparent, honest and unbiased in the conduct of elections because he who pays the piper dictates the tune. This belief is based on the modalities of appointment and funding. Both the appointment of key officers of INEC and funding of its operational activities are carried out by politicians in power (the President and National Assembly – Senate and House of Representatives). The issues of appointment and funding are good weapons that can be used to tame, cage or cow the Commission by the government or politicians in power. If INEC must perform transparently, honestly and honourably, these situations must be altered and the constitutional issues of appointment and funding must be given constitutional amendment in order to effect a change (Nwabueze, 2003).

The cost of elections and the proper management of finances is a major issue. There are real questions about how to rationalise expenditure to reduce the cost of elections in countries where resources are scarce. This is particularly true where, rather than relying on the civil service, large numbers of temporary staff must be recruited and equipment purchased, often through a procurement process that must be conducted under extreme time pressures.

Electoral bodies in Nigeria are also confronted with challenges related to staffing and logistics. Logistics covers all the pre-polling day election operations. It covers the procurement, distribution and if necessary, retrieval from polling stations of electoral materials, recruitment, training and deployment of personnel to various polling stations and ballot counting centres (Vanguard, 2003). The nation's electoral bodies have attempted to tackle problems associated with this, but like a plague, it continued to affect election management in the country.

Closely related to logistics is the issue of staffing. The problem of personnel recruitment in Nigeria's electoral commissions manifests at two levels. The first concerns the job security of the permanent staff. Available records have shown that past electoral commissions were dismissed with their permanent staff. This dampened the commitment of this category of staff in the commission to the extent that was a problem to effective election management. But the real problem has more to do with the ad-hoc staffs that were usually recruited just for the purposes of helping to conduct elections. Their activities have been criticized over the years by analysts and stakeholders in the electoral process. Usually poorly trained, they are the first to be easily bribed by desperate politicians to rig elections. It is also this category of staff, who is really the men on the spot that the electoral bodies have relied on over the years to conduct elections (Olutola, 2007).

There is also the challenge of automation which has increasingly become an issue in the age of telematics and global digitalization. For the first time in the history of the country, this challenge was taken head on in the last elections when INEC attempted to use the Direct Data capturing Machine to register voters. The result was disastrous due largely to poor planning, logistics and inadequate funding. The initial confidence exuded by INEC on its plans to rely on these machines gave Nigerians hope that electoral malpractices would at least be minimized in the 2007 elections. When that could not work midway into the process, the result was pandemonium. The electoral process was blatantly abused by politicians. The latest Card Reader machines used in the 2015 General Elections and subsequent elections organized in Rivers, Ondo and Anambra States in 2015, 2016 and 2017 respectively were also filled with hiccups as quite a number of the machines malfunctioned.

Furthermore, our electoral system has not been able to make provisions for those outside to vote on the account of their not being in the country during elections. As a result, many Nigerians in the diaspora are being disenfranchised. Perhaps when we automate our electoral system, this problem would be solved. In the meantime, INEC could explore the possibility of arranging liasing with the country's embassy offices around the world for its citizens to cast their votes wherever they are.

Another important issue that could make or mar an Electoral Commission is the Electoral Act or Law which contains elaborate provisions relating to the powers of the Commission; the National Register of Voters and Voters Registration; Procedure at Elections; Registration and Regulation of Political Parties; Procedure for Election to Local Government; Electoral Offences and Determination of Election Petitions. The due observation and adherence to constitutional and electoral stipulations and timeliness is fundamental to the credibility of elections. This has been a fundamental problem confronting Electoral Commissions since independence. The processes and procedures enumerated in the constitution and the relevant electoral laws or acts are processes, steps and stages that must be complied with before the process of voting, collation and announcement of results is completed. If the constitutional, legal or electoral framework of an electoral process is faulty, skewed or manipulated, it may be difficult for such a result to be acceptable to the electorate (Okoye, 2007a).

Conclusion and Recommendations
Unfortunately, electoral process has always been faulty, skewed and manipulated in favour of one party or candidate at the expense of the others. This has been the practice from one election to the other, thereby making electoral management a daunting task since

independence in Nigeria. In most cases, election results have been rejected by the electorates and followed up by violence. This has led to the collapse of the first and second republics as well as the aborted third republic in Nigeria. This is a great lesson to the current Electoral Commission known as Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC). Any attempt to skew or manipulate election results either in favour of a political party or candidate at the expense of others may spell a great doom for the fourth republic in Nigeria. Therefore, INEC must be truly independent, transparent and impartial in the performance of its functions as stipulated by the 1999 constitution and the 2010 electoral laws. It must carry out its operational activities in such a manner to be perceived in reality by all actors in the electoral process, to be neutral, objective and above board. Apart from this, INEC must be able to exhibit high-level competence in the discharge of its constitutional assigned duties with minimal or no institutional, structural or financial hindrances. INEC must be seen to be truly independent in every sense of the world.

It is stressed that without vibrant and competent people being appointed into INEC to strengthen it and manage elections there will be no strong INEC and the conduct of elections will be seriously flawed and the whole democratization process will be thrown into disrepute or grounded to a halt. This should serve as a legitimate caution to the INEC, government, political parties, and other stakeholders or actors in the electoral process.

It is recommended that INEC as electoral body must be allowed to work freely in the discharge of their duties without undue interference either from any political big Whig or government itself. INEC must remain resolute and plan well ahead before the elections period in order not to betray the trust reposed in them by the People.

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POLITICAL INSTABILITY AND THE VALUE OF AFRICAN CURRENCIES: A CASE OF THE LIBERIAN DOLLARS (1989 – 2003)

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Abstract

The Liberian dollars, before the outbreak of the civil war, was one of the valuable currencies in West Africa with strong purchasing power. However, with the onset of the civil war in 1989, the value and the purchasing power of the local currency diminished. The Liberian dollars, which has been in circulation as a legal tender since the Liberian independence, suddenly became worthless. Prior to the civil unrest, Liberia had been bedeviled with corruption under the presidency of Samuel Doe. He stashed billions of dollars in both local and foreign bank accounts. During the civil war, Liberian economy was run aground. All financial institutions, with the National Bank of Liberia-established in 1974- collapsed paving the way for chaos and hyper inflation which engulfed the entire country. This research examines in detail the effect of civil unrest on the value of African currencies, using the Liberian experience as a case study. The period in focus 1989-2003 was specifically chosen because; the period represented a time of devastation on the socio-economic and political life of the country. It relies on oral interview with some Liberian refugees in Nigeria, literature search and online sources for its data. The purpose of this paper is to reveal the devastating effect of the civil war on the Liberian currency and the economy at large. The study finds out that the Liberian currency and invariably the economy suffered a great depreciation and depression during the civil war, just like what normally happen to every currency during civil war. The paper therefore, conclude, and recommended that in every given circumstances the local currency must be adequately safeguard against depreciation by the central bank with adequate monetary policies.

Keywords: Economy, Liberia, Dollars, Political instability

Introduction

As rightly noted by scholars Africa has often been referred to as the troubled continent, the hotbed of global conflict and confusion (Eminue, 2004)(Alabi, 2006). This is not surprising considering the myriads of troubled countries within the continent. There is hardly a region within Africa that is not troubled politically or economically. From the West to the East; and from the North to the South, Africa remains the 'land of distress' (Aremu, 2010). A roll call of the conflict ridden states would make people ponder over the problems a richly endowed continent such as Africa. War torn countries include; Sudan, DR Congo, Liberia, Sierra-Leone, Guinea, Cote-D'Ivoire, Rwanda and Niger, Mali. Others are Chad, Eritrea, Burundi and Somalia. Even 'big brother' Nigeria is not excluded from conflicts as the Niger Delta crises, terrorism, kidnapping, harm banditry has persistently

remained a perennial problem for the giant of Africa (Aremu, 2010).

The problem of African states however has transcended the realm of political disturbances alone; instead, it has permeated the economic heart of all these states. Civil unrests have had disastrous effects on the economy of all these countries. Prior to the outbreak of war and disturbances African countries have never enjoyed robust economies. In fact, most African Nations have never really been independent economically since the 'flag' independence was achieved from their erstwhile colonial masters (Gareth, 2010). It was therefore not surprising that African economies virtually ground to a halt under the violent onslaught of civil and political unrests.

This paper takes a critical look at the effect of civil unrest on African economies, especially on the value of African currencies. For case study, the Liberian dollars was chosen during the civil

war 1989-2003. The reason for this is obvious. Liberia- a tiny country in West Africa- is just recovering from the ruins of a fourteen years old war [1989-2003]. After the civil war, the burden of rebuilding the economy was bestowed on a young government led by a not so young erstwhile Chase Manhattan executive, in the person of Ellen Johnson Sirleaf. The Liberian dollars is at the moment contending with the American dollars on the streets of Monrovia (Samuel, 2020). It is no longer the first choice currency of exchange, a position it enviously occupied before the outbreak of civil hostilities. What reasons informs the preference of American dollars by Liberians? What was the pre-war value of the Liberian dollars? What is the present 'state of health' of the Liberian dollars? These and many more questions formed the crux of this research.

Political Unrest in Africa; causes and consequences

Various scholars have attempted to interpret civil conflicts in Africa through several theories (Beckman, 1993)(Collier P. , 2007)(Ferguson, 2006). Though we need not dwell on this point, yet, a cursory look would be made into the various theories propounded as fundamental causes of the many raging wars in Africa. Three schools of thoughts are examined below:

A school of thought believes that the concept of '**neopatrimonialism**' which characterized African regimes and governments is responsible for the outbreak of wars in Africa (Hutchful & Aning, 2004). According to this group, since leadership has been personalized and operates through patronage rather than through ideology or rule of law, violence becomes institutionalized as part of everyday life. A second school of thought believes that the concept of '**rational choice**' would best explain the senseless warfare in Africa. For this group, "*social action and reaction are closely related to either group or individual calculus based on self-interest and the expectation of gain*" (Hutchful & Aning, 2004). Thus, this concept was used to explain the West African conflicts and that of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

A third school of thought believed that '**economistic rationales**' are responsible for the outbreak of civil wars in Africa. Two major proponents of this school- Paul Collier and Anke Hoeffler- argued that "*economic agendas appear to be central to understanding why civil wars start*", since "*conflicts are far more likely to be caused by economic opportunities than by grievance*" (Collier & Hoeffler, 2004).

Though there have been several arguments for and against all the aforementioned theories, yet, what is certain is that these theories hold some basic truths as far as conflicts in Africa is concern. This research however, takes a broader look at other causes of wars in Africa. Some of these broader causes can be located in the above theories.

Causes of Political Unrest in Africa

Five causes of wars have been identified for the purpose of this research. These are ethnic/tribal leanings, religion, resource control, corrupt leadership and collapse of the Soviet Union (USSR). These are examined lucidly below.

Ethnic/tribal leanings

Asiwaju has observed that Africa is a land of peoples with diverse ethno-cultural background (Asiwaju, 1985). The Berlin Conference of 1885 had only succeeded in piecing out these vast lands among the various European super powers without a thought for the geographical and cultural composition of Africans (Asiwaju, 1985). Hence, artificial unity was created in the evolving Nations that emerged. Moreover, in order to ensure that the colonial system succeeds, European colonial masters had tacitly encouraged tribal nationalism to the detriment of true unity among Africans (Olasupo, Oladeji, & Ijeoma, 2017). Consequently, tribal cum ethnic loyalty superseded national unity among the various Africans in the different countries. In view of this, African states have often been run along the lines of ethnic consideration, which often leads to disaffection, discontent and at times, full blown wars. The Rwandan and Burundian crises were classical examples of ethnic wars.

Religion

The practitioners of the two dominant religions in Africa-Islam and Christianity- have also occasioned upheavals in some part of Africa.

Though this factor is not common, yet, pockets of crises have been witnessed that have religious undertones. Intolerance and the quest for superiority among the adherents of these two religions have thrown some countries into confusion and crises. The Sudanese war, though not pronounced, have religious undertone as the Arabs in the predominantly Muslim north have been accused of trying to lord it over the Blacks in the predominantly Christian south. Also, Nigeria has been on the brink of total outbreak of hostilities on several occasions because of religious crises involving Muslims and Christians.

Resource control

Perhaps by far the commonest cause of civil hostilities in Africa, the quest for economic advantage by one group over another, has resulted in wars in several African countries. Africa, though largely underdeveloped, is nonetheless a land rich in human and natural resources. It was this factor that attracted the colonial masters to this continent, and even now with the exit of the colonialists, the abundant natural resources have continued to cause disintegration and disharmony among Africans. It is on account of this that some writers have described African natural resources as a curse rather than a blessing to Africans (Henri, 2019). The Sudanese, Liberian and Sierra-Leonean crises are examples and the Niger Delta crisis in Nigeria.

Corrupt leadership

There has been a general consensus among scholars of African History and Politics that the root of underdevelopment and much of the problems being encountered in Africa is as a result of 'bad leadership' (Adedeji, 1999). For all its natural endowments, Africans have never been able to demonstrate a high sense of organization and responsibility. Most of the leaders are greedy, corrupt and power drunk. The resultant effect is that rather than moving forward, African countries have constantly continued on a backward motion, no thanks to its myriads of sit tight and corrupt leaders. For this reason, there have been several coups and change of governments, yet often times, the new government becomes even more corrupt than the former. The crises in the West

African countries were largely begun to chase out corrupt leaders from the seat of power.

Collapse of the Soviet Union

Some scholars have affirmed that the end of the cold war and the eventual collapse of the USSR are responsible for the weakening of central political authority in several African countries in the post-cold war years (Sesay, 2003). It is argued that as the Soviet Union collapsed, the super powers moved out of Africa and attention were shifted from Africa to the rebuilding of the former constituent states of the USSR. To this end the military and economic aids that have ensured power balance in Africa, were no longer available and hence, the center could no longer hold.

Consequences of Political Unrest in Africa

The political upheavals recorded had grave consequences for Africans and for the development of Africa. These consequences could be seen in the economic, social and cultural sphere.

a. Economic consequences: Political unrest led to the stagnation or outright retardation of African economies. Since turmoil leaves no room for the execution of any meaningful productive activity, economic lives are stagnated as people struggle to escape to safety with their lives. The cessation of economic activities results in negative consequence for many Nation. This has been the experience in all African Nations contending with civil or political unrest. Nigeria has also the same experience with the Niger Delta crisis that almost paralyzed her 'oil-based' economy.

b. Social consequences: Socially, wars destabilized any group of people. Fear and distrust reign supreme as people who were hitherto neighbors and friends no longer trust each other. In Africa, ethnic genocide such as was recorded in Rwanda and Burundi, have left bitter taste of hatred among people who once lived together and socialized together. Also, in Liberia, the civil wars had ethnic undertones which only served to severe whatever strands of unity that once existed in the country. As these countries attempt to rebuild the ruins of their devastated Nations, lots of campaigns were put together for the purpose of cohesion and social

understanding among the various groups within the countries. These, it is hoped, would help to further strengthen whatever bond of unity that had survived the senseless carnages.

c. Cultural consequences: Wars often leads to the destruction of civilizations. During wars, wanton destruction of properties and lives are the norms. Often times, cultural masterpieces and century reference points are senselessly destroyed in order to inflict the maximum pain on warring sides. Furthermore, a complex web of refugees is woven in a war situation. Displaced peoples, who were lucky enough to escape with their lives, seek refuge in neighboring countries. Often times, this lead to the destabilization of such countries. At times, inhuman treatments are meted out to refugees who are often subjected to all forms of abuse.

The Liberian Crises
Liberia, a country within the West African sub region, was engulfed in a bitter civil war which lasted from 1989 to 2003. However, Liberia as a Nation had been in crises for the greater part of its modern History. The reasons for this could be located in the open rivalry between its indigenous populations and the settlers (the Americo-Liberians) (Johnson, 2020). In order to be able to examine the factors that precipitated the outbreak of civil war in Liberia, it is proper to examine in brief, the origin of modern Liberia.

The foundation of the first African Republic begun in 1822 when the abolition of the notorious slave trade led to the emancipation of several African slaves in the United States of America. The freed ex-slaves were fast becoming undesirable elements in the American society and this became a growing concern to some notable Americans who consequently formed the American Colonization Society (ACS) (Longley, 2020). As Longley rightly observed, the ACS was able to acquire land in Africa for the purpose of settling the freed slaves in America. Their search for land for the purpose of resettlement led them to an area around the present day Liberia, where they 'forcefully' purchased some parcel of land from the indigenous people (Longley, 2020). Subsequently, about 88

freed Black emigrants were settled on the newly purchased land, while a handful of white Americans from the ACS served as administrators of the colony (Longley, 2020). These figure swelled as more freed slaves joined the settlements.

However, from inception, there were serious attacks against the new settlements from the indigenous peoples who were believed to have migrated to the area between the 12th and 16th century AD (Ojo & Agbude, 2012). The Manes, the Vais, the Krus and the Glebos; were all ethnic groups that preceded the Americo Liberians in taking up settlements in present day Liberia (Ojo & Agbude, 2012). These groups were dismayed at the way the new settlement was growing in leaps and bounds and they were determined to halt the growth and retrieve their lands from the American settlers.

In spite of such stiff oppositions from the local inhabitants, and the unfriendly climate which claimed the lives of several of the settlers; the new settlers survived against all odds and formed the leadership nucleus of the emerging Republic. As the colony expanded and became more self-sufficient, the white administrators from the ACS handed over the control of the colony to the Americo-Liberians. Thus, in 1841, J.J. Roberts became the first black governor of Liberia. In 1847, Roberts proclaimed the colony the free and independent republic of Liberia and a Constitution was drawn up along the lines of the United States', denying voting rights to the indigenous Liberians (Jeremy, 2005).

This development laid the foundation for a turbulent future for the first African Republic. The ethnic contention that was later to consume the entire Nation in a volatile furnace of violence and hatred started in the early years when a sort of racism against the indigenous populations was perpetrated by the Americo-Liberians.

Origin and Actors in the Liberian Crises
As mentioned earlier, with the inception of the rule of the Americo-Liberians in 1847, the stage had been set for the eventual violent conflict to unfold in the 20th Century. As opined by Sesay, the Americo-Liberians represented a mere 5% of the entire

population, yet, they controlled both the political and economic power of the entire country in an exclusionist style (Sesay A. , 1992). Between 1847 and 1980 (when Samuel Doe seized power through a bloody coup d'état), 19 presidents had ruled Liberia and all were of Americo-Liberian extraction. The indigenous populations were excluded from every form of power and prestigious position. In fact, the policy of governance before the 1940s was simply racist as separate laws were enacted for the indigenous populations and the Americo-Liberians (Sesay A. , 1992).

Coupled with the above was the corruption and opulent lifestyle of the ruling class. Liberia, though a tiny country, was very rich in rubber, timber, iron ore, gold and diamonds. In fact, it boasted of the world largest rubber plantation and was courted by American giant 'Firestone' since 1926 (George, 2016). Proceeds from the sale of extraction and exportation of all these resources never resulted into a better standard of life for the indigenous peoples who formed the bulk of the unskilled workers in the extractive industry. Rather, the elites strategically placed themselves and their children in key positions within the Country's flourishing industries and spend money lavishly without any thought for the masses.

Furthermore, political domination by the True Whig Party (TWP), which was the ruling party since 1878, proved unpalatable for the indigenous people. The TWP was essentially an exclusive party of the Americo-Liberians, for the Americo-Liberians and by the Americo-Liberians. It was '*a club of individuals who were prepared to uphold and advance the privileges enjoyed by the minority Americo-Liberians*' (Sesay A. , 1992). All efforts made by some spirited indigenous elite, to set up an opposition party that will compete with the TWP, proved unsuccessful till 1973 when the Pan African Organization was founded. Thus, the TWP became the longest ruling party ever in modern African Political History, ruling in Liberia for more than a century (1878-1980).

The entire scenario above led to domestic socio-economic inequalities in Liberia. This is because in spite of the apparent wealth of the Country, only 2% Americo-Liberians had access to, and controlled about 60% of the Nation's wealth (Sesay A. , 1992). Re-acting to

this shocking situation of things in Liberia, the American Secretary of State -Henry Kissinger- described the Country during a State visit in 1976, as "depressing, appalling slum" (Adekeye, 2002). Thus, the last two TWP presidents –Tubman and Tolbert- were key factors in the eventual overthrow of the TWP and the Americo-Liberian hegemony.

William Tubman was Liberia's President from 1944 to 1971. During his presidency, some of the more repressive laws and policies that had been in existence in the Country were either reformed or repealed. He did try to narrow the gap between the indigenous populace and the Americo-Liberians by some reforms which he put in place. For instance, in 1964, the Liberian hinterland was for the first time represented in the Country's legislature. Prior to this time, indigenous Liberians could only 'observe' proceedings of the National Legislature, upon the payment of $100. With his observer status, indigenous Liberians had no voting rights.

His reforms, notwithstanding, Tubman's regime were still principally an authoritarian and coercive administration. He was able to use the political apparatus in place to consolidate the powers of the presidency, so much so that the other arms of government, namely, the Senate, House of Representatives and the Judiciary; were all 'mere rubber stamps of the president'. He was reported to have personalized government to the extent that 'checks worth $25 and above had to be personally signed by him' (Sesay A. , 1992). Tubman remained unchallenged for the entire duration of his long reign, due primarily to his effective use of some powerful security agencies, like the National Bureau of Investigation (NBI), Special Security Service (SSS) and the National Intelligence and Security Service (NISS); to silence all oppositions.

Towards the end of Tubman's presidency, the political consciousness of indigenous Liberians had been awakened and a deep yearning for positive changes had already set in. Thus, when Tolbert took over the rein of governance at the death of Tubman in 1971, the cloud of change was brewing steadily and threateningly. Needless to say, Tolbert continued with the traditional policy of the ruling class. Though, he as well tried to effect

some positive changes in the lives of the indigenous Liberians. For instance, in 1977, Tolbert ordered salary increases for the unskilled and industrial laborers in the Country, to ameliorate their living conditions (George, 2016). This was not enough however, to silence the growing opposition to the TWP and the Americo-Liberians. The excesses of the Multinational Corporations (MNCs) and the enormous capital flight out of Liberia made the indigenous elites to call for an urgent review of policies, a call that was both opposed and unwelcomed. The MNCs were particularly notorious as they bluntly refused to re-invest their profits in Liberia. Hence, Liberia's economic condition continued to worsened, even as the MNCs continued to declare huge profit (Uneh, 2018).

Tolbert was also guilty of using his family members extensively in the governance of the country. Sensitive positions were occupied solely by his blood relatives. For instance, the Minister of Finance and the president of the Senate were his younger and elder brothers respectively; while his two daughters were deputy ministers in the ministry of Education. With this kind of situation, the fast growing Liberian indigenous, educated elites became the core critics of the government and the educators of the masses. Consequently, when the price of rice (a staple food in Liberia) was increased, the ensuing riots and Tolbert's reaction towards the riot became the fulcrum for the launching of the populace distaste for the Americo-Liberian hegemony.

The Liberian economy before and during the civil war

The immediate and most notorious factor in the outbreak of civil hostilities in Liberia was President Samuel Doe, who seized power from Tolbert in a bloody military coup on the 12th of April, 1980 (Jeremy, 2005). The advent of Master sergeant Samuel Doe as the new military leader of Liberia was greeted with so much excitement by the indigenous populace in Liberia. No doubt, several years of corrupt and discriminatory leadership by the Americo-Liberian ruling class provided the backdrop for this coup and the popularity it enjoyed among the masses (Mariam, 2020).

