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Abstract

This paper examines the impact of value added tax (VAT) on the economic growth of Nigeria. The objective of this paper is to investigate the relationship between VAT and Nigeria’s economic growth. To achieve this objective, time series data on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and VAT were collected from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) for the period 1999-2016. The study employed Ordinary Least Square (OLS) and the findings revealed that there is positive and significant relationship between Value Added Tax (VAT) and economic growth in Nigeria. Thus, conclude that revenue from value added tax improves economic growth in Nigeria. It recommends amongst others that, to ensure sustainable economic growth and development, generated tax revenue from VAT must be sufficient, efficiently and judiciously utilized.

Key Words: Value Added Tax, Economic Growth, Sustainable Development
1.0 INTRODUCTION

Value Added Tax (VAT) has become a major source of revenue in many developing countries. In sub-Saharan Africa for example, VAT has been introduced in Benin Republic, Cote d’Ivoire, Guinea, Kenya, Madagascar, Mauritius, Niger Republic, Senegal, Togo, and Nigeria. Evidence suggests that in these countries, VAT has become an important contributor to total government tax revenues (Ajakaiye, 2000). Shalizi and Squire (1988) found that VAT accounted for about 30% of total tax revenues in Cote d’Ivoire, Kenya and Senegal in 1982. The oil producing countries are not excluded from the list of countries introducing this tax hurdle. Tait (1989) showed that VAT has been in effect in Ecuador and Mexico since at least 1973 and by 1983 accounted for 12.35% and 19.71% of total government revenues in these counties respectively. Indonesia introduced VAT in 1983 and by 1988; the ratio of VAT revenue to GDP had risen to 4.5% (Bogetic and Hassan, 1993).

This impressive performance of VAT in virtually all countries where it has been introduced, according to Ajakaiye (2000), clearly influenced the decision to introduce VAT in Nigeria in January 1994. VAT is a consumption tax that is relatively easy to administer and difficult to evade and it has been embraced by many countries worldwide (Federal Inland Revenue Service, 1993). Evidence so far supports the view that VAT revenue is already a significant source of revenue in Nigeria. For example, actual VAT revenue for 1994 was N8.189 billion, which is 36.5% higher than the projected N6 billion for the year. Similarly, actual VAT revenue for 1995 was N21 billion compared with the projected N12 billion. In terms of contributions to total federally collected revenue, VAT accounted for about 4.06% in 1994 and 5.93% in 1995. As much as N404.5 billion was collected on VAT (Ajakaiya, 2008).

While the performance of VAT as a source of revenue in Nigeria is encouraging, it remains difficult to find attempts to systematically assess the impact of VAT on the economy. Recent research works on
the impact of taxation on the Nigerian economy lumped up all the various taxes together without isolating VAT. How and in what direction has VAT been affecting the Nigerian economy, proxy by Gross Domestic Product (GDP)? Is there any causality between the two economic variables? Finding answers to these and other similar questions is the main trust of this paper. The rest of the paper is divided into four sections. Section two is on conceptual framework and review of related literature. Section three is on data and research methodology. Section four is on findings and discussions while Section five summarizes and concludes the paper.

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of value added tax on economic growth in Nigeria. Specifically, the objective is to ascertain if value added tax could relate with economic growth in Nigeria. In view of the above objective, the study seeks to test hypothesis of no significant relationship between value added tax and gross domestic product in Nigeria from 1999 to 2016.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

VAT is a consumption tax levied at each stage of the consumption chain and borne by the final consumer of the product or service (Okafor, 2012). Each person is required to charge and collect VAT at a flat rate of 5% on all invoiced amounts on all goods and services not exempted from paying VAT, under the Value Added Tax (Act 1993) as amended. Where the VAT collected on behalf of the government (output VAT) in a particular month is more than the VAT paid to other persons (input VAT) in the same month, the difference is required to be remitted to the government, on a monthly basis, by the taxable person (Oserogho and Associates, 2008). Where the reverse is the case, the taxpayer is entitled to a refund of the excess VAT paid or more practically, to receive a tax credit of the excess VAT from the government. All exports are zero rated for VAT, i.e. no VAT is payable on exports. Also, VAT is payable in the currency of the transaction under which goods or services are exchanged. Every person, whether resident in Nigeria or non-resident in Nigeria, who

*Kyari & Akwe (2017)*
sells goods or renders services in Nigeria under the VAT (Act 1993) as amended is obligated to register for VAT within six months of its commencement of business in Nigeria.