Mariam further mentioned that on Samuel Doe ascension to power he promised to change the fortunes of Liberia for the better, by eliminating corruption and wastefulness (Mariam, 2020). However, as with most promising African governments, the new government soon got itself enmeshed in the mire of the incumbent. Its own corruption in no time surpassed that of the TWP. Coupled with all these was the ruthlessness with which Doe crushed every opposition to his policies and governments. Liberians soon grew weary of this brutal dictator and calls for democratically elected government filled every nook and cranny of Liberia. Seeing that he no longer enjoyed the support of the masses at home and the international community, Doe transformed himself from a military dictator to a civilian president to the utter chagrin of all. Yet, Liberia's fortunes continue to dwindle in every sphere of human endeavor.

On the economic front, Doe was a complete disaster for Liberia. He was unable to re-negotiate with the multinational corporations, who continued to milk Liberia dry. Instead, more than ever before, Liberia relied heavily on financial aid from Washington for its survival. The global recession that gripped the world during Doe's administration was also unhelpful to Liberia. The resultant effect was that iron ore, rubber and shipping-Liberia's three chief exports- were adversely affected. Also, local agricultural production declined at an alarming rate while importation of rice- a staple food- increased greatly from 42,000 metric tons in 1974 to 126,000 metric tons in 1983. Decline also continually set in for Liberia's gross domestic product, so much so that by 1986, its external debt stood at $1.5 billion (Adekeye, 2002).

The Liberian economy under Doe was sustained by aids from the United States. In 1984, $5 million worth of economic assistance was given by the latter while at the same time assisting in the payment of teachers' salaries. By the end of that same year, US private investments in Liberia had reached a record $5 billion. By 1986, US aid to Liberia totaled $90 million, while $11 million was given for food assistance and $4.7 million for military aid (Sirleaf, 2011).

All these assistance were pouring all over Liberia as the cold war intensified. However, with the end of the cold war, US aid to Africa

reduced drastically as other global regions became the focal point of America's diplomacy. The refusal of the IMF and the World Bank to allow Liberia access to its credit facilities and the stoppage of the US military assistance in 1989; all put Liberia's economy on the brink of total collapse. Further research shows that Liberian economy has been going through an average annual negative growth rate of about 5%, with at least a 40% decline in the living standards of Liberians (Lester, 2020). In addition to the economic disaster, Doe's policy of bloody elimination of oppositions, made a political crisis almost inevitable in Liberia.

Civil hostilities broke out on the 24th of December, 1989, when the Charles Taylor led NPFL rebel group entered Liberia. This war further aggravated the already deteriorated economic condition of Liberia. Since the Liberian economy was an agrarian and mining dependent one, boasting for about 70% of the country's workforce, the collapse of global markets for these products led to further rise in the cost of living, coupled with a ' *ridiculously high rate of inflation that eroded the parity once enjoyed by the Liberian Dollar vis-à-vis the US Dollar*.' During this civil war period, the average income of civil servants in Liberia fell to only about US$5 a month from about US$200 in the pre-war years (Sesay A. , 2003).

The Liberian Dollars before and during the civil war

From 1847 when Liberia declared its independence, the government issued the Liberian dollars (L$) for the conduct of economic transactions. The issued denominations were copper 1 and 2. By 1896, full coinage, consisting of 1, 2, 10, 25 and 50 cents coins was introduced into Liberia. These sets were further complimented in 1937 with the introduction of another set of ½, 1 and 2 cents. In 1943 however, the United States' dollars (US$) was introduced into the Liberian economy and had since been used side by side with the Liberian dollars (George, 2016).

By the turn of 1960, the set of Liberian dollar (L$) coins in circulation in 1937 were complimented by new 1, 5, 10, 25 and 50 cents; and 1 Liberian dollar note (L$1.00) (Lodewyk, Jules, & Jeta, 2009). The military junta under Samuel Doe in 1982 introduced

the Liberian five dollar coin. This coin was quite weighty, hence its withdrawal by the government of Charles Taylor and subsequent replacement with the "J J Roberts" banknotes. As the civil war rounds up, it was obvious to the discerning mind that the integrity of the Liberian dollar had been negatively affected. Consequent upon this, the interim government of National Unity (IGNU) under Amos Sawyer, decided in 1992 to withdraw the 'JJ Roberts' banknotes from circulation and introduced the 'Liberty' banknotes (Lester, 2020).

However, the above decision was kicked against by the political opposition led by Charles Taylor, who at this time controlled large part of the country outside the capital, and insisted on using the 'JJ Roberts' in his own controlled territories. As a result, the country had two national currencies and the American dollars in circulation.

Currently, the national currency in circulation known as the 'Unity' banknotes, was introduced into the economy in the year 2000, replacing both the 'JJ Roberts' and the 'Liberty' banknotes. It comes in denominations of 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 Liberian dollar notes; with coins in 0.05, 0.10, 0.25, 0.50 and 1 Liberian dollar coins. (A study on the currency regime options for Liberia; Dual, Dollarization and National: 2008). The Central Bank Act of March 18, 1999, legalized both the 'Unity' banknotes and the US dollars as media of exchange in Liberia (Lodewyk, Jules, & Jeta, 2009).

Recent development in Liberia indicates that the Nation is gradually coming out of the ruins of a protracted civil war that started in 1989 and ended in 2003. In the inter war years, the Country witnessed a period of serious and devastating decline in the economic, financial and social sectors. During this period, it was apparent that about 80% of Liberians lived below the universally established poverty level of 1 US dollar per day. This was revealed in a poverty profile study on Liberia which states that "Poor households in Liberia live approximately on US $11.32 per month to feed an average of six people. This means that a typical poor household lives on a daily amount less than US $0.50 per day. More than two thirds of that income is spent on providing food for the family with little or nothing for

basic education, healthcare and leisure" (Lodewyk, Jules, & Jeta, 2009).

The Liberian dollar (L$) which at the initial stage had a parity rate of ratio 1:1 to the American dollar, received an enormous bashing during the inter war years. This has resulted in a grave deterioration such that by November, 2003, the parity rate to the US dollar was L$52: US$1. Ever since, the value of the L$ had continued to slide down steadily; L$56.75 per US$ and LS$59.50 per US dollar at the end of March and June 2006 respectively. At the moment, US$1 is equals to L$ 171.444.

CONCLUSION

From the inception of Liberia as a Nation up to the inter war years, the Liberian dollar has become an object of target by various governments to legitimize their power and control in the country. This explains why it has to undergo various changes in terms of features, value and acceptability under the successive governments in Liberia.

The civil war had a devastating consequence on the value of the Liberian dollar. As part of efforts to restore the value after the end of hostility, the Liberian government adopted the dual dollarization policy, whereby Liberian dollars was circulated side by side with the American dollars. The adoption of dual currency management is common to war torn countries, as a saving mechanism for the value of their national currencies. In the case of Liberia, the adoption of dual currency has not helped, rather, the L$ is being gradually eclipsed by the US$. This is so because the rate of exchange is ever tilting in favor of the latter.

Available records have also shown that the L$ is mostly used for trading in the interior part of the country, while the US$ is used for transactions within Monrovia and other major cities in Liberia. However, with the large US$ in circulation, the Liberian economy during the period under review become a viable leeway for money laundering in West Africa.

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REVISITING MILITARY COUPS IN POST-INDEPENDENCE WEST AFRICA:ANALYSIS OF AN UGLY HARVEST

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Abstract

The paper seeks to analyse ugly harvest of military coups and counter coups shortly after when majority of the countries in West Africa broke loose from white domination. Unarguably, the period 1957-1960 witnessed many of the countries in West Africa sub-region attained political independence from the colonial masters. Thereafter, the dire need for an integrated and classless society was one of paramount concern to majority of them. As the paper argues, with the passage of time, the educated class dominated and controlled the political landscape of their respective countries. The educated elites representing their countries' leadership with inherent authority over the military more often made use of the armed forces for the intended purpose for which they were established. Thus, because the military were being used by politicians as an instrument of fear against their own citizens coupled with political misrule, the military began to seize and control state power through military coup d'états. Also, there were disagreements and dissatisfactions within the ranks and file of the military which led to counter-coups and even civil wars. The paper adopts the descriptive and analytical method of historical reconstruction as the framework of analysis to argue further that from 1960 till year 2004, close to about sixteen West African states have experienced forty-four successful military-led coups, while forty-three coups stands as bloody failed coups, at least eighty-two coup plots were recorded including other forms of political conflict. The emerging conclusion is that due to incessant coups and counter coups, the sub-region's social-economic and political institutions have been devastated for several decades that till date many of the countries are yet to recover from such devastating blow.

Keywords: Military coups, West Africa, Political, Countries

Introduction

Over the past several decades, military coups have been a common occurrence in Africa and West Africa in particular. Studies have shown that 15 of the 16countries that make up West Africa have, in one way or another, experienced military coups d'état (Decalo, 1976; George, 1999, Kieh & Peter, 2004, & Alex, 2010). Most of the coups have emanated from the military officer corps. This has not only raised more questions than answers as it relates to the competence and commitment of the military in general and the officer's corps in particular, but has also had a negative impact on the social-economic development of the sub-region. The impact of this phenomenon is quite disturbing in many ways. There have been coups and counter-coups that have fuelled civil wars in countries such as Liberia and Sierra Leone. In Liberia for example, the civil war lasted for over a decade

and cost the lives of over a quarter million people. The consequences of these civil wars were devastating; the two countries were on the brink of becoming failed states. Without analyzing the impact of the many military coups, one can clearly ascertain that the immediate and perhaps the most dangerous consequence left behind by these brutal civil wars was 'brain drain.' of intellectuals and professionals desperately needed to build the countries' social and economic instability. Most of the professionals who could have contributed toward building capacity and establishing viable governance in these ravaged countries sought refuge elsewhere in search of survival and perhaps better lives. Against this background, this paper tends to examine the trends of military coups in West Africa.

Literature Review

It is instructive to note that West Africa stand as one of the most coup-ridden sub-region in the world. The sub-region of West Africa has a population of well over 200 million and an average per capita income of less than $500 excluding three countries; Nigeria, simply because of its large oil deposits, Ghana whose government has established great economic and fiscal policies, as well as Cote d'Ivoire, which is the world's leading producer of cocoa beans. Put succinctly, majority member markets of ECOWAS are too small and have weak governments that are not capable enough to capitalize on their countries' potential for industrial development and political growth without harnessing their efforts to the wider sub-region.

Far more importantly, first three post-independence decades of West Africa have been nothing to write home about. Military coups d'état, political autocracy, grinding poverty, massive corruption, and foreign meddling have all usurped the dreams of an economically integrated and politically united West Africa into a living nightmare for most of its populace (Infoplease.com). Adebajo (2002, p.39) expresses that countries such as Liberia, Sierra Leone, and Guinea-Bissau, in the hardy post-independence years of the 1960s, leaders like Kwame N'krumah, Sekou Toure, Abubakar Tafawa Balawa, FelixHouphouet-Boigny, Leopard Sedar Senghor, Modibo Keita, Sylvanus Olympio, and Siaka Stevens bestrode the West African landscape like titans. This was one of the main reasons why the spirit of dictatorship and autocracy was so endemic to Africa. Majority of the politicians who fought during the independence movements in West Africa felt that they should sit on the highest point of politics. This was the case with Liberia and the freed slaves or Americo-Liberians in the early 19th century who settled in Liberia. (Prose) Americo-Liberians did not consider themselves as indigenous Liberians and therefore believed that they could not share political powers with the Liberian aborigines. Invariably, Liberia was ruled by a single party formed along ethnic and tribal Lines from 1847 to 1980. Due to the autocratic nature of most of the post-independence leaders of West Africa, the conscript militaries began to find cracks in their regimes and took advantage seizing political power through military coups d'état. Military coups, often involving assassinations, toppled potentates like Kwame N'krumah, Balawa, and Olympio, and were envisioned as West Africa's "men on horseback," the military made dramatic entries onto the political stage.

Adebajo argued further that neither the military nor the politicians were able to rise to the daunting challenge of building nations out of poor states that had been ill prepared for independence by their departing colonial overlords (Decalo, 1990). Most people in West Africa were truly yearning to catch the precious breath of independence but they were not sincerely prepared to handle the tasks that accompanied it. Conventional scholarship on African militaries tends to focus almost exclusively on the causes of military coups, civil-military relations (or lack thereof), and the developmental roles of the military and its disassociation with politics. However, a variety of narratives, for example, attributes military coups to the low levels of professionalism and political institutionalization (Kandeh, 2004, p.13). Typical of this approach are studies by Samuel Huntington, Amos Perl Mutter, and Samuel Finer, which earlier extolled the virtues of militaries in politics. While it is often viewed as a statement of fact, that education drives away barbarism, these beliefs sometimes failed the litmus test. Most of the military coups d'état in West Africa emanated from the officer corps. More often than not, following colonialism in West Africa, the military officers' corps received most of its advanced education and training from its eventual allied partners, thus, the concept of professional militaries was established. What was lacking, however, was education and training in the realm of civil-military relations, where military officers were trained to understand the notion of civil control of the military. Clearly, this fundamental aspect of a professional military in a free, democratic society was lacking.

West African Countries: An Overview

West Africa consists of sixteen countries that cover a total area of about 6.5 million square kilometers; roughly the same area as the contiguous United States of American (USA) minus Texas. The total population of the sub-

region is around 250million people, giving an average density of just 38 people per square kilometer; a little higher than the USA, but way below European or Asian average. Of the total population of West Africa, the Federal Republic of Nigeria makes up nearly half with a population of 120 million. Most West Africans obtain their living from subsistence farming. The region has few exports: oil is the principle revenue-earner for Nigeria; cocoa and gold are the major exporting commodities of Ghana; several countries have phosphate resources; Mali, Burkina Faso and, Benin rely on the cotton crop; and Niger has uranium. Diamonds are one of the sensitive natural resources of West Africa. Liberia and Sierra Leone are the primary producers. The commodity is termed sensitive because the nearly two decades of civil unrest within the Mano River Basin was centered on "Blood Diamonds"- illegal diamonds whose proceeds fund conflicts (Trillo, 2008).

With the exception of Mauritania, whose government withdrew from the organization in 2000, all of the countries mentioned above are members of the sub-regional organization called the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) which dates from the 1975 Lagos Treaty. West Africa is oriented west of an imagined north south axis lying close to ten degrees east longitude. The Atlantic Ocean forms the western and southern borders of the region. The northern border is the Sahara Desert, with the Niger Bend generally considered the northwestern most part of the region. The eastern border is less precise, with some placing it at the Benue Trough, and others on a line running from Mount Cameroon to Lake Chad (Jean Marie, Sahel & Serge, 1998, p.23).

The current situation in West Africa is the combination of various social, political and economic factors that need much, if not urgent, attention. Harsh economic and social conditions, widespread corruption, conflict and post-conflict scenarios, failing national administrations, and a growing culture of impunity feed the development of criminal practices and mark the West African region as a haven for international criminal ventures. Most countries' leadership are not willing to enact or implement legislations that will protect the economies or its integrity both at home and abroad. Still, in spite of these conditions, hope exists.

West African Countries

COUNTRY	CAPITAL CITY	DATE OF INDEPENDENCE	POPULATION	LAND AREA	COLONIAL MASTER	OFFICIAL LANGUAGES
Benin	Porto-Novo	1 August 1960	9.2 million	42,000 sq. m	France	French
Burkina-Faso	Ouagadougou	5 September 1960	16 million	105,900 sq. m	France	French
Cape Verde	Praia	5 July 1975	567,000	1,500 sq. m	Portugal	Portuguese
Cote d'Ivoire	Abidjan	5 August 1960	20.6 million	124.503 sq ,m.	France	French
The Gambia	Banjul	18 February 1965	1.7 million	3,980 sq m	Great Britain	English
Ghana	Accra	6 March 1957	24.2 million	92,100 sq m	Great Britain	English
Guinea	Conakry	2 October 1958	10 million	94,980 sq. m	France	French
Guinea-Bissau	Bissau	10 October 1974	1.6 million	13,948 sq m	Portugal	Portuguese
Liberia	Monrovia	26 July 1847	3.5 million	43,000 sq m	None	English
Mali	Bumako	22 Sept. 1960	3.3 million	478.839 sq. m	France	French
Mauritania	Nouakochott	28 Nov. 1960	3.3 million	397,954 sq. m	France	French & Arabic
Niger	Niamey	3 August 1960	15.3 million	489,698 sq m	France	French
Nigeria	Abuja	1 October 1960	152 million	356,667 sq m.	Great Britain	English
Senegal	Dakar	4 April 1960	13.7 million	76,000 sq. m	France	French
Sierra Leone	Freetown	27 April 1961	6.4 million	27,699 sq m.	Great Britain	English
Togo	Lome	27 April 1960	6.6 million	22,000 sq. m	France	French

Source: Created by author using data from: Adekaye Adebajo and Ismail O. D. Rashid, West Africa's Security Challenges: Building Peace in a Troubled Region (Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publisher Inc., 2004), p.148 Central Intelligence Agency, World Factbook, https://www.civ.gov/library/pub (14th August, 2021)

The Sixteen Countries of West Africa

Source: United Nations Development Report, "Political Map of West Africa," http://www.bing.com/images/search?q=map+of+west+Africa&view (Accessed 16th August, 2021).

Background Setting

With the advent of independence in the late 50's and early 60's euphoria and new hopes swept through West Africa as nation after nation attained self-government. There were new dreams and expectations as the colonial masters packed their bags and handed over the instruments of power to the indigenous peoples. To most West Africans this was the end of a long freedom struggle in which so many had suffered. It was the end of slavery, human degradation and exploitation. The wind of change, as Mr. Harold McMillan, a British Prime Minister later called it, started sweeping through the colonial Anglophone and Francophone West Africa in the early 1950's. Suddenly, there was this realization that the sub-continent had to be free from colonial domination and exploitation. Blowing through West Africa just like the rest of Africa was a new fervour for revolt and nationalism. The revolt which was mainly spiritual was meant to drive the colonial masters from the African soil; the nationalism to mobilize the masses to

the forefront in a fight for self-determination, liberty and human dignity. The astonishing success of the anti-colonialist crusade in India, led by Mahatma Gandhi was to become a major driving force and a great source of inspiration to African nationalists. India became independent in 1947 (Crowder, 1978).

Pre-independence period
As the spirit of nationalism gained momentum throughout the continent the colonial rulers started accepting realities. Change was inevitable. The various national political parties and their leaders started getting recognition from the colonial administration. Political activities, which previously meant jail, detention or banishment, were now being authorized and licensed under the watchful eye of the police. Nationalists and party leaders could organize and address political rallies so long as they did not engage in anti-government subversion or sabotage. The political organizers during this period were later to emerge as either Heads of State or major political figures in their own countries. There was the fiery Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana, the nationalistic Siaka Stevens of Sierra Leone, Azikiwe and Tafawa Balewa of Nigeria, and the list goes on. All these and others were men who were instrumental in shaping the destinies of their respective countries. In the Anglophone West African countries, the British started easing off control and slowly but gradually relinquishing power by the establishment of interim governments. National elections were held with all the registered political parties being represented. The interim government was then formed with ministers from the majority party, with the party leader becoming the Chief Minister. The entire government was overseen by a British Governor and this was the British idea of 'self-government'. On attaining full independence a prime minister was then appointed and the British officially handed over the instruments of government. This was the time that the colonial flag would go down for the last time and a new national flag hoisted--hoisted for the first time. It was an occasion that was received with much excitement, pride and joy. The day of independence was a day celebrated with much pomp and pageantry and nationwide festivities. This excitement, however, was not to last long as so many

West African countries were to later find out. The colonial military set up was a different issue. On a nationalistic level and from a patriotic standpoint the military was viewed by the indigenous peoples as a bird of a totally different feather.

The colonial legacy left military organizations that were not fully accepted in the African society. During the sensitive days of struggle for freedom and independence the general populace and the local politicians had developed an almost allergic fear and mistrust for soldiers. As very well observed by W.F. Gutteridge (1970), Nationalist politicians saw them as agents of imperial rule suppressing political demonstrations and protecting European property. Though they had won glory by serving overseas in the two world wars, their imperial activities caused them to be regarded in some quarters as armies of occupation or at best as mercenaries in theservice of a foreign power. This impression was assisted by a recruitment policy that preferred subjectively defined 'martial races' or those who were 'worthwhile soldiers'. The ensuing tribal imbalance necessarily made more difficult than it would otherwise have been the army's achievement of national status as an institution. To politicians therefore, the military had no positive role in the process of the freedom struggle and soldiers did not therefore need to be rewarded or accorded any special considerations. It is not surprising as a result that some African leaders preferred to retain expatriate officers to go on commanding predominantly African troops.

The Africanization process was given priority in the areas of civil administration. West Africans took over senior civil servant posts that were previously held by Europeans. This initial failure to Africanize the command hierarchy in the Armed Forces was later to become a major area for concern and a source of military grievances that were to turn catastrophic in most newly independent West African nations.

Post-independence period
At the time of independence in March 1957, Ghana had probably the highest standard of education in the entire black Africa. In spite of this impressive position, however, only a mere 10% of the commissioned officers were local.

The post-independence era found many fledgling West African governments groping in the dark for stability and direction. Soon, many governments found out that the new state of nationhood meant much more than just the creation of a national flag, the composition of a national anthem and the election of a president. The military, which the nationalist politicians had grown to despise and mistrust during the pre-independence era, had to be moulded and blended into this new national image. There were those politicians at the time, of course, who viewed the military as a force or tool to be utilized in subduing political opponents and in projecting personal power across the country. This tendency by politicians to use the military for personal political gain was viewed negatively in professional military circles. It was seen as gross interference of the very fibre that holds the military together-professionalism. Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana probably contributed to his own downfall by his undue meddling in the professional integrity of his army both at home and abroad. A case in point, was when President Nkrumah made the decision to send Ghanaians to the Congo in 1960 as part of the UN contingent. On several occasions Nkrumah issued his own instructions to the Ghana contingent, and in the process contradicting what had already been issued by the United Nations Command. This practice frustrated the Ghanaian soldiers who saw it as an unnecessary intrusion of their professional responsibilities.

The newly independent West African nations took over what were essentially colonial armies. In the majority of the cases the army was relatively small and ill-equipped. One major priority was to eliminate the colonial mentality that existed in the military by giving the armed forces a more national outlook. This obviously called for instituting clearly visible changes. The uniforms had to be redesigned to reflect a more national character. The names of the regiments, the names of the barracks and even the tunes of martial music had all to be modified to identify with the new nation. As pointed out earlier, there existed a noticeable tribal imbalance in the national make-up of the military as a result of the colonialists' belief in 'martial tribes' or natural warriors. "Preference for a culture and the recruitment of speakers of a language that discouraged literacy in Western technology and education, produced the legacy of an educational and technological vacuum in the army, and helped to spawn serious political consequences in the polity after colonialism" (Gutteridge 1970). In order to rectify this situation recruitment had to be conducted on a national scale with every tribe represented, on a pro rata basis, according to the known population figures at the time. Only in this way could tribal tension and rivalry be minimized. It was humanly impracticable, certainly, to totally eradicate tribalism due the ethnic customs and traditions so permanently intra-woven in African society. This inherent African character of tribalism that is so much imbedded in local culture is a potentially explosive social phenomenon that was later to cause civil war in Nigeria.

As the military was struggling to attain a national character in order to gain national acceptance, the politicians were becoming more self-seeking, power-hungry and ambitious. Some were out seeking instant wealth for themselves, their friends and relatives. Nepotism became rampant, commonplace and a norm. Others were out experimenting on new and foreign ideologies in the name of African socialism. These were ideologies that had no bearing or relevance to the improvement of the lives of the ordinary man. Some of these governments started openly courting the Eastern bloc for advice and guidance. It did not take the ordinary citizens long to realize that these so-called progressive governments were not delivering the goods fast enough. Corruption had become an accepted way of life. Mismanagement of the economy coupled with sheer incompetence had led to runaway inflation and unaffordable prices. Unemployment and crime rates were on the increase. Yet the greedy get-rich quick politicians continued getting richer. These were the kind of situations to be found in Ghana, Nigeria, Guinea and other countries when their governments fell to the military. In the majority of the coups that have occurred, the military has deemed it a national and patriotic obligation to rescue the country from total collapse and thereby restore lost national prestige. Although these coups d'état have been executed in the guise of national interest

and patriotic duty, more often than not, military regimes have turned out to be more corrupt, oppressive and downright inefficient than the civilian governments they deposed.

Harvest of Coups

The period between 1960 and 1970 and slightly beyond has generally been called the decade of coups' in Africa. Once coups started in West Africa they became like a wild African bushfire. They swept through the entire subcontinent at an alarmingly high speed. They leapt through national borders as if those boundaries did not exist anymore. The scoreboard read something like this:

Military Coups

S/N	COUNTRY	YEAR/DATE OF COUPS	OFFICERS INVOLVED
1.	BENIN	1963-Oct. 28 1965-Nov. 27 1967-Dec. 16 1972-Oct 26	Christophe Soglo overthrows Hubert Maga Christophe Soglo overthrows Sourou-Migan Apithy Maurice Kouandété overthrows Christophe Soglo Mathieu Kérékou overthrows Justin Ahomadégbé-Tomêtin
2,	BURKINA FASO	1966–Jan 3rd 1980–Nov 25th 1982–Nov 7th 1983–Aug 4th 1987–Oct 15th	Sangoulé Lamizana overthrows Maurice Yaméogo Saye Zerbo overthrows Sangoulé Lamizana Jean-Baptiste Ouédraogo overthrows Saye Zerbo Thomas Sankara and Blaise Compaoré overthrow Jean-Baptiste Ouédraogo Blaise Compaoré overthrows Thomas Sankara
3	CHAD	1975–Apr 13th 1982–Jun 7th 1990–Dec 1st	Noël Milarew Odingar overthrows François Tombalbaye Hissène Habré overthrows Goukouni Oueddei Idriss Déby overthrows Hissène Habré
4.	CÔTE D'IVOIRE	1999–Dec 24th 2011-Apr 11th	Robert Guéï overthrows Henri Konan Bédié Alassane Ouattara overthrows Laurent Gbagbo
5.	GAMBIA	1994–Jul 22nd	Yahya Jammeh overthrows Dawda Jawara
6.	GHANA	1966–Feb 24 1972–Jan 13 1978–Jul 5 1979–Jun 4 1981–Dec 31	Joseph Arthur Ankrah overthrows Kwame Nkrumah Ignatius Kutu Acheampong overthrows Kofi Abrefa Busia Fred Akuffo overthrows Ignatius Kutu Acheampong Jerry John Rawlings overthrows Fred Akuffo Jerry John Rawlings overthrows Hilla Limann
7.	GUINEA	1984–Apr 3 2008–Dec 24	Lansana Conté overthrows Louis Lansana Beavogui Moussa Dadis Camara overthrows Aboubacar Sompare
8.	GUINEA-BISSAU	1980–Nov 14 1999–May 7 2003–Sep 14 2012-April 12	João Bernardo Vieira overthrows Luís Cabral Ansumane Mané overthrows João Bernardo Vieira Veríssimo Correia Seabra overthrows Kumba Iala Army overthrows the government.
9	LIBERIA	1980–Apr 12 1990–Sep 9	Staff Sergeant Samuel K. Doe overthrows President William R. Tolbert, Jr. Prince Johnson overthrows President Samuel K. Doe
10.	MALI	1968–Nov 19	Moussa Traoré overthrows Modibo Keita

		1991–Mar 26	Amadou Toumani Touré overthrows Moussa Traoré
		2012-Mar 22	Military overthrows Amadou Toumani Touré
11.	MAURITANIA	1978–Jul 10	Mustafa Ould Salek overthrows Moktar Ould Daddah
		1979–Apr 6	Ahmad Ould Bouceif and Mohamed Khouna Ould Haidallah overthrow Mustafa Ould Salek
		1980–Jan 4	
		1984–Dec 12	Mohamed Khouna Ould Haidallah overthrows Mohamed Mahmoud Ould Louly
		2005–Aug 3	Maaouya Ould Sid'Ahmed Taya overthrows Mohamed Khouna Ould Haidallah
		2008–Aug 6	Ely Ould Mohamed Vall overthrows Maaouya Ould Sid'Ahmed Taya
			Mohamed Ould Abdel Aziz overthrows Sidi Ould Cheikh Abdallahi
12	NIGER	1974–Apr 15	Seyni Kountché overthrows Hamani Diori
		1996–Jan 27	Ibrahim Baré Maïnassara overthrows Mahamane Ousmane
		1999–Apr 9	Daouda Malam Wanke overthrows Ibrahim Baré Maïnassara
		2010–Feb 18	Salou Djibo overthrows Mamadou Tandja
13.	NIGERIA	1966–Jan 15	Chukwuma Kaduna Nzeogwu overthrows Abubakar Tafawa Balewa
		1966–Jul 29	Yakubu Gowon overthrows Johnson Aguiyi-Ironsi
		1975–Jul 29	Murtala Mohammed overthrows Yakubu Gowon
		1983–Dec 31	Muhammadu Buhari overthrows Shehu Shagari
		1985–Aug 27	Ibrahim Babangida overthrows Muhammadu Buhari
		1993–Nov 17	Sani Abacha overthrows Ernest Shonekan
14.	SÃO TOMÉ AND PRÍNCIPE	1995–Aug 15	Manuel Quintas de Almeida overthrows Miguel Trovoada for 6 days
		2003–Jul 16	Fernando Pereira (major) overthrows Fradique de Menezes for 7 days
15.	SIERRA LEONE	1967–Mar 21	1967–Mar 21
		1968–Apr 19	1968–Apr 19
		1992–Apr 29	1992–Apr 29
		1996–Jan 16	1996–Jan 16
		1997–May 25	1997–May 25
		1998–Feb 12	1998–Feb 12
16.	TOGO	1963–Jan 13	Étienne Eyadéma and Emmanuel Bodjolle overthrow Sylvanus Olympio
		1967–Jan 13	Étienne Eyadéma and Kléber Dadjo overthrow Nicolas Grunitzky

*Compiled by the author (August, 2021).

Trends in West Africa
By 1985, approximately half of the sub-continent's states were led by military or civil-military governments. Other states also had records of predatory attacks by their military forces (Decalo, 1976). No doubt, the coup d'état and the military regime have become the most prevalent political phenomena in West Africa just like in the rest of the continent. In an effort to justify the overthrow

of the government one African officer is reputed to have claimed that a military take over and rule by officers never constitutes a revolution in tropical Africa but rather a limited modification of existing arrangements. This reasoning tends to border on naivety. What then has led to such an apparently endless spate of coups? Looking at the entire sub-continent, there appears to emerge some causes that share general commonality in the majority of the states.

A protracted economic crisis has in most cases led to the failure of the political leadership. When faced with runaway inflation some of the more common measures have been price control, strict currency control, increased taxes and devaluation. Unfortunately, these have not always been popular measures and have instead tended to generate countrywide dissatisfaction and national outrage. Military intervention has often occurred in these circumstances. Political squabbling, whereby the civilian leaders have been unable to resolve their differences in the interest of the nation, has led to military coups.

Internal political problems within the ruling elite have had the outward effect of leading the masses into disappointment, disillusion and loss of faith in the government. The inefficiency of the civilian government, coupled with corruption and maladministration has been a common factor. After independence, the people expected their own government to be more familiar with their problems and be able to find solutions to them. This has not always been so. A problem that is not likely to be resolved easily in West Africa is 'tribalism' or the ethnic factor. Ethnic groupings have created more national disunity than any other single factor. Governments have tended to be more tribal than national in structure, with inter-tribal oppression becoming common practice. This in effect has created more societal tension and turmoil. Military intervention has not always been conducted to 'rescue' the nation from political ills. Coups have been linked directly or indirectly with personal ambitions and the craving for power by some specific key players (Decalo, 1976). This was in fact the case in Dahomey (now Republic of Benin) in 1965. In other instances, officers have led coups to regain lost prestige

or to pre-empt an impending purge. Coupled with this, interpersonal clashes have occurred between the civilian and military elites and thereby provoking takeovers. Cases in point have been Togo in 1963 and several others.

In retrospect, the results of military rule in West Africa have been very disappointing indeed. Besides being unable to solve the problems they set out to solve in the first place, military regimes in some cases have created situations that did not exist with civilian governments. Military rule has not necessarily been free of incompetence, corruption and maladministration that their civilian predecessors were alleged to have encouraged. Soldiers have been known to be more of wealth-seekers, property grabbers and bribe-takers. They have openly engaged themselves in self-enrichment activities through the barrel of the gun and through intimidation. They have become better embezzlers than their forerunners.

The coup d'état phenomenon lingers for a very long period of time over West Africa. The coup has not improved the West African economic conditions. The coup has not been a source for political stability. Rather than solve contemporary political and socio-economic problems, military coups d'état (Adebajo & Rashid, 2004) in West Africa have tended to drive the subcontinent into even further suffering and turmoil. And then there is that aura of insecurity and uncertainty. When and where is the next one going to be? More so now than ever before, West African political systems remain unpredictable. Ostracizing military regimes didn't automatically lead to any improvement in governance. Outlawing military coups is one thing, and scrutinizing civilian governments and making them respect their own constitutions and democratic principles is quite another. Many civilian governments that rose to power through 'democratic 'elections have acted in a weird way, changing constitutions and introducing new laws that make it a lot harder to effect peaceful transfer of political power. In many instances it led to political crisis and anarchy. Probably this explains why the 2010 coup in Niger and the recent development in Mali didn't arise bitter resentment against the Junta. The regional grouping, the Economic

Community for West African States (ECOWAS) did not out rightly condemn the coup, instead asked that the coup leaders act "quickly to restore civilian rule".

Conclusion

In the final analysis, the findings gathered from these case studies presented little or no dissimilarities. The following trends were identified as the overarching causes and effects of the military coup d'état: (a) Colonialism played a greater role in the subsequent weak economic systems and political institutions of West Africa; (b) Military governments did more harm than good to West Africa's fragile economic and political systems; (c) Bad governance was widespread during both military rules and (d) Ordinary citizens suffered the most during these periods of misrule.

One of the most important revelations of this study is that the institutions left behind by the colonial masters were not only too weak to promote lasting national unity but the chosen leaders of the colonial powers were themselves not prepared to take on the controversial tasks of governance. Ivory Coast for example, under the leadership of President Felix Houphouet Boigny ruled the country for over two decades, and did not build credible political institutions. Due to President Boigny's patronage style of leadership, the country found itself in total chaos only a few years after his death.

Furthermore, all the coup makers had the same purpose in mind which is to enrich themselves out of the state's resources. The pervading, but controversial notion here is that most people believe that Africa is a continent with a lot of poor countries. However, the reality here is that Africa does not have much of a problem with resources and wealth, rather the issue concerns the redistribution of these enormous wealth and resources. Nigeria for example, during the rule of Babangida, corruption was institutionalized as a tool of political control and as much as U.S. $ 12.2 billion in oil resources simply disappeared under his watch. Ironically, these were times when the ordinary Nigerians could not meet their daily food needs. Unemployment was high and health care was practically non-existent. Upon leaving office, Babangida had acquired so much wealth that he was able to retire to hisfifty-bedroom home in Minna, Niger State. On the other hand Abacha alone is believed to have personally stolen between U.S. $1 and $3 billion while in office.

More importantly, another striking revelation is that once a country falls into the hands of military rule, the possibility of returning authority to civilian rule seemed to be impossible. During the period under review from 1980 to 2000, the three countries which were used as case studies experienced a vicious circle of violence either in the form of civil unrest or civil war. From 1983 when President Shagari's government was overthrown by General Buhari, the country did not return to civilian rule until 1999 when former General Olusegun Obasanjo was elected in a democratic election. The country went from one military regime to another which destroyed the social-economic political fabrics of the country for two decades. The same held true in Liberia; since the 1980 coup that brought Master-Sergeant Samuel K. Doe to power, the country went through a devastating civil war that lasted for more than a decade until President Ellen Johnson Sirleaf was elected in a democratic election in 2006; a point in time from which the country has begun to regain her rightful place among the community of nations.

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LEXICAL PATTERNS OF EXPRESSING APPRECIATIONS IN NIGERIAN ENGLISH

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Abstract
The importance in communication of speech formulas and other formulaic expressions have recently been recognized, but studies of their actual usage are still few, and methods of classification remain unrefined. Thus, this study delves into the lexical patterns of expressing appreciations in Nigerian English. A random sample of 30 responses from speakers of Nigerian English were analyzed. Analysis reveals that Content words are preponderantly expressed than the Function words, using the formulaic structure. This finding suggests that users of English as a Second Language might be constantly drawing from a common linguistic repertoire that makes it difficult for their varieties to lead to separate languages.

Keywords: Formulaic Expressions, Content/Functions words, Nigerian English.

INTRODUCTION

To Jackson (1990, p.1), language is an explicit, versatile and extendable means of communicating messages. It is an indispensable tool for human communication and a vehicle for the exchange of thoughts and ideas. Hence, in every society, language plays a major role as an effective means of communication. Just as the main concern of language is to convey meaning and without meaning, there is no language. So, it can be argued that meaning in language is not fixed but dynamic because of the dynamism of language itself.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Expressing appreciations in compliment is a common place social practice in many languages and sociocultural contexts. For the past four decades, it has received a great deal of attention in pragmatics research in relation to face-to-face interaction (Chen 2010). Thus, according to Elena and Amanda (2019), interest in the linguistic study of expressing appreciations in complimenting behaviour can be traced to a number of key works from the 1970s and 1980s that have been highly influential and that are also exerting influence in current research on complimenting behaviour online. These includes, among others, Manes and Wolfson's ethnographic research on compliments in American English (Wolfson and Manes 1980; Manes and Wolfson 1981; Wolfson 1981; Manes 1983; Wolfson 1983); Pomerantz's (1978), conversation analytic work on compliment responses also in American English, with Brown and Levinson's (1987) as well as Leech's (1983) theories of politeness.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Despite the massive interest already shown by scholars towards Nigerian English through both the references made to it, and the empirical descriptions it has attracted. Many of its linguistic features, most especially in expressing appreciations at the lexical patterns, remain to be studied and brought to the fore.

However, many utterances in everyday language are conventional expressions that must be used in a certain way. That is why conventional or formulaic expressions are distinguished from novel utterances in a number of ways. This is due to what various scholars have written on the evolving lexical items in Nigerian English from the point of view of the Sapir-Whorf's theory of linguistic relativity; tracing their roots and usages with illustrations in relation to the Standard British English equivalents. Hence, in Nigeria, however, English is the most important means of communication (Otekpen, 2012, p.12). As languages come into contact with new realities and experiences, their stocks of words and meanings change. Moreso, since contexts that constrain language users when speaking or writing differ in situational, socio-cultural, political and geographical degrees, there is

bound to be lexical evolution. This is why Lexical innovations play an important role in the process of lexical evolution.

AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The aims and objectives of this study is a well-known sociolinguistic fact that there are changes in the language use of an individual who, after acquiring his mother tongue learns a second, third or nth language. Here, according to Udofot (1999), "the speakers of the New Englishes have created and are still creating new expressions to fulfill their communicative needs. Not all are *neologisms* or new creations" (p. 97). That is, some are words created from existing English words whose meanings have been either extended or changed altogether. Others are new creations which are spoken in different geographical locations. Hence, Kachru (1997), established that in the contexts of the New Englishes, "the localized norm has a well-established linguistic, literary, and cultural identity" (pp. 220-221). Thus, the new English varieties have evolved into varieties which serve a wide range of purposes, and at the same time, developed their own character. That is, they differ from the native varieties. This is in line with Onuigbo and Eyisi's (2008), assertion that "the remarkable consequence of the spread of English is that the original form of the English spoken by native speakers in America and Britain has developed varieties or dialects in line with its worldwide expansion" (p. 51).

Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine the processes of lexical patterns to expressing appreciations in Nigerian English and provide statistical evaluation of this pattern using the formulaic speech structure. More specifically, the study sought to:
(i) Identify the lexical patterns that have undergone lexical evolutions of expressing appreciations in Nigerian English.
(ii) Characterize the features of lexical patterns that occurred in the lexical expressions.
(iii) Discuss the extent of the use of formulaic structure in appreciations of these evolved lexical patterns.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions for this study is to answer the following questions:

i. What are the formulaic speech structures of expressing appreciations in Nigerian English?
ii. Is there any preponderant use of the lexical/grammatical patterns of formulaic structure by undergraduates at the College of Education?
iii. Does the improper acquisition of language lead to the content/functional patterns of expressing appreciations in Nigerian English?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Appreciation is extremely powerful and the exchange of this power through giving, vis-à-vis receiving appreciation is enjoyed by many. Hence, research has shown that appreciating others, receiving appreciation or expressing it from others, has a significant positive impact on our well-being.

Thus, the theoretical framework for this study is the Wolfson's Bulge Theory of Speech Behaviour and Social Distance (1986); as well as the Formulaic Expressions of Diana Van and Gail Rallon (2004). Therefore, according to Wolfson (1983), the social status or the relationship between the speaker and the addressee has a great influence on the type of compliment that is considered appropriate to give. Knapp, Hopper, and Bell (1984), also found that a majority of compliment exchanges occur between people of similar status and age, though this does not mean that compliments do not occur when status is unequal. Wolfson (1983) explains that compliments in unequal status relationships do occur, but the choice of topics may differ. In these cases, most compliments are in some sense work-related, focus more on trait or ability, and are more commonly given by a person with higher status who is expected to make judgments concerning an activity. That is, compliments from higher to lower status are twice as likely to relate to work performance or ability as to appearance or possessions, while the reverse is true between equals or where the speaker is of lower status (Wolfson, 1983).

However, before diving into understanding how we respond to compliments, it will be helpful to first understand how our responses to the good news of expressing appreciations have been categorized by Gable et al. (2004).

Here, the process of sharing good news or expressing appreciations about a positive event with someone else has been called *capitalization* (Langston, 1994). That is, capitalizing on positive events has been linked to increases in positive affect and well-being, independent of the positive events themselves. So, these effects are largely dependent on the reactions of persons with whom the events are shared (Gable et al., 2004).

Likewise, in Formulaic expressions, Lancker-Sidtis and Rallon (2004), sees these expressions as being "familiar" in the sense that a native speaker will recognize them as having this special status. That is, native speakers can recognize and complete these utterances (when words are omitted) as well as demonstrate knowledge of their specialized meanings and appropriate contexts. As stated by Jackendoff (1995), a very large number of a broad range of formulaic expressions "are familiar to American speakers of English; that is, an American speaker must have them stored in memory" (p. 135). Hence, just as Jakendoff posits of American speakers, the reverse is the case for Nigerian speakers of English which various linguistic scholars have over-flogged the debate on Nigerian English and how these Nigerian speakers of English must have stored the expressions of utterances to appreciations, in their memories.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Appreciation is a word with varied connotations. According to the Oxford English Dictionary (n.d.a), *appreciation* is defined as a: "Recognition and enjoyment of the good qualities of someone or something; b: As a feeling of gratitude; c) A full understanding of a situation and d) Increase in monetary value. While, synonyms to appreciation include- to value, respect, prize, cherish, treasure, admire, hold in high regard, hold in esteem, rate highly, recognition, sense of obligation, think highly of, think much of, have a high opinion of, gain, growth, rise, mounting and the like. (Oxford English Dictionary, n.d.a). Also, Adler & Fagley (2005), explain appreciation as recognizing the value and meaning of something and feeling a positive emotional connection to it. Fuller (1922, pg. 2). On the other hand, referred to appreciation as the "logical assessment, absorption, and practical incorporation of the good things discovered, and a disposition to give credit where credit is due". Also, a Clinical psychologist and consultant, Noelle Nelson (2005), claimed that appreciation is one of the most powerful yet misunderstood and untapped energies available to us. It can simply be understood as our ability to "recognize the full worth of someone or their actions" (p. 1). Thus, quite often, we transpose appreciation with gratitude, where gratitude is an expression of recognition and thanks for a job well done, a service performed, an unexpected kindness, and so on. Here, real appreciation goes beyond just saying "thank you," stated Nelson (2012). She definedappreciation in work settings as the deliberate, proactive valuing of employees and what they bring to the table.

Furthermore, an adopted broad definition of compliments as expressions of positive evaluation (Wolfson 1981: 120), that attribute credit to the addressee (Holmes 1986: 492). However, this notion has been more recently extended to cover other phenomena such as appreciatory sounds (Golato 2011). Thus, the definition of compliments as expressions of positive evaluation may seem straightforward; however, determining what is a 'positive evaluation' can be problematic. Here, compliments perform various functions but primarily and most obviously act as affective speech acts serving to increase or consolidate the solidarity between the speaker and the addressee. In brief, compliments have been said to grease the social wheels and thus to serve as social lubricants that create or maintain rapport (Wolfson, 1983). Hence, this is further buttressed by Hatch (1994), who outlines four significant functions of compliments out of several others: First, compliments establish rapport and smooth the transition from greeting to the first topic of the conversation. Second, compliments reinforce and encourage good performance like a coach's compliment to an athlete. Third, compliments can be used for thanking like saying 'great dinner' to a cook; and the fourth function of the compliment is to soften criticism.

Thus, based on Manes and Wolfson's (1981) classification, major compliment topics can be classified into three categories:

a. Appearance/possessions - Compliments on someone's appearance or possessions are the most common type of compliments in American English.

b. Performance/skills/abilities 'You did a good job!' and 'You are such a wonderful writer' are examples of compliments on performance/skills/abilities. Concise compliments such as 'Nice shot!' are typically given by male speakers (Herbert, 1990).

c. Personality traits. Such comments as 'Good boy' and 'You're so sweet' are compliments on the addressee's personality traits. This category of compliments occurs less frequently than those on appearance/possessions and performance/skills/abilities (Holmes, 1988).

From the above classifications, like all other linguistic phenomena, several communicational rules condition, compliment response use. That is, such rules are related in one way or another to the notion of the ethnography of speaking which presupposes that an appropriate use of a compliment or compliment response may recognize the presence of the interactants in a conversation (Hymes, as cited in Al Khatib and Fargal, 2001). Therefore, taking the Nigerian English as one of the linguistic phenomena, evolution is manifested more at the lexical level. Although, so much has been written about the development, promotions, varieties, functions, among others of the Nigerian English (Spencer, 1978, Akere 1990, Dadzie and Awonusi, 2004, to mention but a few), but a critical investigation into Nigerian English shows that it is a term used to designate the variety of English spoken and written in Nigeria. Nigerian English is a domesticated variety of English, functioning within the Nigerian linguistic and socio-cultural setting as a second language (ESL). It manifests the linguistic (phonological, syntactic, lexical, semantic, pragmatic and socio-cultural) characteristics of the Nigerian environment.

Therefore, on the notion of expressing appreciations, William James once said, "the deepest principle of human nature, is the craving to beappreciated" (Carnegie, 1964, p. 30). Feeling appreciated is a powerful and a fundamental human need. Knowing that our existence truly matters and thatothers recognize and appreciate the contributions we make is critical for our well-being (Prilleltensky, 2014). Also, as Schwartz (2012) explained, genuine appreciation lifts people up and makes them feel safe, energizes them, and frees them to perform at their best. On the contrary, feeling underappreciated puts our value at risk and this worry takes over our thoughts and emotions, further draining and diverting our energy and preventing us from adding valueat risk and this worry takes over our thoughts and emotions, further draining and diverting our energy and preventing us from adding value. In addition, appreciating others is one of the simplest ways to cultivate positive emotions within oneself as a giver and receiver of appreciation. That is, how we see the world and experience ourselves and others is determined by our thoughts and feelings; by thinking, feeling, and spreading positive emotions, we open our minds and hearts to notice more of what there is to appreciate about ourselves, others, and the world around us. Hence, as Robins and Carlson (2013), further buttressed that keeping our thoughts and feelings positive is essential to experiencing the full power of appreciation.