Registration is with the Federal Board of Inland Revenue (FBIR). The VAT Act (as amended) provides that a foreign non-resident person or company that carry on economic activities in Nigeria is also obligated to register for VAT, using the address of the person with whom it has a subsisting economic activity for purposes of correspondence with FBIR and for compliance with the VAT Law. The foreign non-resident person or company is required upon registration for VAT to include in its invoice VAT at 5% with instructions to the receiver of the goods or services to remit the VAT in the currency of the transaction to the Nigerian government on behalf of the foreign nonresident person. A taxable person, whether Nigerian resident outside Nigeria, who fails or refuses to register for VAT administration within six months of engaging in any economic activity in the territory of Nigeria is liable to pay a penalty of $67.00 for the first month that the failure occurs and a further penalty of $34 for each subsequent month in which the failure continues. In addition to the fines for non-registration, Section 32 of the VAT Act (as amended) authorizes the FBIR to seal up the premises from where the economic activity in question is being carried on within the territory of Nigeria.

3.0 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study review three theories of taxation: the cost of service theory, the benefit theory and the socio-political theories of taxation. According to the cost of service theory, the people who are the ultimate receivers of the service must collectively meet the cost incurred by government in providing certain services to the people (Jhingan, 2009). This theory believes that tax is similar to price. So if a person does not utilize the service of a state, he should not be charged any tax. According to Jhingan (2009), the cost of service theory imposes some restrictions on government services. The

Kyari & Akwe (2017)
objective of government is to provide welfare to the poor. If the theory is applied, the state will not undertake welfare activities like medical care, education, social amenities, etc. Furthermore, it will be very difficult to compute the cost per head of the various services provided by the state, again, the theory has violated the correct definition and tenets of tax, finally the basis of taxation as propounded by the theory is misleading. The limitations inherent in the cost of service theory led to the modernization of the theory. This modification gave birth to the benefit received theory of taxation. According to this theory, citizens should be asked to pay taxes in proportion to the benefits they receive from the services rendered by the government. The theory assumes that there is exchange relationship or quid pro quo between taxpayers and government. The government confers some benefits on taxpayers by providing social goods, which the tax payers pay a consideration in the form of taxes for using such goods. The inability to measure the benefits received by an individual from the services rendered by the government has rendered this theory inapplicable (Ahuja, 2012). Bhartia, (2009) socio-political theory of taxation states that social and political objectives should be the major factors in selecting taxes. The theory advocated that a tax system should not be designed to serve individuals, but should be used to cure the ills of society as a whole. This study is therefore anchored on this theory.

4.0  EMPIRICAL REVIEW

There are several studies, which have been conducted on the research topic. Toder and Rosenberg (2010) worked on the effects of imposing a value added tax to replace payroll taxes or corporate taxes (in the US). The research work was conducted against the background that the United States is the only country in the developed world that does not impose a broad-based consumption tax. The typical form of broad-based consumption tax used worldwide is a credit-invoice Value Added Tax (VAT). The credit-invoice VAT, a subtraction method VAT or Business Transfer Tax (BTT), and a Retail Sales Tax (RST) are all intended to tax the final consumption once at the retail
level, but the collection mechanisms differ among the three taxes. The researchers found out that VAT has administrative advantages over both BTT and RST.

Ajakaiye (2000) examine the impact of VAT on key sectoral and macroeconomic aggregates, using a Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) model considered suitable for Nigeria. The study developed three scenarios. In order to approximate the presumed Nigerian situation, the study assumed that government pursued an active fiscal policy involving the re-injection of the VAT via increases in government final consumption expenditure in combination with a presumed non-cascading treatment of the VAT. Two other simulations considered an active fiscal policy combined with a cascading treatment of VAT and a passive fiscal policy combined with a non-cascading treatment. As it turned out, the scenario of a cascading treatment of VAT with an active fiscal policy not only had the most deleterious effects on the economy, it was also the one that most closely approximated the situation in Nigeria. VAT revenues under this scenario are more than 3% lower than the first scenario, the general price index increases by 12%, and wage and profit incomes fall by 8.54% and 12.27% respectively. Overall, the GDP declines by 11.34%. Such a situation, as observed by the researcher, poses a great threat to the sustainability of VAT.

Owolabi and Okwu (2011) examined the contribution of Value Added Tax to Development of Lagos State Economy, using simple regression models as abstractions of the respective sectors considered in the study. The study considered a vector of development indicators as dependent variables and regressed each on VAT revenue proceeds to Lagos State for the study period. Development aspects considered included infrastructural development, environmental management, education sector development, youth and social development, agricultural sector development, health sector development and transportation sector development. The results showed that VAT revenue contributed positively to the development of the respective sectors. On the aggregate, the analysis showed that VAT revenue had

Kyari & Akwe (2017)
a considerable contribution to development of the economy during the study.

Adegbie and Fakile (2011) concentrated on the Company Income Tax and Nigeria Economic Development relationship. Using Chi-square and Multiple Linear Regression analysis in analyzing the data, they concluded that there is a significant relationship between company income tax and Nigerian economic development and that tax evasion and avoidance are major hindrances to revenue generation. Lee and Gordon (2004) in their paper, Tax structure and economic growth, explore how tax policies affect a country’s growth rate, using cross-country data during 1970–1997. Their findings revealed that statutory corporate tax rates are significantly negatively correlated with cross-sectional differences in average economic growth rates, controlling for various other determinants of economic growth, and other standard tax variables.

Ogbonna and Ebimobowei (2012) on their part, examined the Impact of Tax Reforms on Economic Growth of Nigeria using relevant descriptive statistics and econometric analysis and concluded that the various test shows that tax reforms is positively and significantly related to economic growth and that tax reforms granger cause economic growth. In their work, they disaggregated tax revenue into its various components such as; excise duties, personal income tax, petroleum profit tax, companies’ income tax, value added tax and education tax and concluded that the included tax revenue variable have positive relationship with economy.

Adereti et al (2011) investigated Value Added Tax and Economic growth in Nigeria. They analyzed Time series data on the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), VAT Revenue, Total Tax Revenue and Total (Federal Government) Revenue from 1994 to 2008 using both simple regression analysis and descriptive statistical method. The Findings of the study showed that VAT Revenue accounts for as much as 95% significant variations in GDP in Nigeria. This studies

Kyari & Akwe (2017)
was conducted Eight years ago, the result may not be realistic in the present day due to economic reality.

Olaoye (2009) investigated the administration of VAT in Nigeria. The objective of the study was to seek ways of improving government revenue generation base in order to improve on the economy. Government introduced VAT as a way of improving Government revenue and make funds available for development purposes. The study discovered that there is a positive correlation between VAT and GDP and recommended that more awareness was needed on VAT.

Onoh (2013) examined impact of value added tax on Nigeria economic growth. The researcher used growth Ordinary least square to analyse the data and the result revealed a strong positive impact of value added tax on economic growth in Nigeria. The study also recommended that VAT should not be high on the infant industries, to enable them grow. The findings agree with the study conducted by Ajakaiye (2000) and Akwe (2017).

Okafor (2012) examined tax revenue generation and Nigeria economic development. The aim of the research work was to explore the impact of income tax revenue on the economic growth of Nigeria as provided by the gross domestic product (GDP). Ordinary least square regression method was adopted by the researcher to explore the relationship between GDP a proxy for economic growth and a set Federal Government income tax revenue heads from 1981 to 2007. However, found that there is a positive significant relationship between tax revenue and economic development in Nigeria.

Akwe (2014) analysed the impact of Non-oil Tax Revenue on Economic Growth from 1993 to 2012 in Nigeria. To achieve this research objective, relevant secondary data were used from the 2012 Statistical Bulletin of the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN). These data were analyzed using the Ordinary Least Squares Regression. The result from the test shows that there exists a positive impact of Non-oil Tax Revenue on economic Growth in Nigeria. Onaolapo,
Aworemi, and Ajala (2013) examined the impact of value added tax on revenue generation in Nigeria. The Secondary Source of data was sought from Central Bank of Nigeria statistical Bulletin (2010), Federal Inland Revenue Service Annual Reports and Chartered Institute of Taxation of Nigeria. Data analysis was performed with the use of stepwise regression analysis. Findings showed that Value Added Tax has statistically significant effect on revenue generation in Nigeria.