In addition, the **formulaic structure** in appreciations and compliments are formulated given the set of rules for combining a large set of vocabulary items (Chomsky, 1965). Hence, as linguists have explained for many years, this system allows for the generation of an infinite set of context-free sentences from a finite grammar (e.g., Akmajian et al., 1984; Trask, 1995). So, examples of these formulaic structure are basically the parts of speech which can be divided into the: *content/lexical words* and *function/grammatical words.* In the former, we have such parts of speech like – nouns, verbs, adverbs and adjectives. For the latter, we have – pronouns, prepositions, articles, particles and determinants.

Languages to communicate Appreciation

To Singh (2017), every tribe, race, and culture has a ritual to express appreciation for others. Our modern-day appreciation ceremonies include everything from birthday celebrations to award ceremonies like the Oscars or the Nobel Prize, which show appreciation for people's skills, talents and efforts. We also use a variety of ways to express appreciation, including verbal compliments, written cards and notes, spending quality time with others, giving autonomy, and even expressing our appreciation through various social media channels. Hence, this scholar also gave different ways to communicate appreciation to others, which she refers to as *languages* of appreciation. Through research and exploration, she identified eight common languages of appreciation. Thus, before moving to the languages, it is important to understand certain assumptions that apply to these languages of appreciation. One of such is Chapman (2010), who noted that individuals have a preference for a specific love language. Therefore, an individual could value a certain language more than another, which is why appreciation can be communicated most effectively when the message is conveyed in the language most valued by the receiver. So, these languages of appreciations as quoted by Singh (2017), are as follows.

(i) *Verbal Appreciation through Compliments or Praise*

"*The tongue has the power of life and death*" (Hebrew Bible, Proverbs 18: 21). That is, one way to express appreciation and give recognition emotionally is to use words. Finding the right moment and vocally giving compliments and praise becomes powerful communicators of appreciation. A compliment is understood as a speech act which directly or indirectly attributes credit to the addressee for some good possession, characteristic, skill, action etc. which is positively valued by the speaker and the other listeners (Holmes, 1988). The beauty of verbal appreciation given through compliments or praise is that it is a simple tool that is accessible to all of us, regardless of age, experience, education, spiritual practice, or other beliefs (Strobel, 2011).

(ii) *Written Appreciation (Paper or Electronic)*

Although verbal and written appreciation differs only in the medium of giving compliments/praise, this difference in medium affects their uses. Written appreciation includes showing appreciation through a handwritten or typed note, card, letters, and so on. It also includes compliments shared privately through digital text messages, e-mails, and the like. Here, to her opinion, some people prefer to give written appreciation instead of saying it one-on-one when they are shy or unsure about the person's response.

(iii) *Gestures and Physical Touch*

This language includes expressing appreciation through gestures like smiles, giving a thumbs-up, applause/standing ovation, cheering, or other culturally acceptable positive gestures. Gestures are a common language when appreciating strangers or acquaintances (Chapman, 2010). Physical touches such as hugs, kisses, pats on the back, touching the shoulder, high-fives, and fist bumps are also a common language of appreciation (Chapman & White, 2012).

(iv) *Attention and Quality Time, Assistance*

Another common language of appreciation is providing attention, quality time, and assistance (Chapman, 2010). That is, one can show appreciation using this language by simply offering one's undivided attention through a simple one-on-one session or providing assistance when help is required. This language, which is common in organizations, shows support and can be encouraging.

(v) *Autonomy and Control*

Using Singh's example of when she was young and starting to cook, her mother, who is a great cook, would always stay around and watch her, making sure that she was doing it right. After a couple of days, when she decided that she no longer needed to watch her, she told her that she was sure that she could handle it on her own. From this illustration, she was given an autonomy (i.e., the power to make key decisions in a particular field) is an expression of appreciation that says, "I am good at it now and therefore can do it on my own."

(vi)   Awards and Titles

An award is a mark of recognition given in honor of an achievement to a person, a group of people, or an organization (Oxford dictionary, n.d.b), while a "title" is defined as "a prefix or suffix added to someone's name in certain contexts" (Title, n.d). A title may signify either veneration, an official position, or a professional or academic qualification. Titles like knight, saint, guru, or mahatma are given in appreciation of one's service to the society. An award may simply be a public acknowledgment of excellence without any tangible token or prize of excellence, or it may be accompanied by a trophy, title, certificate, medal, badge, pin, ribbon, or monetary prize. Additionally, giving an award raises the serotonin level of the one who gives the award, and even those who just witness such an interaction can have a hormone reaction that makes them happier (Sinek, 2013).

(vii)   Gifts, Bonuses, and Incentives

Gifts are one way to show a person how much we appreciate them. The gift does not need to be big, expensive, or flashy to convey this message of appreciation. However, for a gift to be a suitable expression of appreciation, it is important that the gift be appropriate for that particular person. That is, personalized gifts make the appreciation even more meaningful and valuable. Hence, these gifts require thought and effort, but they serve as tangible memorabilia of the compliment for the receiver.

(viii)   Social Media Appreciation

Another emerging language of appreciation is demonstrating appreciation through social media networks. Various networks have their own tools to encourage and express appreciation and give recognition. The most popular ones are the "like" and "love" buttons on social networking websites like Facebook and Instagram. The "like" feature is a quick way to interact with status updates, comments, photos, and links shared by friends and to express that one enjoys and appreciates the post (Facebook, 2017).

Why We Need Appreciation

According to Singh (2017), each of us is born with a gift, an ear for music, a knack for science, a flare for writing. To her, for a time, these seeds of genius lie dormant within us,

then it happens. With the mark on a page or a comment with a smile, someone we trust appreciates a task well done and appreciation changes everything. It awakens our gift from slumber and makes it real. Hence, talent becomes expertise. Potential becomes performance. We look around and see possibilities everywhere, in everything, and we're inspired to invent, to create, to discover, to change the world. All because someone appreciates our potential, that the real epiphany comes, that the fastest way we can change the world is to appreciate the potential in those around us (Tanner, n.d.a).

Functions of Appreciation

According to Singh (2017), she highlights some functions of appreciations which are:

(a) To Express Admiration or Approval

The most basic function of appreciation is to express admiration and support of someone's actions, appearance, or taste (Herbert, 1990; Manes, 1983).

(b) To Establish/Confirm/Sustain Harmony

Wolfson (1983, p.86) describes compliments as social lubricants helping to 'create or maintain rapport'. Compliments are powerful in establishing mutual support and solidarity (Holmes, 1988; Manes & Wolfson, 1981; Wolfson, 1989). Appropriate appreciation helps us achieve and even strengthen good social relationships, thereby encouraging solidarity and sympathy among people. For example, this conversation illustrates this function. The context is two women meeting in the elevator at their workplace. Speaker: "Wow! You look stunning.", Receiver: "Thanks. You made my day!" This brief conversation describes how a simple compliment can be so useful in establishing rapport, and solidarity.

(c) To Motivate and Encourage Others

The use of appreciation and praise has shown to bring an increase in the level of intrinsic motivation (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Dev, 1997; McKay, 1992; Shanab, Peterson, Dargahi, & Deroian, 1981), increase productivity and loyalty (Gallup, 2016). Praising others is commonly used a means to encourage people to produce desired behavior or develop an interest in an activity or task (Manes, 1983). In research with undergraduates, Shanab et al. (1981) found

that appreciation led students to spend more time on a puzzle-solving task and rate their interest as higher than participants who received neutral feedback. In a similar study, adults who received praise for a puzzle-completion task were more interested to participate in the task again when given a choice later as compared to those given no appreciation (Deci, 1971).

(d) Appreciating Someone Can Be a Great Conversation Starter

Giving compliments is acknowledged as an excellent conversation strategy, a tactic toopen and sustain the conversation and to establish contact between people and make them communicate more effectively (Billmyer, 1990; Dunham, 1992; Wolfson, 1983). In doing so, compliments function as unique tools to reduce the social gap between people and to make them more relaxed in interacting with each other.

(e) To Ease Communication

As Wolfson (1983) pointed out, compliments as used compliments can be used to ease communication by strengthening or even to replacing several speech acts, including giving thanks, apologies, and greetings. These are often accompanied by or substituted by compliments. In the case of thanking, compliments may function in a number of situations as an appropriate means of expressing gratitude, such as, "You are such a kind soul. Thanks for helping us in our tough times." or "You have always been so considerate and supportive, I apologize for not being able to help you when you needed me".

Effects of Appreciations

i. There are Gender Differences in Appreciation

Several researches have highlighted that gender differences impact the exchange of appreciation. Some gender differences in the giving of compliments include that female speakers tend to give compliments that have a personal focus and use first and second person pronouns: "Ilove your lipstick!" "You look amazing!" (Herbert, 1990), whereas male speakers are more likely to give compliments that are disengaged, such as "Nice game!" "Good job!" or "That's a cool phone" (Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1988). Additionally, women give more compliments and receive significantly more compliments than men (Holmes, 1988), but males are also more likely to accept compliments than female (Herbert, 1990).

ii. Appreciation is Affected by Cultural Nuances

While best practices of appreciation hold true in every country, the kind of appreciation given, the preference of language and responses given are heavily dependent on the culture and this can become a source of miscommunication among different races of speakers. Golato (2005) explained that Germans are unskilled when it comes to giving compliments and pay relatively fewer compliments as compared to Americans. In another study, Mir, & Cots (2017) found that the Peninsular Spanish speaker do not compliment as frequently as the American English speakers, however, both language groups prefer to accept a compliment. However, western speakers tend to use and accept compliments more often than Asian speakers (Fujimura-Wilson, 2015).

c. Inappropriateness of Language

Not using suitable language can sometimes result in awkward or uncomfortable moments for learners. Holmes and Brown (1987) demonstrated that if a compliment fails because of language or logical reasons, it can cause embarrassment or offense. For instance, a male coworker may attempt to compliment a colleague by saying, "Wow! this dress makes you look so slim." However, this compliment fails on linguistic and pragmatic grounds because it highlights that the giver thinks the receiver generally looks fat and also because a male's comment to a female coworker on her body type could be viewed as inappropriate.

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design of the study, location and specific population of the study. Also, it entails the sample techniques, instrument for data collections and validation of instrument.

The Design of the Study

This study has employed the use of field note method to investigate the level of expressing appreciations in Nigerian English.

Location of the Study

We collected data from the undergraduate students of Adeniran Ogunsanya College of Education, which was used as the setting of this study. This is because it is among the best Colleges ranked in terms of academic and leadership performance(s) by the National University Commission in Nigeria.

Sample and Sampling Technique

A quota sample of a random size was used for this study. From the sample, a qualitative linguistic data was sought for the purpose of ascertaining students' proficiency and theoretical usage of the Nigerian English expressions towards appreciations. From this, 50 subjects were randomly chosen, but on a rough estimation, a finite number of 30 students were used.

Instrumentation

The main instrument used in this study is the questionnaire or *discourse completion test*. Respondents were required to respond freely to the 10 items. The instruments were administered in a study to a class of 200 to 300 level students in their various combinations of study.

DATA PRESENTATIONS AND ANALYSIS

An over-view of this chapter presents the data collected from research participants in their various combinations of study at the College of Education. It represents the formulaic structure of speech, which can either be l*exical/content words* or *grammatical/ function words* in expressions to appreciations in Nigerian English.

Table 1: Total Number of Respondents is 30

QUESTION	CONTENT/LEXICAL WORDS	FUNCTION OR GRAMMATICAL WORDS
1	24	6
2	25	5
3	22	8
4	27	3
5	22	8
6	11	19
7	23	7
8	18	12
9	27	3
10	26	4

From table I above, it reveals the characteristics of research participants to the test items. The data shows that the highest responses to expressions in appreciations, under the *content words* in the *formulaic* structure is question '9' having 27% of the lexical words. Contrarily, in the responses of research participants to expressions in appreciations under the function words, using the same formulaic structure, we have question '6' having the highest percentage of 19% of its function words to expressions of appreciations in Nigerian English.

Table 2: Content/Lexical Words

QUESTION	NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES	ADVERBS
1-10	Gratitude, award, privilege, reward, expression, tears, surprise, support, honour, hug, love, God, darling, gift, honey, source, joy, kisses, gesture, name, sunshine, husband, car, key, expectation, wrap, embrace, pocket, effort, handshake, appreciation, job, provisions, home, family, marriage, studies, mom, dad, stranger, mind, meal, friend, attitude, behaviour, devil, labour, establishment, wedding, Jehovah, fruit, food, Lord, programme, endeavour, blessings, person, promotions, packages, anniversary, world, present, glory, pocket, gestures, million, parents, heart, money, understanding, union, today, accomplishment.	Thank, appreciate, recognized, thinking, bless, continue, jump, caring, show, visiting, smelling, reward, offered, regret, bow, locate, replenish, promise, thanking, give, show, be, will, bringing, taking, making, celebrating, saying, hugging, replenish, feel, see, starve, put, reap, separate, prosper, continue, exclaim, knows, satisfying, offering, praised, preserve, eating, getting, promise, forget, remain, wanted, crying, rendered, shout, genuflecting.	Excellent, beautiful, gracious, grateful, consistent, wonderful, dearest, better, good, happy, amazing.	Very, really, indeed, excitedly, never, hungrily, anytime, gratefully, always, forever, lovely.

Table 3: Function/Grammatical Words

QUESTION	PRONOUN	PREPOSITION	CONJUNCTION	ARTICLE	PARTICLE
1-10	Him, you, them, their, they, me, I,	Of, many, with, down, top,	When, and, that, then	A, an, the	As, not, no.

Table II and III above indicates the levels of expressions to appreciations in Nigerian English. This means that from the research participants using the formulaic structure, the content/lexical words are divided into 4 columns; having four parts of speech- nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, while in the grammatical/ functional words; we have five columns which are also divided into five parts of speech – pronouns, preposition, conjunction, articles and particles.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
DISCUSSION/ SUMMARY OF FINDINGS
There is no doubt that some of the expressions in the formulaic structure of the participants have come as a surprise. Thus, 73% of nouns- *gratitude, surprise, car, marriage, home, name, pocket, wrap,* etc are expressed as the highest under the 'content words'. This is followed by 57% of expressions in the verb form such as: *bless, thanks, jump, regret, promise, etc.*; then 11% of expressions as adjectives- *amazing, excellent, gracious,*

better, good, etc. and 11% of adverbs - *very, forever, indeed, lovely, always, etc.* respectively.

Also, for the 'grammatical words', the pronoun - *him, me, I, etc.* serves as the highest expressed words with 7 %, followed by the preposition – *down, top, with, etc.* which is 5%, the conjunction – *when, and, that, then*; having 4% with the article – *a, an, the*; as well as the particles – *as, not, no* with 3% respectively.

RECOMMENDATIONS
According to the survey of this study, over 80% of the content words expressed that receiving and giving appreciation makes them feel good. On the whole, we as a society seem to believe that praise affects children/ youths positively. Hence, parents and teachers are often given similar advice: "Be generous with your praise. Find as many opportunities to sincerely praise your children as you can" (McKay, 1992, p. 243).

Also, I recommend that not only children but adults should also be regularly praised. As Carnegie (1964) wrote that one key to winning friends and influencing people is to "be hearty in your approbation and lavish in your praise" (p. 38). Thus, creating a culture of appreciation will benefit the organization and community. Leaders should set examples by appreciating others publicly and encouraging others to do the same.

CONCLUSION
In conclusion, the lexical patterns in the formulaic structure of expressing appreciations in Nigerian English has rigorously been established in this study. Hence, this is further recommended in Holmes as cited by Wang and Tsai (2003), who developed a three main categories of compliment responses: accept, reject and deflect or evade. That is, she analyzed complimenting behaviour in terms of Brown and Levinson's (1987), politeness theory and considered compliments and appreciations to be, on the one hand, positively affective speech acts, and on the other, potentially face-threatening acts, which account for the variety of compliment responses; as well as expressions to appreciations.

Also, as Benjamin Disraeli, a British politician and writer, puts it, "The greatest good you can do for another is not to share your riches, but to reveal theirs" (Gaffney, 2006). Revealing the riches in others by expressing appreciation for the good in their character, their actions, skills, traits etc. is not only the duty of a leader but also of family members, friends, colleagues, and fellow human beings. Feeling understood and appreciated by others contributes to one's feeling connected and valued, which in turn greatly impacts well-being. If one appreciates others and expresses that appreciation appropriately and effectively, the perceived closeness and connection of the two can be strengthened (Fagley, 2016). Hence, giving appreciation to others, and as a receiver, making others feel that their appreciation has been accepted and is respected, are both great ways to enrich lives with positive emotions.

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DECENT WORK AND INCLUSIVE GROWTH: EXPERIENCE FROM SELECTED DEVELOPING AND DEVELOPED ECONOMIES

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Abstract
This study investigated jobs, decent work and inclusive growth: experiences from selected developing and developed economies. In recent time, statistical analysis has revealed that economic alone does not inherently increase productive employment especially for the poor and vulnerable groups within the society. Specifically, the study focuses on the empirical relationship between the productive employment and sustainable economic growth in these economies. The paper adopts a quantitative research design using panel data with regression model to measure the impact of productive employment on economic growth with specific reference to the recent economic downturn and recovery period (1980-2017). The study finds out that low level of growth in sub Saharan African countries can be explained by the existence of high level of unemployment and low productivity. Despite rapid growth in many sub Saharan African countries, there is a widespread concern that this growth has not created enough productive jobs to enable large numbers of people to move out of poverty. The result suggests that creating productive employment requires structural transformation of African economies, which entails strengthen the economic sectors that drives growth and productive employment stimulating dynamic entrepreneurship and creating an enabling environments.

Keywords: Productive employment, decent work, inclusive and sustainable growth, sub- Saharan African countries

1. Introduction:

Many economies are simply not generating sufficient decent work opportunity to reduce poverty Sub Saharan countries.   Currently, around 39% of the global labour force or 1.2 billion women and men in work-live on less than $2 a day per person. According to Anyanwu (2013), Young people are faring particularly poorly; not enough jobs are being created to absorb new entrants to the work force, which can contribute to social exclusion, political instability and conflict.

Aritas, Sosa, Alfam, Edo, Santos (2012) However, as the global economy continues to recover, we are seeing slower growth, widening inequities and not enough, high quality jobs to keep up with a growing labor force, According to the international labor organization, more than 204 million people were unemployed in 2015.

United nations development programme (UNDP, 2016) stated that: An estimated 172million people worldwide were without work in 2018- an unemployment rate of 5%. As a result of an expanding labor force, the number of unemployed is projected to increase by 1million every year and reach 174million by 2020. Some 700million workers lived in extreme or moderate poverty in 2018, with less than U S $3.20 per day. Women participation in the labor force stood at 48% in 2018, compared with 75% for men. Around 3 in 5 of the 3.5billion people in the labor force in 2018 were men.

Overall, 2billion workers were in informal employment in 2016 accounting for 61% of the world's work force. Many more women than men were underutilized in the labor force – 85million compared to 55million Atoloye (2007). One of the biggest challenges for developing countries is the creation of sufficient and quality employment; Blanch flower and Oswald (2012) emphasised. Public opinion survey globally suggest that issues related to employment and job (or the lack thereof) are among the top concerns of the population. Indeed, decent work and income

are central to individual and societal wellbeing, contributing to improved living conditions, poverty reduction and social cohesion. According to the United Nations on sustainable development goals: The SDG's promotes sustained economic growth, high levels of productivity and technological innovation. Encouraging entrepreneurship and job creation are key to this; as are effective measures to eradicate forced labor, slavery and human trafficking, Full and productive employment and decent work for all women by 2030, the reality of these objective is a mirage if productive employment is been facilitated by both developed and developing countries.

Employment is a key driver of development, improving living standards, raising productivity and contributing to social cohesion. As such employment is a key ingredient for inclusive growth. The role of employment promotion and decent work has continuously in the international dialogue (both in developed and developing countries) as reflected in high level commitments that is while Productive employment and decent work is a key objective in the post-2015 global development architecture (the sustainable development goal, 2030).

According to Dursun and Ogunleye (2016), in parallel to the global development architecture, employment and decent work has gained increasing attention as part of the EU's development agenda. This research paper, tends to investigate if productive employment would bring about Economic growth in both developed and developing Economies within the period under review. It further tries to suggest strategies to put in place to improve decent work that will enhance inclusive growth in the Economies.

2.0 Review of Related Literature:
2.1 Conceptual dimensions of decent work

Decent work is a broad concept, with many dimensions. Some of its dimensions are much more readily measured than others, and that is reflected in the availability of statistics on different topics. It is, on the whole, easier to measure employment than it is to measure freedom of association (Hamermesh, 1999). The definition of decent work as "opportunities

for women and men to obtain decent and productive work, in conditions of freedom, equity, security and human dignity" explicitly includes six dimensions.

i. Opportunities for work refer to the need for all persons (men and women) who want work to be able to find work, since decent work is not possible without work itself. The underlying concept of work is a broad one, encompassing all forms of economic activity, including self-employment, economic unpaid family work and wage employment in both the informal and formal sectors.

ii. Work in conditions of freedom underscores the fact that work should be freely chosen and not forced on individuals and that certain forms of work are not acceptable in the 21stcentury. It means that bonded labour and slave labour as well as unacceptable forms of child labour should be eliminated as agreed by governments in international declarations and labour standards. It also means that workers are free to join workers organisations.

iii. Productive work is essential for workers to have acceptable livelihoods for themselves and their families, as well as to ensure sustainable development and competitiveness of enterprises and countries.

iv. Equity in work represents workers' need to have fair and equitable treatment and opportunity in work. It encompasses absence of discrimination at work and in access to work and ability to balance work with family life.

v. Security at work is mindful of the need to help safeguard health, pensions and livelihoods, and to provide adequate financial and other protection in the event of health and other contingencies. It also recognises workers' need to limit insecurity associated with the possible loss of work and livelihood.

vi. Dignity at work requires that workers be treated with respect at work, and be able to voice concerns and participate in decision-making about working conditions. An essential ingredient is workers' freedom to represent their interests collectively.

The first two dimensions of decent work (opportunities for work and freedom of choice

of employment) are concerned with the availability of work and the acceptable scope of work. The other four dimensions of decent work (productive work, equity, security and dignity) are concerned with the extent to which the work is decent, which is similar in many ways to what is deemed quality of employment (Merlié & Paoli, 2000).

While official unemployment rates in sub-Saharan Africa are low compared to other regions, this is mainly due to the absence of social protection system, which in turn forces people to work to make a living. Unemployment is highest among university graduates who are constrained by the lack of sufficient employment opportunities in the formal sector and/or do not have the skills employers need.

According to the European Economic Commission (EEC, 2017), the region has the highest incidence of child labor, especially in agriculture, accounting for around 30% of all 5 to 17 years old in child labor globally. The vast majority of employment in sub Saharan Africa (over 80%) is concentrated in family agriculture and non-agricultural self-employment (household enterprises). Overwhelmingly, these are low productivity and informal occupation and hence, vulnerable employment. Sub-Saharan Africa has the second highest rate of informal employment in the world, after south Asia. Only about 16% of those in the labor force have wage jobs, of these, only 20% are in the industrial sector (mining, manufacturing and construction) accounting for about 3%of total employment (EEC, 2017).

High population growth put pressure on labor market to create an increasing numbers of jobs and on institutions to prepare the growing number of youths for the labor market. Half of the population of sub-Saharan African is under 18 years of age and until 2035, it is estimated that there will be around a half million more 15 years old every year. As Africa's population is expected to continue to increase, sub-Saharan Africa need to generate 18 million new jobs per year by 2035 to absorb the new entrants to the labor markets, compared to around 3 million formal jobs created today (EEC, 2017).

According to (Fox and Sohnessen,2012) despite significant improvement in macroeconomic indicators in many African countries, African businesses still consider the macroeconomic situation and worries about political instability as the main barrier to growth and employment. Moreover, conflicts and natural disasters (e.g draughts) drive displacement of people within and across countries. Structural transformation of the region's economies has been slow and largely by-passed industrialization, thus not allowing for the productivity gains and reallocations of workers from agriculture to manufacturing. While economic growth has been steady since the 2000s, the source of growth was not - intensive sectors such as agriculture or manufacturing, but primarily in capital intensive industries such as oil, gas and mineral extraction thereby limiting pro-poor growth. Despite improvement over last decade, African continue to lag other regions in terms of quality of and access to infrastructure such as transportation, electricity and communication, thereby constraining competitiveness, private investment and productivity.

Sub-Saharan African has the world lowest school enrolment and educational achievement levels and a low base of human capital) leaving many young people unprepared to take advantage of existing opportunities and increasing their risk to be trapped in low productivity and informal work. Neither university education and training system are typically meeting the needs of the labor market in terms of relevance and quality of skills, provided, fuelling skill mismatch deficits in education are compounded by challenges related to health, and nutrition (including HIV/Aids, mal-nutrition) which indirectly affect people's ability to engage in productive work (Fox and Sohnesen, 2012).

2.2 Theoretical Review and Theoretical framework:

Previous studies on inclusive growth have either focused on the effect of monetary policy, employment informal sector financing, financial development or poverty on inclusive growth.

On the theoretical ground the link between employment poverty and inclusive growth can be calibrated by looking at Neoclassical proportion and Keynesian general theory of employment. The Neoclassical proportion created by Alfred marshal in his " principle of economic" in 1890 builds in the classical traditions, by stressing the role of unequal initial endowments of talents, skills and capital which determines productivity of an individual as determinant of poverty, within a market based competitive economic system. Market failures such as externalities, moral hazards and adverse selection as well as incomplete information are also viewed as aggravators of poverty (Haussmann, Rodrik & Valasco, 2005).

Under the keynesian general theory of employment in John Keynes. The general theory of employment, interest and money, the great economist postulates that the natural income depends on the volume of employment i.e on the quantity of effort currently devoted to production and there is a unique correlation between the two. In addition, a state of full employment is achieved by an economy when all its resources have been appropriated to the fullest and economic activities are in a stable condition so that a shift in the dependent variable results in unstable conditions and/or reduced level of real income (Ifeal & Hyunson, 2007).

In formulating the general theory of employment, the dependent variable are the volume of employment and the rational income (or rational dividends) measured in wage units. This can be shown in the form of simple equations;

$Y = C + I + G$, where

Y= rational income, the dependent variable and the independent variables

C= consumption, I= investment outlay and G= government expenditure. This equation indicates that the quantity of employment that will be devoted to production corresponding to any given level of effective demand measured in terms of wage unit. That is the supply function of labor (or effort) which shows the inter alia at what point the employment function for labor as a whole will cease to be elastic (Ifeal & Juzhung, 2007).

The framework of this study borrows from decision tree analytical framework to explain factors that constraints different economic factors, especially the poor and the majority of the work force from participating effectively from the economic activities (MGI, 2015). Above all, the framework emphasis that productive employment is the main instrument to reach inclusive growth in the economy. In this context, productive employment focuses not just on expanding employment opportunity but increasing such opportunities with decent works and living wages in the financial labor market (Ifeal & Juzhung, 2007).

In time with the above theoretical framework, this study adopted the model in study conducted by the researcher on the correlates of poverty for inclusive growth in Africa where the study employed poverty as the dependent variable and real GDP per capita, inflation rate, trade openness, primary school gross enrolment ratio, secondary gross enrolment ratio, mineral rents, as percentage of GDP, time trends and sub regional aluminises were the explanatory variables (IMF, 2015).

Theoretically, improvements of productivity offer the possibility to reach win-win-win situations: an increase in economic growth, an increase in productive employment and sustainable and inclusive growth is achievable. The original neoclassical growth model (Solow, 1956) explains economic growth only via labour and capital and the exogenous driver Total Factor Productivity (TFP). In fact, any factor which is not identified individually within the production function will cause TFP to rise, e.g. technical innovation, organisational or institutional changes, changes in factor shares, changes in labour skills, scale effects or variations in work intensity. The model worked with the Cobb-Douglas production function that assumes perfect substitutability between the production factors and that does not explicitly consider material resources (Dasgupta & Heal, 1979 cited in Stocker et al., 2015). Generally, the growth model is structured around an approach expressing output as a function of certain factor inputs and of the efficiency with which these inputs are used, i.e. TFP:

Output = F (factors, efficiency)

Thus, two major factors contribute to potential economic growth (output): an increase in factor inputs or resources and an increase in efficiency. Within this equation, productivity can either be a new production factor and/or part of Total Factor. A positive net effect of improved productive employment on output arises if the benefits of higher productivity levels outweigh the costs of achieving greater efficiency (Stocker et al., 2015).

2.3 Link between Productive Employment and Economic Growth

The link between employments and economic growth has widely examined, the relationship been made to understand the mechanisms through which the benefits of productive and decent work may get translated to. According to World Bank report 2012, it is underlined that jobs are the cornerstone of economic and social development. Productive employment is seen as a critical nexus between growth and poverty reduction (Georgescu & Herman, 2019). The relationship between productive employment and economic growth can be visualized in terms of vicious circle; on the one side increases in productive employment have positive and significant economic effects and on the other side economic growth do also positively affect labor productivity. The positive net effects of improved productive employment on GDP arise if the benefits of higher productivity levels outweigh the costs of achieving greater efficiency (Stocker et al, 2015). According to Cambridge Econometrics et al. (2014), the case for productivity improvements for the European Union increases to 2.5% p.a. Beyond this rate, however, further improvements in productivity would lead to net costs for GDP as the abatement options become more expensive. Several factors are assumed to be hindering growth such as resource scarcities, commodity price shocks, instability of financial markets, or government debts. Also, a decline in working or aging populations might restrict future growth. These factors have negative effects on the long-term ability to sustain prosperity, (Stocker et al., 2015). Based on these arguments, it is therefore crucial to know that integrating productive and decent work into economic growth helps to maximize the

benefits for people and to ensure that growth is both sustainable and inclusive (ILO, 2019).

However, economic growth is a prerequisite for increasing productive employment; it is the combined result of increase in employment and increases in labour productivity. Hence, the rate of economic growth sets the absolute ceiling within which growth in employment and growth in labour productivity can take place. The impact of economic growth on productive employment creation depends not only on the rate of growth, but also on the efficiency by which growth translates into productive jobs. The latter depends on a range of factors, such as the composition of growth and the capital/labour intensity of growth within the individual sectors (ILO, 2019).

Empirical evidence reveals that higher levels of productive employment would yield positive economic effect. Korkmaz and Korkmaz (2017) tested the relationship between labor productivity, which is a partial factor productivity, and economic growth in seven OECD countries (Belgium, Germany, Spain, France, Italy, Finland and UK) for the period between 2008 and 2014 by utilizing the panel data analysis method. Test results exhibit that there is a long run equilibrium relationship between labor productivity and economic growth and there exists unidirectional causality from economic growth to labor productivity.

A cross-sectional analysis of GDP growth by Georgescu and Herman (2019) analyses the interrelationships between productive employment, and inclusive and sustainable development in European Union countries, during the recent economic crisis and recovery period (2007–2016). The finding reveals that the high level of inclusive and sustainable development in some European Union countries can be mainly explained by high labor productivity, an efficient sectoral structure of employment, a low level of vulnerable and precarious employment, and low working poverty. Moreover, the results also show that there are common features and differences between the European Union member states in terms of their interrelationship between productive employment, and inclusive and sustainable development. The findings suggest the need to

take speci c actions to transform unproductive employment into productive employment, especially in southern countries and some central and eastern European countries, so that productive employment will be the driving force for development.

On a similar study by Auzina-Emsina (2014) who investigate the relationship between productivity growth and economic growth of European Union countries in the pre-crisis and post-crisis period. The result reveals that there is a weak relationship between productivity growth and economic growth before the crisis and no any relationship in the first stage of the post-crisis period.

There are several further studies based on scenario analyses (e.g. Nakamura, Kaihatsu & kiYag, 2018; Rudolf & Zurlinden, 2010; Tabari & Reza, 2012), most of these studies come to the conclusion that an increase in labour productivity is associated with GDP growth. In same vein, Freddy (2011) investigates the empirical relationship between labor productivity, real wages and real GDP in Singapore from 1997 to 2011, using the Vector-Autoregressive or Vector-Error Correction Mechanism. This paper uncovers various causality relations in different industries which conform to economic theory and empirics. An impulse response analysis is also undertaken to understand how specific policy decisions could be framed to provide for higher wages across industries. The empirical results suggest that in the Singapore economy, there exist a bi-directional causality relation between labor productivity and real GDP but that wages seem to be caused by other underlying factors. However, real wages respond positively to positive shocks in the real GDP or labor productivity using cholesky or generalized decomposition.

Zulu and Banda (2015) established that investments in physical capital in Mauritius and South Africa have a positive effect on labour productivity and by implication on economic performance. Labour employment in industry is counterproductive, while the cumulative effect of new technologies on labour productivity is negligible in the three - year intervals. It is the initial stock and subsequent accumulation of human capital that stimulates faster output growth in both countries.

2.4 Empirical Review

Several studies have been conducted on the effect of monetary policy, employment, informal sector financing, financial development or poverty on inclusive growth (Oluseye and Gabriel, 2007). While investigating the relationship between inclusive growth and its determinants using annual data from 1980 to 2014 and the autoregressive distribution lag model (ARDL) and the error correction method (ECM) established a negative relationship between government consumption, education expenditure and inclusive growth both in the long run and the short run. Inflation and population growth variables indicate a positive effect on inclusive growth in the short run but turn out negative in the long run while initial capital and FDI show a negative relationship in the short run, but significantly positive contribution to inclusive growth in the long run (MGI,2013).

The correlates of poverty headcount index of international poverty at $1.25 per place using data on 43 African countries for a period, 1980 to 2011. The empirical estimates suggest that higher levels of income inequality, primary education alone, mineral rents, inflation and higher level of population tend to increase poverty in African and therefore bid for poverty reduction and inclusive growth in the continent. On the other hand, higher real per capita GDP, net ODA and secondary education have significant negative on poverty in Africa and thus good for poverty reduction and inclusive growth in the continent. Trade openness has positive but insignificant effect on poverty in Africa in spite of the huge liberalization effort of African countries (IMF, 2015).

The sector's potential in accelerating sustainable broad based growth and examined key strategies for realizing inclusive agricultural growth in Nigeria using data covering 1981-2015; the results indicates agriculture's significant contribution to economic growth which is a necessary (but not significant) condition for achieving inclusive growth (Oboh & Adeleke, 2016). To examined the inter play of economic growth and employment reduction of poverty amongst west African countries using cross-sectional

country level data between 1991 to 2010 is used to examine the relationship existent between these variable within the west African region. The empirical result of the study supports a positive effect between economic growth and poverty reduction in West Africa. Oluseye and Gabriel (2007) noted that in term of the influence of employment in poverty reduction, it can be observed that there exists a positive relationship, however, this relationship tends to be statistically insignificant. Employment intensive growth is necessary but not sufficient within the region's confine that is, it is unlikely that the poor possess sufficient skill necessary to take advantage of the new employment opportunities evident within the region, thereby propelling a reduction in broad based employment growth. In addition to this, employment does not coincide with poverty eradication because it is not in any way linked to the economic sectors that affect the poor (Sinnathurai, 2013) have noted. To further examines the impact of economic growth on poverty reduction in Nigeria by taking into consideration a time subscript and a difference in difference estimator that describes poverty reduction as a function of change in economic growth using multiple regression analysis. The result obtained indicates that the initial level of economic growth is not prone to poverty reduction while a positive change in economic growth is prone to poverty reduction (Sinnathurai, 2013).

None of the parameter estimates of human development index (HDI) and discomfort index is statistically significant in explaining economic growth in Nigeria. There is lack of financial inclusion. While households' enterprises are a source of employment for large part of the population, limited access to finance restricts people ability to start and grow their own businesses. The lack of capital is often reported as a major obstacle to start up and sustain a business (UNDESA, 2013).

3 Methodology and Analysis of Empirical Results

In order to achieve the objective of this study, the data required for this study are of secondary source from ILO employment key indicators, African Development Bank statistic and World Bank's electronic database.

The panel data set covered the ten years from 2008 to 2017. Panel data contains information on the same cross section units of seventeen (17) SSA countries comprising four Central African Countries (Congo Democratic Republic, Cameroun, Gabon and Equatorial Guinea), four West African Countries (Cote D'Ivoire, Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal), four East African Countries, (Tanzania, Kenya, Ethiopia and Mozambique), and five South African Countries (South Africa Republic, Botswana, Angola, Zimbabwe and Zambia) were used for the research.

In this analysis, thus, economic growth expressed by real GDP growth rate; level of inclusive growth captured by income Gini (measured distribution of income among individual within an economy); sustainability as captured by adjusted net savings (including particulate emission damage). Moreover, productive employment was captured by employment rate and labor productivity (GDP per person employed); and decent work measured by wage and salaried workers (% of employment).

The study employed simple panel regression model to evaluate the precise relationship between productive and decent work, and inclusive and sustainable economic growth. The coefficients are estimated in the semi log-linear form. The panel data model to be estimated as follows:-

$$Y_{it} = X_{it}\beta + \varepsilon_{it} \quad ..... \quad (1)$$

The above form can be expressed in general econometric model to be:

$$Y_{it} = a_i + X_{it}\beta + \varepsilon_{it} ..... \quad (2)$$

Where Y_{it} = dependent variable, i = entity and t, = time, a_i(i=1....n) = unknown intercept for each entity (n entity-specific intercepts), X_{it} = independent variable, β = coefficient for that independent variable, and ε = error term. Equation (1) is a one-way fixed effect model usually estimated using the fixed effects model (FEM). This is appropriate for panel dataset in order to analyze the impact of variables that vary over time. FE models explore the relationship between predictor and outcome variables within an entity (country). Each entity has its own individual characteristics that may influence the predictor variables (Stocker et al., 2015).

Figure 1. GDP, employment growth rate, and labor productivity (GDP per person employed) of seventeen (17) selected Sub Saharan African Countries, 2008–2017.
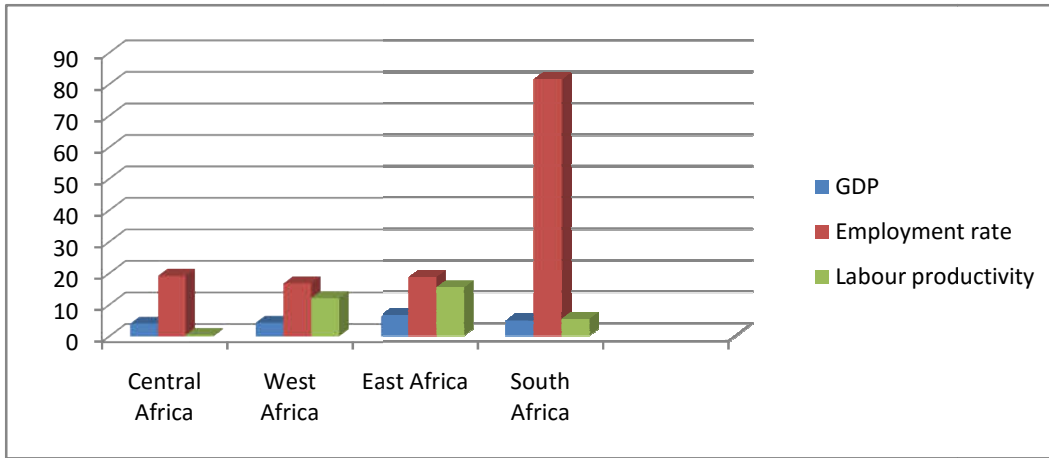
Source: own calculations based on ILO and World Bank data

Based on the data provided during the 2008-2017 period, the process of economic growth (expressed by real GDP growth rate) varied substantially across SSA countries, Within the sub region, only East Africa expanding at the fastest pace while other sub regions have been seen below the 5 per cent GDP growth.

Table 1: Average Employment Elasticity Growth in Africa

Central Africa	West Africa	East Africa	South Africa
19.29	16.97	18.44	81.54

Source: Own calculation based on ILO and World Bank data

Thus, South Africa out the four sub regions, despite their low economic performance in the 2008-2017 periods, employment growth has been significant in these countries. This implying that employment growth did not translated to the increase in GDP growth in South African Countries contrary to theoretical expectation. Labour productivity's responsiveness to economic growth also remaining relatively low in all sub regions.

Table 2. Fixed-effects regression model results (Real GDP dependent variable)

Indep. Var	Full sample		Central Africa		West Africa		East Africa		South Africa	
	Coefficient (b)	t-value	Coefficient (b)	t-value	Coefficient (b)	t-value	Coefficient (b)	t-value	Coefficient (b)	t-value
Constant	-28.71586	0.2301	-107.1138	0.2949	32.49632	0.6516	6.315850	0.2218	-78.60851	0.8037
LP	1.569335	0.5958	0.093915	0.1379	-0.045219	0.4277	0.026400	0.1255	0.052632	0.0729
LOG(ER)	-1.334454	0.8019	25.75661	0.3909	-14.15689	0.4896	-1.438303	0.1912	13.44220	0.8485
LOG(WSW)	2.583093	0.5989	0.829181	0.2884	2.787192	0.4835	-0.108967	0.7542	-0.148215	0.9431
LOG(ING)	2.891237	0.4677	4.755226	0.1031	-0.164028	0.9705	-0.077129	0.8912	5.247040	0.2465
ANS	0.339070	0.3111	-0.660667	0.3902	0.383464	0.2128	-0.007695	0.8553	-1.235551	0.1480
F-statistic	1.085192		3.294727		1.366590		6.994914		3.271343	
R^2	0.575640		0.804627		0.630756		0.897369		0.803505	

Note: $p < 0.05$. Source: own calculations based on Reference

The result in Table 1 shows that, in SSA in general, labour productivity (LP), wage and salaried worker (WSW), income gini (ING), and adjusted net saving (ANS) significantly explained the growth of GDP. Employment (ER) significantly suppressed the growth of GDP (β =-1.334454, p=0.8019). Thus, the low level of growth in SSA countries can be explained by the existence of high level of unemployment. Labour productivity show considerable variation with GDP growth. A growth rate of increase of 1% can be explained by increase labour productivity by 156.9%. Strong labor productivity across different sectors is therefore an important cornerstone for SSA countries.

In sub region specific term, different results emerged. In Central African countries four variables significantly explain growth rate. These are labour productivity, employment growth rate, wage and salaried worker and income gini. Adjusted net saving variable dropped because of unavailability of income for investment that should have enhanced the productive capacities of all segments of the labour force in the sub region. This tends to reduce inequality by promoting equal opportunities for employment. In West Africa countries, wage and salaried worker and adjusted net saving variables are significant. The GDP will grow by 1% each, given the increase of 278.7% and 38.3% respectively. Both employment and labour productivity in this sub region were not significant to the growth. A growth rate of increase of 1% can be explained by a reduction of employment by 14.15 percent point. However, this implies that productive employment indicator which re ect in labour productivity is necessary to generate sustained and inclusive growth.

In East African countries, only labour productivity is statistically significant. A growth rate of increase of 1% can be explained by 0.02% increase in labour productivity. This means that an improvement of labour productivity in the sub region will translate into impressive economic growth. High and sustained economic growth will necessitate more quality jobs. Finally, South Africa's growth-employment nexus reveals that employment sluggishly responds to growth. This implies that growth rate of increase of 1%

can be explained by 1344.2% increase in employment. A high level of employment can be associated with high level labor productivity. An improvement of labour productivity is expected to increase at a faster pace in order to move towards sustainable production that translates high and sustained economic growth.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

This research work has scrutinized the nexus between productive and decent work, and inclusive and sustainable economic growth. The analyses carried out above reflect that low level of growth in SSA countries can be explained by the existence of high level of unemployment and low productivity. The growth of the labour force has not been positive for general economic growth in SSA countries. The overall growth rate in labour productivity in 2008-2017 periods (figure I) remains sluggish, making it difficult for the region to achieve high economic growth. The employment rate in SSA countries has been steady at an average of around 17 per cent except South Africa sub region (see figure I), Informal employment accounts for a large share of total employment – estimated at about 86 per cent in 2016. Poor job quality and high levels of working poverty, remain the main labour market challenges in most countries in Africa (UNECA, 2019).

According to the analyses presented in this paper, GDP growth rate in the region seems not sufficient to produce dramatic changes in living standard as a result of high rate of vulnerable employment which has prevented it from high productivity. The economic transformation strategies of the region should have embodied policies to support investment in infrastructure, workforce skills, and innovation which are crucial for competitiveness and growth. More importantly, the context of severe infrastructure deficit, as is the case in Africa, exerts a significant constraint on growth and this leads to the need to scale up infrastructure spending. Investments are also largely a function of a peaceful and stable political environment, among other factors, while capacity depends on the creation of decent jobs. This is because the lack of decent jobs is causing issues such as social unrest, suicide, terrorism etc.

In the light of these findings, this study confirms that there is a relationship between productive and decent employment, and inclusive and sustainable development. Therefore, this paper suggests that high-quality skilled labour is needed to maintain productivity and economic growth. Sub-Saharan African (SSA) Countries should integrate high labour productivity and efficient sectoral structure of employment into economic growth which will trigger high level of inclusive and sustainable economic growth.

The following recommendations are made;
1. Invest in infrastructure and human-capital to improve Africa'scompetitiveness, boosting wage job in the formal economy and growing the region's manufacturing base. Specifically this includes investment that improves the enabling environment for job creation, such as by fostering cheaper and more reliable power, better telecommunication, lower transport cost and a more educated labor force.
2. Increase productivity in agriculture and the rural economy, this requires further public investment in rural public goods such as developing markets, disseminating technology improvements, prompting the use of better agricultural inputs and improving information.
3. Improve access in finance, especially for labor-intensive sectors identified as potential engine for growth and job creation. Examples includes credit guarantee schemes for loans to business in the targeted sector such as Nigeria's agricultural lending facility or easing access for foreign investors (MGI, 2012).
4. Increase earnings and productivity of the informal sector (including household enterprise), where over 80% of the work force is concentrated. This must include increasing support measures (e.g. access to finance, skill and market as well as improved legal identity rights) while reducing risks and institutional biases against informal enterprises and workers (e.g exclusion, harassment etc) in combination with these support measures, ways to encourage progressive transition to the formal economy could be explored.

5. Strengthen the link between social protection and employment intervention for the poor (productive inclusion program) e.g by accompanying safety net program such as public works with measures to facilitate saving and productive investments.

6. Enhance income generating opportunities for displaced population within the host country and in the context of return.

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TRANSNATIONAL DYNAMICS AND THE CHALLENGES OF CULTURAL ADAPTABILITY AMONG NIGERIANS IN RELIGIOUS COMMUNITIES IN THE NETHERLANDS

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Abstract

The study investigated transnational dynamics and challenges of cultural adaptability experienced by Nigerians in religious communities in the Netherlands. Religious leaders operating in foreign environments encounter diverse cultural challenges, such as relating to their African worldviews on malevolent spirits. The objective of the paper is to identify the role of Nigerian religious leaders in replicating a Nigerian-led church in a foreign setting. The study adopted the Case study qualitative research method involving direct and participant observations of several of the church's regular weekly and periodic programmes between 2008 and 2012. Findings reveal that this Nigerian church in the diaspora attempts to maintain her self-identity and has not significantly assimilated Dutch culture. The church needs a re-think on some of her practices in relation to these issues in order to attract the Dutch people and be more relevant in the Dutch society/context. Indeed, a crucial demand of cross-cultural mission is the assimilation of the host' culture in areas that do not contradict scriptures, in order to truly incarnate the gospel in the context of the people.

Keywords: Challenges, Cultural adaptability, Religious communities, Transnational dynamics

INTRODUCTION

The study is an investigation into the leadership dynamics of the Nigerian-led Pentecostal group, the mountain of Fire and Miracles Church and the challenges of cultural adaptation among the group in the Netherlands. The explosion of the Pentecostal movement in Nigeria and globally has been astounding. By the 1980s the rise of the movement was very visible and too important to be ignored, because the movement was reshaping the religious landscape of the majority world; Africa, Asia and Latin America. By the 1990s, Pentecostalism had become a major factor in the Nigerian public life; the movement gave religious visibility to the middle class which had been fragmentized by unfavorable economic policies. By the beginning of the 2lst century, it was certain the movement had become a major expression of Nigerian Christianity. The enthusiasm which accompanies the services, increased media attention on the group, multiplication of member churches, and other dynamic features, all contributed to this development (Ojo 2010, 2). In relation to West Africa, Ojo may be right in noting that Nigeria has an established Pentecostal landscape which is arguably the largest in Africa and was the first to be articulated in the continent (Ojo 2010, 2). Allan Anderson (2004) describes Lagos, Nigeria as "the most Pentecostal city in the world" (Anderson 2004, 4).

The transnationalization of many Nigerian Pentecostal Churches began in the early 1980s. The initial efforts towards this direction were inspired by both a missionary commitment and an ideological belief regarding the pivotal roles Nigeria played in the affairs of other African countries in the 1970s. For instance, the oil boom of the period enabled Nigeria to render both economic and political assistance to other African countries waging liberation wars in Southern Africa at that time. These historical and other related antecedents stimulated many Nigerian Pentecostal movements, and gave the impression that Nigeria's political roles in the region, can be extended in the religious domain. From this conviction, some Nigerian Pentecostals began their expansion into other African countries. By the beginning of the new millennium, some of them had already established their presence in the Western world.

It appears from the foregoing on Pentecostalism and Transnationalization that

many Nigerian Pentecostal Churches have imbibed the transnational philosophy or reverse missions as they take their Pentecostal faith and related practices beyond Nigeria to other parts of the world, particularly to the West (Mashall-Fratini 1998, 2). As laudable as this development appears, it places certain demands on the leadership of these groups in their transnational activities. Thus, our dual goals in this study include investigations into the roles of the leadership of the MFM in its transnationalization efforts and the cross-cultural challenges of the group in the diaspora.

African Pentecostalism

Over the years, Pentecostal Movements have been described by different nomenclatures; Classical, Neo-Pentecostal, Charismatic and Neo-Charismatic. Sometimes, Pentecostalism is even described in terms of waves; 'first', 'second', 'third', and 'fourth'. In all of these, two broad categorizations appear dominant; "Pentecostalism" and "Charismatic/Charismatism." It is important to underscore here that these two dominant categories are often used interchangeably (Burgess 2002, xviii). The rapidity of growth in non-Western varieties of the movements has made it to lack normative definition (Burgess 2002, xv-xvii; Rodgers 2006, 362; Kalu 2008, 13). The phrase Pentecostalism in this study in relation to Africa, is used in a broad way to delineate those churches that are largely autonomous and native which lay emphasis on the Holy Spirit, Spiritual gifts and on the "Pentecostal-like" experience of miracles, healing, deliverance from malevolent spirit, sign and wonders and power encounters. For Richard Burgess, this category in relation to African Pentecostalism is designed as "Neocharismatic" (Burgess 2002, xx). Matthews Ojo designates the Movements that exhibit these characteristics in Africa as "Charismatic" (Ojo 2006, l-21). For Allan Anderson, it is simply "Pentecostal and Charismatic Movements" (Anderson 2004, 1). For the purpose of clarity in this study, the phrase "African Pentecostalism" has been used to designate the local churches in Africa that exhibit the Pentecostal features highlighted above. The MFM church clearly falls into this category with her emphasis on power

encounters and deliverance from malevolent spirits.

Transnationalization

The word "Transnational" means reaching or going beyond national boundaries. It is a word which describes any phenomenon in which a system, policy, practice, relationships, ideas, interest and network is made to transcend the geographical boundaries of nations or countries. It is the crossing of national frontiers. According to Ruth Marshall-Fratini, the term transnationalism means "any relation which deliberately or by its nature constructs itself within a global space beyond the context of the nation state, and which escapes, at least partially, the control or mediating action of States" (Marshall-Fratini 2001, 80). Jean-Peirre Bastian describes religious transnationalization as a "process of multilateral dissemination which crosses boarders without springing from any specific point and without being determined by any state interests and it is grounded in networking strategies" (2001, 163). We will agree with Bastian's definition with some modifications. It is not all transnationalized phenomena that lack specific points of origin. In addition, certain interests also inform or guide the ideas and practices that are transnationalized. For instance, as we shall note later, many of the practices of the MFM that have become transnationalized originated from its world headquarters in Nigeria. We agree with Bastian that transnationalization is "grounded in networking strategies." It is these networks which facilitate the spread of discourse and the construction of religious ideologies and realities. Hence from our discussions so far on transnationalization, we may agree with Oro and Seaman who noted that the term relates to the exchange of ideas and relations beyond state boundaries from one nation to another or from one context to the other (Oro and Seaman 2001, 1 8 1).

Methodology

In attaining the dual goals of investigating leadership roles and cultural challenges, the study adopted the case study qualitative research method involving direct and participant observations, interviews with members of the group, interactions with available group publications, and the use of

secondary sources. This involved largely the participant observations of several of the church's regular weekly and periodic programmes from October to December 2008, February to May 2009, and December 2012. A repeat visit was made in 2018, and the phenomena under investigation remains the same. In addition, based on certain criteria, the writer selected and interviewed thirty leaders and members representing all the MFM churches in the Netherlands, and ten non-members. Two major questions that guided the researcher in the interview include- "What roles do the leaders of the MFM play in the transnationalization of the group to/in the Netherlands?" And, "What are the major cross-cultural challenges faced by the MFM in the Netherlands?

DANIEL OLUKOYA AND HIS MOUNTAIN OF FIRE ANDMIRACLES MINISTRIES (MFM)

Daniel Kolawole Olukoya, the founder and General Overseer of the Mountain of Fire and Miracles Ministries was born in 1956 to the family of Mr. and Mrs. Olukoya a retired police officer and petty trader. He started his primary education at St. John's Christ Apostolic Church primary school in Akure, Ondo state, the hometown of his mother and later moved to Lagos to complete his primary education at the St. Jude's Primary School, Ebutte-Meta. Thereafter, he proceeded to Methodist Boys High School Lagos for his post-primary education. From there, he went to the University of Lagos, where he studied Micro-Biology, and came out with a first class honors degree (Olayiwola 2008, l7).

After his graduation, he taught as a Research Assistant in the Nigerian Institute of Medical Research (NIMR), Yaba, Lagos. From there, he proceeded to the University of Reading, United Kingdom, under the commonwealth scholarship, where he studied Molecular Genetics and obtained a PhD degree. He later returned to Nigeria in 1984 to continue his appointment with NIMR. He equally served as a lecturer and external examiner to some Nigerian Universities; the University of Lagos and the University of Benin. By 1993, Olukoya had risen to the post of the head of Genetics department. In 1998, due to ministerial pressure, he had to resign his appointment,

having risen to the post of the Deputy Director General of the Institute. In his field of specialization, he had an indigenous laboratory of Molecular Biology and Biotechnology. He is said to have many scientific publications to his credit. Olukoya claimed that he became converted in 1974 and began pasturing what he referred to as his first Church in 1981. Olukoya, who was a member of the Christ Apostolic Church (C.A.C), left the Church in 1988, as a result of a conflict in the Church (http://www.mountainoffire.org/about_go.ht,accessed May 20, 2016).

The MFM started in 1989 with a prayer group of seven already meeting in Olukoya's house in Yaba, Lagos state shortly before his secession in 1988. The prayer group then transformed into a deliverance ministry. In that same year, when the membership increased to 24, the group moved to the Nigerian Institute of Medical Research (NIMR), and organized a School of prayers on Wednesdays and a Mid-week service on Thursdays. Still in 1989, due to further constraints of space, the group moved from NIMR to a bigger hall at 60, old Yaba Road, Adekunle, Ebutte Meta, Lagos. Again, the number soared higher and the Church constituted a source of traffic hold-up for motorists in the old Yaba area where she was located. This development made the Church to relocate to plots of land located at 13, Olasimbo Street, Onike, Yaba, in 1994. It was in this year, that the fuIl Sunday services began, and the name Mountain of Fire and Miracles Ministries was taken as the name of the group (Ayegboyin 2005, 37).

The expansion of MFM continues to be a subject of interest, not only within Nigerian/ African Pentecostalism, but, within global Pentecostalism at large. This is because, since her founding in 1989, MFM has continued to record significant expansion not only within Nigeria, but Africa and other continents of the world. In Nigeria, MFM has her presence in nearly all the states, with an average of 15 to 20 or more branches per State. As at 2009, Lagos alone was said to have had over seventy branches of the Church. In Africa, MFM claims to have her presence in at least twenty countries, including Nigeria. These include Uganda, Kenya, Togo, South Africa, Sierra Leone, Namibia, Malawi, Liberia, Ghana,

Ethiopia, Cote D'voire, Congo Brazzaville, Central Africa, Cape Verde, Cameroon, Burkina Faso, Benin Republic and Tanzania. Other branches of the Church are located in three other continents of the world- Europe, Asia and North America (http://www.mountainoffire.org/about_go.html , accessed May 20, 2016).

It is conspicuously displayed on all the websites of the group that the Mountain of Fire and Miracles Ministries is a full gospel ministry which is "devoted to the Revival of Apostolic Signs, Holy Ghost fireworks and the unlimited demonstration of the power of God to deliver to the uttermost". The official logo of the group is that of a mountain burning with fire, and enclosed within two concentric circles. The mountain which symbolizes MFM is believed to be higher than any problems individuals may have, while the fire is symbolic of God's presence and also a representation of the power of God which when called upon, would consume Satan and his cohorts.

The group lays emphasis on absolute holiness within and outside of individuals. This is viewed as the greatest spiritual "insecticide" and requirement for making heaven. MFM is a do-it-yourself Gospel ministry, where individual members are trained to wage war and fight spiritual battles to dislodge the plots of enemies and that of Satan. The beliefs of the MFM are conspicuously printed in their magazines and other documents of the group. Likewise, their various websites glaringly contain these beliefs.

THE DYNAMICS OF LEADERSHIP ROLES IN THE TRANSNATIONALIZATION OF THE MFM

From the field works, we noted that since the founding of the MFM group in the Netherlands in 2002, the leadership continues to play important roles in the transnational activities of the group. First, the leadership plays the role of organizing and leading worship. Like several other religious group, worship is central in the activities of the MFM. In the MFM of the Netherlands, the leadership plays the roles of leading the elements of worship, interpreting scriptures and popularizing the doctrinal peculiarities and deliverance agenda of the group, for the lack of space, I would not be

able to articulate each of these in details. However, it suffices to say that, the doctrinal emphasis and related practices of the leadership in all the meetings of the group center on the issue of deliverance from malevolent spirits.

Warfare prayers against Satan, demons, witchcraft spirits and enemies usually characterize the worship services. In most of the prayer meetings, the leader teaches on topics and biblical passages which motivate members to pray and seriously contend against the devil. For instance in one of the weekly prayer meetings of the MFM in Amsterdam, the title of the teaching was "Dealing with satanic Infirmities." While alluding to 3 John l:2, Kayode Ifebajo the National coordinator informed his listeners that sickness is not God's plan for a believer. He correlated his thoughts with another passage of the Bible, Luke 13:10-17. From this later passage, he was of the opinion that it is Satan who sows sicknesses in the lives of believers, hence, he must be contended with. Following this teaching, he led the congregation in a seven point prayer agenda which focus. The prayer points were as follows:
- "Yokes of infirmity attached to my body, die!"
- "Power of death assigned against my life, die!"
- "Bullets of darkness fired into my life in the dream, die!"
- "Arrows of darkness fired into my body, come out by fire!"
- "Powers that killed my ancestors, I am not your candidate, die by fire!"
- "Healing power of God, enter my body!"
- "I shall not die before my time!"

Every worship service of the MFM is characterized by warfare prayers. It is clear from these roles in worship that the leadership seeks to pursue the vision of the group which is an unflinching belief in deliverance from unwanted spirits.

Second is the role of the leadership in the use of *charismata.* "Charis" is the Greek word for gift. The leader of MFM also exhibit the use of spiritual gifts in their transnational activities. Such gifts are actively displayed during the worship activities of the group. Majorly the members identified the gifts of exorcism,

discernment of spirits, ability to teach scripture and ability to lead prayers as the prevailing spiritual gifts of the leaders. Many members claimed that these gifts have been a source of blessing to them. Exorcism is the expunging or the sending-away of demons or unwanted spirits from a possessed object or person. Africa can be described as especially "a world of the spirits" this is because many people attach the Activities of malevolent spirit to almost every un-wanted experience of life. It is important to note that in the experiences of some of the people, this is a reality and not a myth. In the MFM, the sending-away of the spirits is done through a process of deliverance, which involves intensive vigorous prayers.

Another major role of the leadership is in the area of exercising power and authority. Many of the members are of the opinion that the leaders exercise more of spiritual authority (Joseph, 2009). By this they meant the leaders' authority in spiritual warfare, exorcism, and other spiritual activities of the group. While this claim is true, yet, it does not exclude the dimension of exercising physical authority and power. One observable way by which the leaders exercise power and authority largely, is by their speeches. More often than not, the same way the leaders issue instructions or commands to the possessed person during deliverance prayers, is also relatedly the way they issue instructions to the members. For instance, in reminding people of forth- coming Church programs, it is difficult to hear phrases like, "please be there" or "I will appreciate it if you can make time to come". Rather, you hear tones of commands, such as "You must be there", "Once you are late, the bus will not wait for you", "we will not tolerate any lateness" and so on. From such statements and the dispositions of leaders as persons with "power and authority" one is quick to observe the manifestation of a prestige of power and authority. It is this manifestation that literally often makes the members to cringe before their leaders, particularly before the Pastors. This phenomenon was observed in all the Netherland Churches of the MFM.

In keeping with the goals of the group, it may be appropriate that the leadership uses warfare languages in dealing with perceived unwanted spirits. However, when it comes to her interaction with people; the members of the group, it may be important to be more humane and relate with them as people that are appreciated.

Next is the role of leaders in raising and disbursing funds (resource management). No group or organization can function effectively without adequate funds. The MFM of the Netherlands raises her finances locally from within her members. In all the meetings in which I participated in the MFM of the Netherlands, offerings/tithes were collected. However, there was no excessive or undue emphasis on the issue of money within the group. There are at least three major categories of Nigerian Pentecostals; those who lay emphasis on prosperity, those who lay emphasis on holiness, and those who lay emphasis on deliverance. As noted earlier, the MFM belongs to the third category which lays emphasis on deliverance. Hence, the group does not lay much emphasis on money in all her worship programs. This is not to say that money is not important to the group.

Within the MFM of the Netherlands, finance is primarily raised through three avenues. First is through the offerings and tithes of the members. Second is through willful donations by the members. It is through these self-financing methods that the MEM in the Netherlands pays her rents for the Church space, assists indigent members, executes her ministry projects (when there is one), pays the pastorate salary or stipends and funds all her programs.

CROSS-CULTURAL CHALLENGES
Culture relates to patterns of meaning, values and normativity: ways in which social life is structured, both in respect to freedom and lack of freedom, communion and hierarchy culture covers such things as lifestyle, music, food, language, methods of rearing children, etc. such values are said to lie at the basis of practical life. In the MFM of the Netherlands, Nigerians and other Africans are dominant. While it is true that there are some members who are from the Dutch Antilles, however, the main group in all the MFM churches in the Netherlands and Africans, A major implication of this is that, as Africans, these members

share some cultural affinities that are largely different from those of the Dutch, and this brings some challenges.

Some of the cultural issues that the group takes along to the diaspora include African cosmology of evil, perceptions of the sacredness of human sexuality, 'dress code' (for the female), a sense of community belonging, and respect for elders. For the Dutch, the views on these issues differ from the African perspectives. The MFM appears to hold in a very high esteem the issue of the sacredness of human sexuality. Values like virginity of the un-married and chastity of the married are held in high esteem. In a similar perspective, the group frowns at the issue of same sex marriage. Some of the leaders describe this as a perversion in marriage and a deviation from the purpose of God. The background of these values is traceable to the traditional understanding of most Africans on the issue of human sexuality. For them, human sexuality is not just a natural giving, but a culturally negotiated phenomenon in the African society; such that an individual cannot distort societal adhesiveness through sexual deviation. Contrastively, in a post-Christian society such as the Netherlands, human sexuality and what individuals do about their sexualities is a personal issue. Citizens are free to decide their sexual orientations without any form of discrimination. The MFM sees this culture as challenging.

Members also hold a consensus opinion on the fact that, the issue of community belonging in terms of caring for one another, visitation, togetherness, etcetera, all have a cultural undertone which continues to serve as motivation to them to remain in the group. It was revealed that in spite of the individualistic nature of living in Europe, the leadership is said to demonstrate, promote and encourage communal spirit of doing things together. With some I tried to clarify if they are not confusing the normal mutual care and fellowship which is naturally expected within the body of Christ with what they call the African communal spirit. However, most of the respondents were specific on the fact that they are not mixing the concept of expected Christian fellowship with the issue of African community living. Here again, this practices faces a cultural

challenge among the Dutch. This is because it is an individualistic society where living, decisions, opinions, etc., are personal.

On the issue of clothing, in the MFM of the Netherlands, the use trousers or long pants is forbidden for female members. This is forbidden both in and outside the church. The sentiment here is obviously cultural among other things. Although some of the leaders also held that the Bible condemns the use of trousers by females, while some argue more from the angle of ethical values. In the views of the latter, they inform that the culturally acceptable African dress for females is the use of a wrapper, in the absence of which they would prefer a long skirt. The argument of the leadership in relation to this issue is that as African Christians, the members cannot imitate or compromise their faith in the West. It is important to note that in spite of the repeated emphasis by the leadership against the use of trousers by ladies in the Church, it is a common feature to still find some wearing trousers. Some of these ladies revealed that they are not just trying to be deviants; rather, they love the Church, but that the use of trouser has become a natural part of their normal dressing in Europe. Some admitted that they were not wearing trousers back home in Africa, but having stayed long in Europe, the practice has been imbibed. The second issue on clothing related to women in the Church is the issue of the use of 'head tie' (a covering for the hair). Again in the opinion of many, this is often advised in keeping with traditional African culture, however, the reactions of some women to it is the same with that towards the use of trousers.

Without exaggerations, the matter of dressing for women poises a great cultural challenge to the MFM in her operations in the Netherlands. First, the Western culture sees trousers as clothing for all genders. Second, the harsh weather of the West compels many women to wear trousers in order to keep warm, and third, many of the professions, such as engineering, encourage the use of trousers by women in order to appear smart and also be efficient in their works.

Another area of cultural challenge to the MFM in the Netherlands is in the area of language. In the Netherlands, Dutch is the official

language if communication. It is entirely different from several African languages and hence, many MFM leaders and members believe that the language is difficult to learn or understand. For this reason, many have given-up any attempt to learn Dutch. Some churches organize Dutch learning centers for their members, but in many of these centers, the member do not turn-up, believing that Dutch is difficult to learn. Some Africans have been successful in learning and mastering Dutch, but members of the MFM have not been successful in this.

To the above challenges we must add the challenge of a cultural identity- who am I/who are we? Many African immigrant churches like MFM relate more with their own subculture. The live close to each other, they visit only one another, they work close to each other and they meet in church often with each other. Part of the reasons for this is to maintain religious-cultural identities and also an expression of the fear of being 'contaminated.' One of the pastors of the church informed that, 'owe need to stay close to each other and continually encourage one another in this strange land in order not to be contaminated with ideas which would weaken our faith in Christ, you know how things are back home. We must be on fire for the Lord."

A BRIEF EVALUATION ON CULTURAL INTEGRATION OF THE MFM IN THE NETHERLANDS

The efforts of African Pentecostal immigrants such as the MFM churches in relocating to the Netherlands for economic and religious reasons in Europe, despite its harsh weathers is to be appreciated. Similarly, the efforts of these Africans in seeking ways of surviving economically in Europe are also impressive. Despite these laudable efforts, in the case of the MFM, not much of cultural assimilation and integration has taken place. This development has been largely responsible among other things for the dearth of White Dutch membership in the MFM churches in the Netherlands. We noted that the worldview which the MFM continues to transnationalize is the African Cosmology of evil. This worldview attaches the activities of malevolent spirits to every, human mishap while largely disregarding the roles of individuals in such unwanted experiences. Unfortunately, in a post Christian context like the Netherlands where the views on cosmology of evil are not shared, the MFM which has informed her selective doctrine of deliverance and warfare prayers. God's power to deliver totally from malevolent spirits is the major teaching of the MFM. However, many Christians would agree that, the doctrine of deliverance is not only doctrine in the bible. There several others- love, grace, holiness, and so on. Some of these other teachings of the bible can be explored further for some doctrinal balance, particularly in non-African contexts.

Furthermore, the fear of losing her highly cherished doctrines and religious identities has been partly responsible for the inability of the group to have and maintain economic relations with White Dutch churches (including other African immigrant churches in the Netherlands). In the long run, this posture has not been helpful for the group. It has not been able to attract White Dutch persons.

These cultural challenges will continue to confront the MFM and other African immigrant churches until decisive steps are taken by MFM and other groups. Perhaps, the groups seriously intend to get integrated into the Dutch society, they the beginning point is to give all to takes to learn the Dutch language. Second, African Pentecostal immigrants such as the MFM members must intentionally enroll in Dutch schools; academic institutions are good avenues for cultural integration. Moreover, it is with such degrees that such members can nurse the hope of getting white-collar jobs in the society. Furthermore, the MFM pastors need to enroll in theological colleges or institutions in the Netherlands. Such theological exposures would further prepare them to adequately handle the demands of the pastorate in a post-Christian community such as the Netherlands. To all of these, we must add the need to deliberately and purposefully seek ecumenical cooperation. Without such cooperation with other churches (both White Dutch and others) the dream of cultural integration may remain simply a dream. A crucial demand of cross-cultural missions is the assimilation of the host culture in order to truly incarnate the gospel in the context of the people.

CONCLUSION AND SOME RECOMMENDATIONS

This study began by asking two important questions relating to the roles of the MFM leaders in transnationalizing the group to the Netherlands and the cross-cultural challenges that the group is facing in the context of the West. From the study, the writer noted four important roles that the leadership continues to play. These include- organizing and leading worship, exhibiting spiritual gifts, exercising power and authority, and raising and disbursing funds of the smooth running of the group. In all of these roles, the leadership promotes the goal of the group which is to expel unwanted spirits through vigorous warfare prayers. On the other hand, the MFM continues to experience cultural challenges in the areas of their repeated emphasis on African worldview on evil, language, dressing, and cultural identity.

It was further noted that in both the roles of leaders and the cultural challenges, not much assimilation into the White Dutch society has taken place. Hence, while maintaining her identity, there is the need for a display of more intentionality by the MFM churches in the Netherlands. This can be shown in terms of language acquisition, and the exploration of other doctrinal issues that would make more meaning in the Western context. Furthermore, the MFM should explore more important social activities with positive impacts on the larger White Dutch society. In such a post-Christian society, perhaps, hearts can better be won for Christ by meeting needs that rid the society of ills such as drug addiction, gangsters, and homelessness, among other.

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MEDIATISATION OF INDIGENOUS ORAL PERFORMANCE

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Abstract

Indigenous oral performance is a composite art form. It encompasses the cosmo-spatial realities of Africans while also serving as a virile mechanism for socio-cultural and political orientation, and a source of economic prosperity. This paper observes evidences of new trends in African oral performances, specifically, songs which it focuses on, from its oratorical and 'live' rendition to textual and audio-visual format in modern times. On this premise, it examines factors responsible for this paradigmatic shift with particular attention on its gains, and palpable challenges encountered in the process. In doing this, the paper deploys qualitative research methodology. Findings are that, the emergence of new production and distribution technology, rapid urbanisation and migration, availability of 'techne' (hands-on-skills) and in recent times, the outbreak of Covid 19 pandemic which imposes or constrains social interactions have forcibly led to the adaptation of new strategies of presenting indigenous oral performances. The paper concludes that, irrespective of the media of presentation, these songs express indigenous cultural values with precision, while also possessing the potential to reach an expanded audience of African origin both at home and in diaspora. The paper encourages the sustenance of this approach to oral rendition in order to save this performance tradition from the ravages of history.

Keywords: African Oral Performance, pandemic, Innovative Technology, and Mediatisation

Introduction

The researcher's interest in innovative technology and its application on African traditional performance culture is profound. Not for the perfunctory reason to modernise them in line with some erstwhile ideation, theorisation or philosophical predilection; but because, rethinking the technological probity of indigenous performances would serve a multifarious and expanded audience with diverse theatre experiences and aesthetic taste in the global space. This act will be reminiscent in the role new theatre technology would play as a formidable tool to re-enforce and multiply the aesthetics nuances of traditional performances and the threshold through which audience can easily engage their culture and cultural values in a highly complexified, hybridised and dynamic world. In the researcher's conceived thesis research, he intends to synergise modern high-tech lighting with indigenous lighting systems in the production of select cultural performances, wherefrom, the aesthetic perception of this technical interaction on the performance narrativity will be galvanised and or collated from bearers of these performance elements. This would therefore, lead to the theorisation and articulation of an appropriate modern lighting design template and or model for African traditional performances. It is in furtherance of this mettle that this paper is conceived.

The gamut of oral performance in Africa is broad. It encompasses songs, chants, incantations, riddles, lullabies, proverbs, etc. This performance tradition which has its origin in extant African societies have struggled and survived the harsh percolation of external influences till contemporary times. African oral performance is strongly muted to be anthropocentric because it serves the sociological and psycho-cognitive needs of bearers. Giving preference to songs in the context of this paper, the medium and media of song rendition/production and distribution transmogrified long before that of lighting. The adaptive nature of songs to new approaches is predicated on a number of factors, namely, the emergence of new production technology and distribution channels, rapid urbanisation/migration, and in recent times,

the outbreak of Covid 19 pandemic which constrains social gatherings. The invention of production and distribution hard and software and the use of media outlets like YouTube, Television, Radio, etc. in mediating traditional oral performances ultimately informs the concept called mediatisation of cultural performance. Auslander Philip (2004, p. 112) argues that:

> The concept of "mediatisation" in postmodern culture means that the theatre can no longer be seen as occupying a fine-arts context that is culturally distinct from film, television and other media. The collapse of the distinction between fine arts and mass media has meant that the theatre now functions as a medium and has to compete for audiences with the other media.

As a concept in practice, mediatising oral performances has inevitably served the needs of many Africans who may have lost touch with their cultural heritage. These new medium of expression and communication proved proficient in transmitting African cultural values, mores, yearnings and aspirations, contradictions and cultural solutions as meet the need of the people. While serving these needs, the new media facility is also a warehouse, a memory or achieving medium of both past and present cultural materials-performative and otherwise. The African performative structures, communicative and aesthetic paraphernalia hinges on human memory for survival and subsequent passage from one generation to the other. However, with mediatisation, substantive memory space is created to store these creative knowledge systems. In this regards, "there is little doubt that the landscape of memory has transformed in modern times. How, what and why individuals and societies remember and forget is being shaped by technological, political, social and cultural shifts that interpenetrate memory and memories, their makers, deniers and their (identified mistakenly or otherwise as) 'repositories'"(Andrew Hoskins, 2009, p. 27). As an oral culture where knowledge systems are stored in human memory, mediatising the African knowledge system helps in archiving, preserving and also promoting our unique

cultural heritage within the worlds cultural and performative spaces. Consequently, mediatised songs blur cultural boundaries, because both bearers and non-bearers of the concern culture can access them. Also, accessing these songs is timeless because there are digitized and can be easily accessed irrespective of one's location. It is on the basis of this, that this paper examines factors that led to this paradigmatic shift, the gains accrued there from, and the challenges encountered in the process.

Conceptual Frames: Oral Performance, and Mediatisation

Also referred as oral literature in some scholarly oeuvres, this performative tradition according to Akporobaro, F. B. O (2006, p. 47-8) describes all "verbal communicative forms as folktales, epic, narratives, myths, legends and oral chants" which according to him "exist in simple, sophisticated and complete in form and artistic resources". These oral forms are composed, performed and stored in the memories of artists. Similarly, the memory is further extended to that of audiences who participate in performances and therefore, able to repeat them even after such performance encounter. Akporobaro further perspectivised this tradition as he refers to it as:

> All verbal creations written or spoken which are artistically projected, the collection of oral compositions, recitations and performances of high artistic merit which are products of the creative use of the imagination by artists of the spoken work in pre-literate communities. Such works are composed mentally by illiterate raconteurs, stored in the memory and then spoken, recited, chanted or sung on specific occasions. (p. 34)

The rubic and potentials of this performance tradition transcends pre-literate African societies, for they still exist in their variegated forms today with same intensions of entertaining, mediating, galvanizing and aiding social transformation in African societies. Gunner (2004, p. 1) writes that:

> What we can learn from the African model is that orality manifested as types of formal speech communication, in some

circumstances coexisting with music in form of song, or with instruments and dance generated on almost unimaginable range of genres that enabled and powered social, political and spiritual existence.

Okoh Nkem (2008, p. 87) further explicates that "the intangibility of oral literature means that any given piece remains there, or somewhere, that is, maintains its existence in that state until it is verbalized, actualized or performed. This point to rank performance appropriately, that is in relation to the other attributes of oral literature". Schipper Mineke corroborates that:

> Oral literature is always linked to the performance itself. The significance of the performance and the essential presence of the performers without whom the oral literature cannot even exist, is a fundamental characteristic which in the past has often been overlooked in the study of oral literature. This same characteristic is an essential aspect shaping all theatre. There is a strong parallel between oral literature, theatre, dance and music, which all depend on repeated performances for their continued existence. (p.123)

Akporobaro articulates the characteristics of African oral performance/literature to include:
(a) Great deals of verbal forms which are created orally and transmitted as such are not crude or primitive. They express emotions or important ideas and experiences in terms of stylistic forms that possess intrinsic and artistic beauty.
(b) They have the same qualities which we associate with modern scripted literary expression. These qualities according to him are:
  i. The creative expression of personal experiences, emotions, ideas or social experience for pleasure or moral education.
  ii. The creative use of language for expression of (i.)
  iii. The use of the oral forms for either the symbolic or realistic representation of human behaviour, thought and

beliefs as shaped by his society and culture.
  iv. The creative exploitations of the communicative resources of language. (p. 35)

This broad angle in conceptualising African oral performances is factorial to this research because it will explain the textual and or scriptoria rendering of this traditions as one of the major trends it is experiencing in contemporary times.

As African culture evolves, it interacts with other cultures of the world thus engendering some cultural changes or adaptation of new practices. One exponential influencer of the African culture today is the mass media. The media has succeeded in serving as source of memory through its variegated forms of material conservation. While it remains a virile storage house, it also fundamentally makes easy the sharing of these stored materials to people of varied cultural identity. Hoskins (2009) explicates that "whereas the personal writing and production of memory (scrapbooks, diaries, photographic albums, etc.) of the past were intended for limited consumption, mediatisation has delivered a new self-centred (and immediate) public or semi-public and semi-private, documentation and correspondence, in other words a social network memory"(p. 30). Hoskins therefore, conceptualises mediatisation as "the impact of the media upon processes of social change so that everyday life is increasingly embedded in the mediascape" (p. 29). The profundity at which the media have percolated the human culture and particularly traditional performances informed Auslander's (2004) view that mediatisation "is now explicitly and implicitly embedded within the live experience"(p. 35). He broadens the scope beyond the transmission of live performances to also include the use of media tools such as microphones, speakers, projections, piano, etc., thereby establishing a form of interdependency between media and cultural or theatrical performances. Within this purview, technology is ". . . not a means in itself but a further resource available to an artist in their desire to communicate a story, message or theme"(Auslander, 2004, p.7). Many media outlets are deployed in service of

oral performances; these include the print media, audio and the visual media. This has doffed tailed into multiplicity of outlets namely CDs and DVDs, Youtube, Facebook, Tweeter, Instagram, Satellite, etc. These mediums present new ways of viewing and perceiving theatrical performances and enhance quick and timely access to performance resources.

Theatre and Technology
Technological innovations have revolutionised theatrical performances in recent times. It has changed the way performances are presented and the ways there are viewed. Heidegger Martin (1996, p. 318) agrees that "technology is no mere means. Technology is a way of revealing. If we heed to this, then another whole realm for the essence of technology will open itself to us. It is the realm of revealing … of truth". The import of technological innovation is that it makes dynamic the pattern of producing, presenting, viewing and perceiving performances. Lyotard, perhaps shares this view thus "…the ways in which we think about, categorize and valorise experience are also subject to change at the hands of technological forces" (in Edgar and Sedgwick, 2008, p. 354). Evidently, technology controls and determines many thinks we engage in today. The medium of communication, computation, data processing and analysis, designs, etc. are technology driven. Some scholars have begun to question the rapid percolation of technology and the manner in which it is taking over the craftsmanship of theatre designers. However, the application of new technology in theatre arguments or enhance the aesthetics opulence of performances while also increasing the proficiency of theatre designers in contemporary times. Thomas Hughes (2004, p. 9), on the dynamism in theatre technology and their applicability in new territories wrote that, "technology is culturally bound and shaped for as technology is moved from one culture to another, technology adjusted to fit the culture it finds itself in, as various cultures exhibit different technological styles. This makes culture as well as technology dynamic-being modern or outdated". Hughes, while concurring with the preceding thought, injected a new perspective to which theatre technology can be appreciated-the flexible and dynamic nature of technology which possesses

the capacity to adjust to the culture which it finds itself. This therefore, discountenances any form of replication or transfer of pre-design formation or planning from one culture to another.

Technology in this sense is muted to adjust to the peculiarities of individual cultures in order to serve the essence for which it is used. For instance, while it is digitally possible to create beats for traditional songs, most traditional songsters prefer to maintain the use of traditional instruments, connected to a mixer through microphones, thus creating sounds which are familiar to the people. Arnold Aronson (1999, p. 192) opined that "theatre …is shaped not by specific technological developments, but through transformations in consciousness and modes of perception which may, however, be significantly affected by technology. This is the key to understanding the relationship between theatre and technology" (*Technology and Dramaturgical...*). Lavender Andy again corroborates that, "there are points where changes to technology, and hence to 'techne', do not merely update the way that theatre is made. They make for an alteration to the modes of representation – how we show things and how we see things" (p.3). However, technology cannot perform this function on its own. Some level of technical expertise is required for this transformation to take place. Lavender refers to this skilful personas as 'techne' while also agreeing that "in the theatre or anywhere else – is never just a matter of hardware. It also involves a 'techne'-the hands-on human processes that shape its use" (p.1). It is therefore, the role of these skilled personas in applying these new innovations in line with the specifications of African performances that invariably engendered the new trends which this paper explores in the next section.

Engaging the Paradigmatic Shift in African Oral Performance Culture
Song is among the first aspects of traditional performance that succumbed to the force and influence of technological innovations. In this context, the author is not referring to songs by their virtue of been rendered in indigenous dialect about the erstwhile life and living in contemporary times; but those replete with

cultural conditions, nuances-proverbs, wise sayings, stories, folk lures, aesthetics expressions and are performed on the arena stage. Songs that transmit or transfer cultural milieus from one generation to the other; that project, promote and sustain the cultural identity of the African people. Songs characterised by a distinct cultural stylisation, production and distribution technique as opposed to the contemporary typologies, modes and approaches. This subscription to and or adoption of new production and distribution techniques by traditional songsters cannot easily be quantified on the basis of whether this development is done deliberately or otherwise. However, with the manner in which various cultural tenets and values are jealously guided and maintained both in audio and visual productions of these songs, one would be quick to infer that, African songsters are fully aware of and have deliberately, engendered this paradigmatic shift. Fundamentally, this shift takes two dimensions; from oral and live performance to (i) printed format (modern African literature) (ii) audio-visual format.

In the first instance, oral performance transmogrified from its orality or oratorical rendition to textual and documented literature- what is referred to as modern African literature. In Nigeria, creative writers or playwrights are classified into three generations of first and second generations and the new voices. The first generation of playwrights whose works took nationalistic and cultural sustainability dimensions demonstrated their creative ingenuity in integrating traditional songs and other aspects of oral literature like proverbs, chants, riddles, etc. into their dramatic works. The second generation writers who took the radical middle between the haves and the have not and charted a course for the place of the masses in the Nigerian society also drew resources from the potpourri of oral traditions in Africa. The new voices, a conglomeration of modern creative dramatists also inherited this

quaintness from their predecessors as they relied on traditional songs and other forms of oral literature in communicating irrespective of the issue or thematic preoccupation under scrutiny. Hubert Ogunde's *Strike and Hunger*, Duro Ladipo's *Oba Ko So* andOba Waja, Wole Soyinka's *The King's Horseman and The Strong Breed,* Zulu Sofola's *Wedlock of the Gods*, Iyorwuese Hagher's *Swem Karagbe*, Ahmed Yerima's *The Trails of Oba Onvourawuem* and *Abobaku* among others are plays fused with one form of oral narratives or the other. These narratives are then performed within the context of the production of these plays. Below is a song excerpt from Ahmed Yerima's *Abobaku* to corroborate:

Yoruba Version
Ere iku ni;
Kii sohun erin o
Ere iku ni, kii s'ohun erin o
Ajibade, aye to ba wu o lo le je
Lala, aiye to ba wu o lo le je o
Ere iku ni, kii s'ohun erin o!

Translation
I sang and we danced ... and danced ... the two horse whiskers in your hands jerking to the rhythm. (2015, p. 61)

Though the medium and platform of rendition have changed, infusing songs into documented/published play texts help save them from the ravages of history. Archiving them is simple and accessing them is less complex and also affordable.

The second dimension which oral performance takes is its audio-visual production approach. Traditional song composers and singers now take to modern music production concepts. Their creative works are now produced and or recorded in the studio and in many instances some singers evolve a video concept for their songs. Given the nature of these songs, local performance spaces are used in the production of such videos. Bellow is picture clips from the video production of the Egbede dance group.

Plate 1: *Clips from the musical video production of the Egbede Dance Group of the Igede people of Benue State*

The Egbede dance group is an ensemble of traditional composers, singer and dancers. They make use of cultural spaces, traditional performance arts like musical instruments, masquerades and dance formations particularly the popular *Ogrinye* dance of the Igede people and the indigenous Igede language of the Igede people of Benue State, Nigeria. It is pertinent to note therefore, that this approach further exposes the cultural background and aesthetics of the supposed culture. Therefore, the new method of distribution of oral literature be they in textual or audio-visual format are through CDs, DVDs, bookshops and Online platforms like Amazon, Morebooks.shop, etc., and social media outlets like YouTube, satellites, etc. These mediums of distribution make oral performance to be readily available and easily accessible by audience at the most convenient time and place. In the next section, factors responsible for this trend are discussed.

Factorial Precursors
In this section, factors responsible for the adoption of new technology in song rendition and distribution in contemporary times are explored. The section discusses these causative factors under two broad headings of 'need-led and seed-led' motivations for the adoption of new technological approaches to the production and distribution of oral performance in Africa. These motivations are derived from Toshiharu Taura and Yukari Nagai's (2017) writing on the possibilities or factors that could influence innovation in design and technology and their application in human society. The essence is to negotiate an understanding of why such paradigmatic shift became inevitable in the global space and thus make a case for the sustenance of these approaches.

i.   **Need-led Motivation**
The spate of urbanisation/migration within Africa and from Africa to other continents forms a major motivation for the adoption of new approaches to the production and distribution of oral literature. Generically, people relocate for a number of reasons; the search for greener pastures, education, insecurity, business, etc. As it stands, must major cities in Nigeria are a mixture of diverse languages and nationals who have converged for one reason or the other. Cities like Lagos, Abuja, Kano, Kaduna, Jos, Oyo, etc. are flooded by people from different ethnic divisions and cultural backgrounds. As they leave their traditional roots to cities with different cultural backgrounds they lost touch with their indigenous cultural paraphernalia. To some extent they become acculturated and amass knowledge of the culture of the host society. This no doubt constitutes a big challenge as the culture of migrants gradually recedes from their memories and it is gradually replaced by those of the host society. This paper does not discountenance the understanding and to some level, practicing of the cultural tenets of host societies. As a matter of fact, having knowledge of the culture of the host society helps to build peace and community solidarity. However, to reinvigorate the dwindling culture of migrants requires rethinking and reconfiguring their cultural performances. One major way to achieve this fit is to adopt new production and distribution techniques.

Accordingly, sesign can begin with the recognition of societal changes. This involves listening carefully to product users' voices. This is 'needs-led' design. The introduction of a new product into society is often preceded by market surveys to study user needs and other marketing activities. This is only proper, considering that users make the final evaluation of the product and decide whether to buy it or not. A method for detecting latent needs has recently been proposed which involves a designer infiltrating an area or community in which a given product is likely to be used to 'empathize' with its members and thus identify their latent needs (in Taura and Nagai, 2017, p. 132).

The actual problem is lack of access to these performances. Since the interest in listening to these performances is alive, then it becomes apposite to contemplate the mode of production and distribution of traditional songs in such a manner that they will reach audience in their locations. With this, migrants can easily have access to songs rendered in their indigenous languages and replete with their cultural nuances.

Another motivation for the paradigmatic shift is the outbreak of the Corona Virus pandemic.The outbreak of contagious diseases is not alien to us. As a global community, diseases have continued to constitute threat to social, mental and physical well-being of human beings. The emergence of the Corona Virus in 2019 held the world to its knees, limiting any form of social or religious gatherings. While its severity may be declining in Nigeria and many African countries given the low number of infected cases recorded on daily basis, the onslaught from Covid 19 is still ravaging other parts of the world. To this end, many sectors of the world's economy are diversifying from contact interactions to virtual platforms. Since traditional performances are performed live, the horrendous effect of Covid 19 and unanticipated future pandemics will erode our performances in no distances time. Therefore, given this drift to virtual platforms, it is apposite that our oratorical performances adopt same methodologies either by transmitting live performances or recording and packaging them for sales in CDs, DVDs and online platforms.

ii. 'Seed-led' Motivation

Under the seed-led motivation, the emergence of new media technology and the availability of technical expertise are probable.The evolution in production and distribution technology would become meaningless without engaging or applying them in new territories. Taura and Nagai lend credence to this possibility thus:

> ...when basic knowledge is acquired about a new material, information technology and so forth, it is often the case that products are sought out to which the new knowledge can be applied. For example, in the case of carbon fibre, its structure and manufacturing methods were first developed, and the scope of its application has rapidly expanded, now including even aircraft fuselages. (p. 132)

Therefore, with technological evolution in the print media, audio-visual production and distribution it is logical for artists to test run them in new territories. Perhaps, traditional songs became a good testing ground for these innovations.

The final considerable factor in this regards is the availability of 'techne'(hands-on-skills). The availability of persons with the requisite technical expertise has also contributed in engendering and sustaining these new approaches to oral literature in Africa. This includes experts in musical and video productions, the print media, and distributors who shoulder the task of making available these creative works for consumption.

Engaging the Challenges

The first major challenge confronting the 'mediatisation' of African oral literature is the fear of tempering with its originality. The transposition from oral and live performance to written form could be affected by the proficiency in the language and writing dexterity of the creative writer. Writers with adequate knowledge in indigenous language may however, be able to perfectly transfer these songs from one medium to the other without any problematics, while the same cannot be said of writers with little or no proficiency in indigenous language. In addition, instances of taking such exercise for granted could also lead to negligence in

transferring them with the required vicissitude. This could affect the structure and meaning of such songs. Similarly, the originality of these songs may further be affected by the performing artists' ability to understand, interpret and sing these songs in the manner in which there are originally sang. Since our institutions and Theatre or Performing Arts Departments are a multicultural teaching and learning environment, the possibility for the difficulty in engaging these songs cannot be overruled.

Another perspective is discernible from the fear or skeptical position of scholars and practitioners on the danger of integrating technology into traditional performances. Dave Carolan (2017, p. 349) who wrote on the live transmission of live performances explains this contention thus:

> The advent of information technology may appear to be an antagonist in Theatre's struggle. Indeed, I.T. percolates our daily lives, providing innumerable distractions that forestall the opportunity to take part in theatre. Beyond opportunities inherent in I.T. that allow practitioners to promote their work, there is a tangible scepticism that digital interference can destroy what is inherent to the theatrical experience.

This is not exactly true of traditional oral performances which have undergone apparent transposition from live performances to recorded format. In this frame, indigenous cultural paraphernalia are highly guided and appropriately transmitted through the aid of technology. In fact many traditional songsters make use of traditional instrument in creating beats for their songs. Relatedly too, they make use of traditional performances spaces, costumes and other cultural intricacies in the video productions for their songs. However, the challenge with this form of transposition is that the 'live' experience of these performances is lost. The live performer feeds on the feedback he gets from a live audience. This in turn stimulates and spurs the performer. However, this is not the case when these performances are recorded. Carolan again explains that:

> There is the difficulty of unintended alienation since the actors, performing live, feed off the audience reacting before them.... In such a case, a certain disparity of sensation arises, and such an experience feeds into what one considers as the traditional barrier or screen that theatre as we experience it seeks to break through. (p. 349)

This challenge however, remained insurmountable, for as the current global challenges continue to wreak havoc on world political and cultural economy, indigenous performances must out of necessity continue to contemplate performance strategies in order not to be left behind or wiped out completely. M. McLuhan (1991, p. 42) corroborates this view thus:

> If a new technology extends one or more of our senses outside us into the social world, then new ratios among all our senses will occur in that particular culture. It is comparable to what happens when a new note is added to a melody. And when the sense ratios alter in any culture then what had appeared lucid before may suddenly become opaque, and what had been vague or opaque will become translucent.

As new technology percolate African traditional performances, a new way of perceiving and understanding them cannot be ruled out. Chances are therefore, that these media of presentation would help save our cultural performances and by extension our cultural heritage if the originality of these songs are maintained as they change medium from live to textual/documented to audio-visual forms. Therefore, the future of African oral performance is will witness live transmission to variegated audiences in the comfort of their homes.

Conclusion

In this paper, the deployment of new media technology with specificity on production and distribution technology on indigenous song performance is chronicled. The engagement of new media platforms, namely; YouTube, satellites, CDs and DVDs and their presentation in textual forms feature

rigorously. The paper observes that traditional composers and singers adopt new approaches to song performance due to urbanisation and migration of citizens away from their cultural backgrounds to environments with different cultures. In addition, the availability of new media technology and the outbreak of pandemic which has restrained human social gathering are also chronicled to have contributed to the emergence of new approaches to oral narrativity in Africa. Observatory challenges include probable lost of originality especially when transposition from oral to written form or their performance is done by writers or artists with little or no proficiency in the language or culture concerned and apparent percolation of this performance tradition by technology. Beyond the periscope of these challenges are immeasurable gains which this paradigmatic shift provides. Chief among these gains are the promotion, sustenance and transmission of indigenous cultural values and easy and quick access to traditional songs at the comfort of the homes of patrons. Anchored on this premises, it is apposite to infer that this paradigmatic shift has not only opened up new ways of understanding and perceiving traditional song culture, but has also engendered and or evolved an approach that will sustain and prevent them from eroding in contemporary times. To this effect, maintaining this approach is pertinent as it will serve both the performance culture, the generality of the African culture and the African consentient as a whole.

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THE AVAILABILITY AND UTILIZATION OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN RIVERS STATE UNIVERSITIES, NIGERIA.

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Abstract

The study examined the availability and utilization of information and communication technology for effective teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State, Nigeria. Three Research questions and three hypotheses were raised to guide the study. The population of the study were 150 academic staff drawn from selected departments in the University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State University and Ignatius Ajuru University of Education. To this end 60 academic staff were drawn from University of Port Harcourt, 50 from Rivers State University and 40 academic staff were drawn from Ignatius Ajuru bringing the total population to 150 persons. The sample of this study was 60 persons making 40% of the total population. The selection was done using the stratified random sampling technique and simple random sampling technique The data collected from the respondents were analyzed using the mean and standard deviation to answer the research questions while the hypothesis were tested using the t-test at 0.05 level of significance. The results of the study among others showed the adequacy of ICT facilities in federal and state universities. The paper concluded that in spite of the concerted efforts by government in the provision of ICT tools in universities in Rivers state. The ICT tools are under-utilized this is not unconnected with lack of adequate training of staff, poor electricity power supply among others. The study recommended among others that the federal government should address the challenges of power supply and high cost of internet facilities in Nigeria.

Keywords: Availability, utilization, information and communication technology, university education.

Introduction

Education allover the world is recognized as a veritable instrument for the development of any nation hence individuals and nation mobilize resources towards the provision of education that will not only provide the immediate needs of the society but also compete favourable in the community of nations Any country educational system is a reflection of the trends of events in the state hence education is used as a yardstick in determining developing and developed nations. Education provides an opportunities for the learner to acquire relevant skills, knowledge and positive values that will help the individuals to contribute to the development of the society. Education is adjudged as the vehicle in achieving individual potentials as well as enhancing cordial relationship between the citizens. It is against this background that the Nigeria philosophy on education stated that education is used to promote unity and harmony and indivisible nation (National Policy of Education, 2014).

It is pertinent to mention that for education to achieve these goals, Nigeria educational system must change from the traditional and antiquate methods to a more scientific method. The educational system must shift from analog to smart system that is digital. And this bring to focus the educational system that will integrate the information technology in teaching and learning. The university education come to mind been the zenith of academic pursuit that can promote national and international understanding and interaction with the view to contribute to the national development. This bring to fore the importance of information and communication technology for effective teaching and learning.

Information and communication technology is the use of computer and other digital system in teaching and learning for the benefit of the

learners and teachers for maximum achievement of educational goals. Information and communication technology is the conglomeration of computers, computer networks and other information technology that can be used in the collection of data, process, analyze, store and retrieve or disseminate for the purpose of achieving educational goals (Wordu, 2019). Therefore, information and communication technology is a generic word that consists the use of electronic to create, organize, store, and analysis information and communicate for the purpose of enhancing teaching and learning, it include the evaluation and assessment of learning outcome and indeed the entire educational system. Examples of information and communication technology tools are the radio, television, computer and other information electronic devices that is used in storing, analyze and disseminate information for the purpose of achieving teaching and learning, this encompass the telephone, iPad, iPhone, tablet, (computers) television CD ROM radio and the internet.

In similar vein, Nwokedi (2012) defined information as an idea conceived by the human mind. Information technology is the technology used in the storing of idea or knowledge that needs to be communicated with the use of specific products. While communication on the other hand is the transferring of information from the source to the destination where it is needed with the intention of producing a change in the behavior of receiver. Therefore, information and communication technology are the tools used in communication. It has the capacity to create, organize, disseminate, store, retrieve and manage information (Akpan and Efor 2017).

Blurton (1999) supported the definition that ICT is a set of technological tools and services used to communicate and create, disseminate, store and manage information. These technologies include computers, internets, broadcasting technology (radio and television) and telephone. In the same vein, Herseleman and Brilton (2002) opined that information and technologies are networked system comprising of data processing and storage, and retrieval of information.

The upsurge of information and communication technology has caused a shift in the entire human existence. There are hardly any human endeavor without the influence of information technology namely in the banking, agricultural science, commerce just to mention but few, thus education is not left out. The beauty of it is that the advance world has integrated information technology into the educational services and in the process it has provided a whole spectrum of educational services to the end users. More importantly, education services are made more accessible to anyone, anywhere, anytime with the purpose of acquiring positive values, skills, knowledge and empowerment as relate to the learning objectives.

In recognition of the importance of information and communication technology the federal government has made concerted efforts towards the integration of ICT into the educational system. The National Policy on Education aptly captured the importance of information technology in making the students all round improvement in university education by studying information and communication technology among other subjects.

In similar vein the federal government lunched various programs in the bid to integrate ICT to educational system. Computer Education is one of the entrepreneur course offered in the post basic education. Furthermore, in 1988 the federal government development a National Policy on Computer Education with the objective to encourage teachers to use information and communication in solving the challenges associated with teaching and learning. The initiative was implemented by the federal government through pilot studies/unity schools. Consequently, there was massive procurement and installations of computers in schools. As follow up in 2001, the National Policy for Information and Technology was formulated with a vision to make Nigeria IT capable country in Africa and by extension a major player in information technology. Subsequently, the schoolnet Nigeria was also launched in September, 2001 and was funded by Education Trust Fund (ETF), schoolnet is a non-profit organization committed to effective and sustainable deployment and use of information and

communication technology to enhance teaching, learning, and management process in Nigeria schools. The schoolnet Nigeria was an affiliate of schoolnet Africa with basic functions of coordinating ICT policy projects and the development of ICT through manpower training and content development. Also of importance is the computers-in-schools project that started in 2002 with the objective to develop and enhance technical literacy.

In June 2003, at the African summit of the world economic forum held in Durban, South Africa, the New Partnership for Africa Development (NEPAD) launched e-schools initiative. The objectives of the NEPAD is to provide ICT skills to learners, teachers and the managers of schools. NEPAD also intended to equip all African high schools with ICT equipment including computers, radio and television sets, phones and fax machine, communication equipment, scanners, digital cameras and among other things. It is also meant to connect African students to internets (Adomi & Kpangban 2010). In the same vein, the federal government under the leadership of President Olusegun Obasanjo commissioned National Information Technology Development Agency in the year 2007. The main objective is to provide ICT as a tool in tertiary institution to drive the mechanism of education sector in the country. Within the first three years of establishment, the country supplied 5700 computer system to over 187 educational institutions in the country which includes universities, secondary and primary schools (Wikipedia online).

From the Foregoing discussion, the federal and state government had made a concerted efforts towards the integration of ICT into the educational system. But a cursory look at the Nigerian educational system, it appears that education system in Nigeria is yet to extensively adopt ICT tools in teaching and learning. Universities in Nigeria are still adopting the old and archaic conventional methods of makers and mark boards system, textbooks and constant interfacing between the teacher and students. Hence, divesting the students of the benefits associated with ICTs like promoting learning by doing, enables self-paced learning, enriches learning through a combination of audio and video. As if to aggravate the situation, the university administrators still keeps records in files, result sheets are kept in hard copies and kept in filling cabinets where they accumulate dust and exposed to rodents and pest which makes it difficult to retrieve. It is against this background that the study is carried out to examine the availability and utilization of information and communication technology for teaching and learning in university education in Rivers State, Nigeria.

Statement of the Problem

Information and communication technology is international adjudge as a veritable tools for effective teaching and learning, content development, curriculum development and in fact in every facets of educational administration and planning. The integration of ICT by the advance economy has yielded numerous benefits to the educational system by making education accessible, available and affordable.

In spite of the integration of information and communication technology in the advance economy and the resultant effects on their economy especially the educational system. It appears that the universities in Rivers State are yet to fully integrate information technology into the university education. A cursory look at the university education in Rivers State shows abysmal performance on the use of technology in teaching and learning. The lecturers are still using old conventional talk and chalk method with constant interfacing between the teachers and students. The university education still very expensive with many of adult learners still outside the educational wall. The classroom are still overcrowded with students in spite the numerous ICT tools available to the students. More dishearten is the massive failure and drop out of students in university education and in the process compounding the army of unemployed and unemployable citizens roaming the street. These, if not handle with pose as potential threats to the unity and the achievement of education goals in Nigeria.

It is pertinent to note that today world is information technology driven and anybody who does not follow the currency of reality of events will have themselves relegated to the background and will consequently expire while

still alive. Furthermore, the amount and complexity of information available in the university continues to increase at enormous rate. This has increasingly made university education to be complex and its managements becoming more demanding than ever before. With the explosion in students' enrollment and multiplicity of programs, universities are required to handle large volume of data which they need to process speedily to provide information for decision making. Therefore the low level of the use of ICT will pose a serious threat to ability of the university to handle large volume of information at a fast rate. In fact, the tradition university role of teaching and learning, research and community development will diminish and this situation will pose as a threat to goal attainment.

The Purpose of the Study

The study investigated the availability and usage of information and communication technology for effective teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State, Nigeria.

Specifically, the study sought to

a) examine the availability of ICT for effective teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State

b) examine the usage of ICT for effective teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State

c) determine the impact of ICT facilities for effective teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to guide the study.

a) What is the level of availability of ICT facilities in federal and state universities for teaching and learning in Rivers State?

b) What is the level of utilization of ICT facilities in federal and state universities for teaching and learning in Rivers State?

c) What is the impact of ICT facilities in federal and state universities for teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses ware postulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance.

H_{01} There is no significant difference between the lecturers of federal and state universities in their mean rating on the availability of ICT facilities in Rivers State.

H_{02} There is no significant difference between lecturers of federal and state universities in their mean rating in the level of utilization of ICT facilities in universities in Rivers State.

H_{03} There is no significant differences between the lecturers of federal and state universities in their mean rating on the impact of ICT in universities in Rivers state.

Methodology

The study is essentially a descriptive survey design. The design seek the opinions of the members of the study population based on the variables under investigation. This is considered as appropriate for the study because it involves collecting data on the study and describing in a systematic manner the characteristics, features of the facts about the given population based on the analysis on the opinion of the respondents. The population of the study is 150 academic staff drawn from selected departments in the University of Port Harcourt, Rivers State University and Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Port Harcourt. To this end 60 academic staff were drawn from the University of Port Harcourt, 50 academic staff were drawn from Rivers State University and 40 academic staff were drawn from Ignatius Ajuru University bringing the total population to 150 persons. The sample of this study was 60 persons making 40% of the total population. The selection was done using the stratified random sampling technique and simple random sampling technique. The instrument used for data collection was a self-designed questionnaire title "Information and communication technology and its usage in the universities in Rivers state". Questionnaire (ICTTURQ) it was divided into section A and B. the section A seeks to elicit information on the demographic data of the respondents and section B seek to elicit information on the availability and usage of information and communication technology. There were 22 items questionnaire, 1-7 seeks responses on question 1; item 8-13 seeks responses on research question 2 and 14-22 seeks responses on research question 3. The 22 items of the instruments were structured along the 4point modified likert scale of very

adequate (VA), adequate (A) inadequate (I) and grossly inadequate (IA) while 8-13 were structured still using the modified likert of highly utilized (HU), moderately utilized (MU), underutilized (UU) and grossly utilized (GU) and all were rated 4,3,2 and 1 respectively.

Data Presentation and Analyses.

The data was collected from 57 academic staff drawn from selected department in federal and state universities in Rivers State who completely filled and returned copies of the questionnaire administered on them.
The result of the analysis are shown below.

Research Question One

What is the level of availability of ICT facilities in universities for teaching and learning in Rivers State?

Table 1: Mean and standard deviation (SD) of availability of ICT facilities in universities for teaching and learning.

S/N	Items	Federal universities				state			
	Academic staff from				Academics staff from universities				
		N	X	SD	Cm	N	X	SD	Cm
1	Have computers in your university	22	3.16	0.68	2.50	35	3.11	0.66	2.50
2	Electronic (smart) board in your university	22	2.38	0.34	2.50	35	2.25	0.21	2.50
3	Projector in your university	22	2.42	0.38	2.50	35	2.34	0.32	2.50
4	Internet/servers in your university	22	3.08	0.61	2.50	35	2.89	0.62	2.50
5	CD-ROMs in your university	22	2.69	0.53	2.50	35	2.58	0.54	2.50
6	Printer in your university	22	3.04	0.58	2.50	35	2.65	0.59	2.50
7	Scanner in your university	22	2.86	0.56	2.50	35	2.63	0.57	2.50
8	Have photocopies in your university	22	3.12	0.66	2.50	35	2.81	0.60	2.50
9	Have fax machine in your university	22	2.43	0.39	2.50	35	2.26	0.23	2.50
10	Have audio tapes in your university	22	3.09	0.62	2.50	35	2.58	0.53	2.50
	Grand mean	**22**	**2.83**	**0.54**	**2.50**	**35**	**2.61**	**0.49**	**2.50**

Data in table 1 revealed that computers, internet/server, CD-ROMs, printers, scanners, photocopiers and audio tapes are available in federal and state universities in Rivers State. However, data in table 1 also indicate that electronic (smart) boards, projectors and fax machine are inadequate in federal and state universities in Rivers State. The grand mean response for academic staff in federal universities (x⁻=2.83) and academic staff in state universities (x⁻=2.61) shows that the ICT facilities are available in universities in the state. Also, the standard deviation shows the extent of agreement by academic staff in federal and state universities on the availability of ICT facilities in their respective universities in Rivers State.

Research Question Two

What is the level of utilization of ICT facilities for teaching and learning in federal and state universities in Rivers State?

Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) on utilization of ICT facilities in federal and states universities in Rivers State.

S/N	Items	Federal universities				state universities			
		N	X	SD	Cm	N	X	SD	Cm
1	Use of computer	22	2.43	0.38	2.50	35	2.22	0.17	2.50
2	Teacher's use of internet in subject taught and checking of materials	22	2.38	0.34	2.50	35	2.31	0.25	2.50
3	Use of Electronic board for teaching and learning	22	2.23	0.21	2.50	35	2.18	0.14	2.50
4	Use of video conference in teaching and learning	22	2.29	0.24	2.50	35	2.21	0.16	2.50
5	Use of multimedia projector for teaching and learning	22	2.31	0.26	2.50	35	2.23	0.19	2.50
6	Use of electronic (smart) board for teaching and learning	22	2.24	0.21	2.50	35	2.17	0.13	2.50
	Grand Mean	**22**	**2.31**	**0.27**	**2.50**	**35**	**2.21**	**0.17**	**2.50**

Data in Table 2 shows that academic staff from federal and state universities indicate a low level utilization of ICT facilities in teaching and learning. The mean score for the utilization of each ICT facilities in both federal and state universities is less than 2.50 (the criterion mean). Also, the grand mean score for both federal and state universities is less than the criterion mean (2.50). The result of this research question indicates that ICT facilities are under-utilized in teaching and learning in both federal and state universities in Rivers State.

Research Question Three
What is the impact of ICT facilities on teaching and learning in universities in Rivers State?

Table 3: Mean and Standard Deviation (SD) on impact of ICT facilities on teaching and learning.

S/N	Items	Federal universities				state universities			
		N	X	SD	Cm	N	X	SD	Cm
1	Academic writing	22	2.98	0.94	2.50	35	2.85	0.79	2.50
2	Development of research work	22	3.07	0.97	2.50	35	2.89	0.86	2.50
3	Publishing of research work	22	2.94	0.91	2.50	35	2.86	0.83	2.50
4	In learning new skills	22	2.91	0.86	2.50	35	2.72	0.68	2.50
5	Working with other lecturers	22	2.73	0.67	2.50	35	2.68	0.65	2.50
6	Enhancing teaching methodology	22	2.61	0.55	2.50	35	2.56	0.52	2.50
7	Enhancing communication tools among lecturers	22	2.58	0.53	2.50	35	2.53	0.49	2.50
8	In preparation of lessons plans	22	2.52	0.48	2.50	35	2.51	0.46	2.50
9	Enhance independent studies	22	2.84	0.78	2.50	35	2.71	0.67	2.50
	Grand Mean	**22**	**2.79**	**0.74**	**2.50**	**35**	**2.70**	**0.66**	**2.50**

Data in Table 3 reveal that academic staff from federal and state universities agree that ICT facilities to a high extant impact on teaching and learning. This mean score for the impact of each ICT facilities in both federal and staff universities is greater than 2.50 (the criterion

mean). Also, the grand mean score for both federal and state universities is greater than the criterion mean (2.50). The result of this research question reveals that ICT facilities to a high extent impact on teaching and learning in the universities.

Hypothesis One
There is no significant differences between the lecturers of federal and state universities in their mean rating on the availability of ICT facilities in Rivers State.

Table 4: t-test analysis of mean rating of the responses of lecturers in federal and state universities on the availability of ICT facilities.

University	N	X	SD	DF	Cal.t value	Crit.t Value	Level of sig	Rmk
Federal University	22	2.83	0.54					
State University	35	2.61	0.49	55	1.571	2.021	0.05	Not Significant

Data in table 4 shows that the calculated t-value (1.571) is less than the critical t-value (2.021) at 0.05 level of significance. The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the response of the lecturers of federal and state universities in their mean rating on the availability of ICT facilities does not significantly differs in Rivers State. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted while the alternate hypothesis is rejected. The finding of the hypothesis is that the availability of ICT facilities in federal and state universities does not significantly differ in Rivers State.

Hypotheses Two
There is no significant difference between lecturers of federal and state universities in their mean rating in the level of utilization of ICT facilities in university education in Rivers State.

Table 5: t-test analysis of mean rating of the responses of lecturers in federal and state universities on the level of utilization of ICT facilities in university education in Rivers State

University	N	X	SD	DF	Cal.t value	Crit.t Value	Level of sig	Rmk
Federal University	22	2.31	0.27					
State University	35	2.21	0.17	55	0.714	2.021	0.05	Not Significant

Data in Table 5 shows that the calculated t-value (0.714) is less than the critical t-value (2.021) at 0.05 level of significance. Since the calculated t-value (0.714) is less than the critical t-value (2.021) at 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is accepted while the alternative hypothesis is rejected. The finding of this hypothesis is that the level of utilization of ICT facilities in federal and state universities does not significantly differ in Rivers State.

Hypothesis Three
There is no significant difference between the lecturers of federal and state universities in Rivers State in their mean rating on the impact of ICT in teaching and learning.

Table 6: T-test analysis of mean rating of the responses of lecturers in Federal and State universities on the impact of ICT in teaching and learning.

University	N	X	SD	DF	Cal.t value	Crit.t value	Level of sig	Rmk
Federal University	22	2.79	0.74					
State University	35	2.70	0.66	55	0.451	2.021	0.05	Not Significant

Data in table 6 revealed that the calculated t-value (0.451) is less than the critical t-value (2.021) at 0.05 level of significance. Since the calculated t-value (0.451) is less than the critical t-value (2.021) at 0.05 level of significance, the null hypothesis is accepted while the alternative hypothesis is rejected. The finding of this hypothesis is that the responses of lectures in federal and states universities on the impact of ICT in teaching and learning does not significant differ in Rivers State.

Discussion of findings
The finding of research question one (table 1) indicated the adequacy of ICT facilities in federal and state universities in Rivers State. The result shows that while computers, internet/servers, CD-ROMs, printers, scanners, photocopies and audio tapes are available, electronic (smart) boards, projectors and fax machine are in adequate.

When a response of lecturers in federal and state universities in Rivers Stare was subjected to t-test (Table 4) the calculated t-value is less than the critical t-value at 0.05 level of probability. This result means that the ICT facilities are provided in the federal university is also provided in states universities and vice versa. This result is in agreement with Vinani (2015) that ICT facilities are provided in federal and state universities for teaching and learning.

The finding of research question two (table 2) revealed that ICT facilities are under-utilized in teaching and learning in federal and state universities in Rivers State. However, when the responses of lecturers in federal and state universities in Rivers State was subjected to t-test (Table 5), the calculated t-value is less than the critical t-value at 0.05 level of significance. This result revealed that computers are nor well utilized as well as internet, electronic boards and multimedia

projectors. Also, video conference is under-utilized in teaching and learning in federal and state universities in Rivers State. This is in agreement with Aunlobi and Anuslem (2012) that ICT facilities provided in the universities are under-utilized and not properly maintained. This has affected the quality of teaching and learning in the universities in the State. The finding of research question three (Table 3) shows that ICT facilities to a high extent impact on teaching and learning in federal and state universities in Rivers State. However, when the responses of lectures in federal and state to t-test, (Table 6), the calculated t-value is less than the critical t-value at 0.05 level of significance. This result is due to the fact that ICT facilities is useful in academic writing, research activities, learning new skills, working with other lectures, preparation of lesson plans, etc. this result is in agreement with Ohiwerei, Azih and Okoli (2013) that ICT facilities tremendously impact on the activities of lecturers in federal and state universities.

Conclusion
The integration of ICT in the educational system has broken the barriers inhabiting effective teaching and learning. ICT is now a new lexicon in educational system and has provided effective school administration extending from setting and typing of examination question papers to proper assessment and evaluations of students. The Government in recognition of the importance of ICT has espoused ICT into educational system. The state government and cooperate establishment has also reciprocate by providing computers and its accessories in the school system. Despite the concerted efforts of governments in providing ICT tools, the utilization of ICT facilities is grossly inadequate. This is not unconnected to poor electric power supply, inadequate manpower, high cost for the procurement and installation of computers and its accessories, lack of

adequate infrastructure that are ICT compliance etc. In spite of these short falls, there is no gain saying that the lecturers had not gained from ICT tools in enhancing learning and teaching mostly in the area of project writing, development of research work, enhancing communication among lecturers etc. Therefore, the paper concludes that in spite of the concerted efforts of government and non-governmental agencies in the provision of ICT tools in universities in Rivers state. The ICT tools are under-utilized this is not unconnected with inadequate fund allocated to universities, poor electricity, lack of adequate training of staff among others. The government and multi-national companies should not only provide computers and the related information technology tools but should also be involved in capacity development of lecturers.

Recommendation

In the light of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are proffered.

1. The National University Commission (NUC) as a regulatory body should ensure that all academic staff should be trained in computer literacy. Computer literacy should be prerequisite condition for the promotion of lecturers in university education.

2. The university authorities should partner with reputable computer manufacturers in providing computers to academic staff at a subsidized rate. Also, the administrators of schools should ensure that academic staff are trained and re-trained in latest computer software.

3. Government at all level should provide adequate funds to universities in order to enable universities procure and maintain ICT tools.

4. The management of university should also make available internet facilities to lecturers to enhance proficiency in academic work.

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