5.0 METHODOLOGY

We adopted the OLS Regression Analysis Method to analyse the data collected for the purpose of the study. Data used in the study were collected from various editions of the CBN statistical bulletin of 2014, 2015 and 2016, and FIRS publications (2016) relating to tax revenue collection for the period of the study. Data collected for the study was analyzed using a simple Linear Regression Analysis of the Ordinary Least Squares Method. In its general form, the model is specified as:

\[ y = a + b_1 x_1 + \mu \]  

where: \( y \) is the dependent variable, \( x_1 \) is the independent variable, \( a \) is the constant term, \( b_1 \) is the coefficients of the independent variable and \( \mu \) is the error term.

Economic Growth = \( f \) (Tax Revenue)  

(ii)

Where economic growth is measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Tax Revenue is measured by Value Added Tax (VAT):

\[ \text{GDP} = f (\text{VAT}) \]  

(iii)

Where: GDP is gross domestic product, VAT is Value Added Tax

\textit{Kyari & Akwe (2017)}
Thus,

$$\text{GDP} = a + b1\text{VAT} + \mu$$

(iv)

The study expects to find that: $b_1 > 0$

6.0 DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND FINDING

Table 1.0: OLS Regression Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coefficients</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>T - Statistics</th>
<th>Prob. Values</th>
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<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>9826.732</td>
<td>2603.637</td>
<td>3.774233</td>
<td>0.0021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VAT</td>
<td>0.037264</td>
<td>0.002718</td>
<td>13.71213</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**R – Squared: 0.9307701**

**Adjusted R – Squared: 0.925751**

**F – Statistics: 188.0224**

**Prob(F – Statistics): 0.0000**

**D – W Stat: 2.27480**

Source: E- View output computed by Researcher

6.1 Discussion of Results

From the estimated regression model in Table 1.0, we observed that the stated *a priori* expectation was fully satisfied, that is the coefficient of the explanatory variable (VAT) was observed to be positive indicating that a unit change on it value, on the average increased GDP by 0.037264 units. This shows that there is positive relationship between VAT and economic growth in Nigeria for the period of time considered in this study. The result was in line with the findings of Ajakaiye (2000), Olaoyo (2009) Toder (2010), Owolabi and Okwu (2011), Adereti et al (2011), Onoh (2013), Ajala (2013), Akwe (2014), Afuberoh and Okoye (2014), Margaret et al (2014) and Sabina et al (2015). However, the result shows weak contribution of VAT to through, it’s a positive relationship.

*Kyari & Akwe (2017)*
The coefficient of determination $R^2$ is 0.930701, meaning that 93% of the variability in GDP (dependent variable was influenced by the VAT (independent variable). Hence, 7% variability in GDP was explained by other factors outside VAT, which implies that the model is fit. The adjusted coefficient of determination (adj.$R^2$) also shows that after taken into account the loss in the degree of freedom as a result of additional entry of explanatory variables in the model, that the estimated model has a good fit (that is, adjusted $R^2 = 0.93$). The $F.$ statistics of 188.0224 shows the overall significance of the regression model. $F.$ significant level of 0.0000 is less than 0.05, which suggests that Null hypothesis is not true. Therefore, VAT has significant and positive impact on gross domestic product and thus, it is an instrument to measure economic growth in Nigeria. The value of Durbin-Watson statistics of 2.274800 reveals the absence of autocorrelation in the model, therefore the forecasting power of the estimated model is more reliable. The explanatory variable value added tax with T. statistics value of 13.71213 (0.0000) is statistically and significant to explain the variation in the model.

7.0 CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study is to examine the impact of VAT on economic growth of Nigeria for the period of 1999-2016. Data collected for the study was analyzed using a simple Linear Regression Analysis of the Ordinary Least Squares Method and the result reveal that there is positive and significant relationship between VAT and economic growth in Nigeria. We therefore, conclude that revenue from VAT improves economic growth in Nigeria.

Therefore, to ensure sustainable economic growth and development, generated tax revenue from VAT must be sufficient, efficiently and judiciously utilized. The government should pay attention to encouraging her citizens to build trust in it by tax accountability, ensuring that the promises made to the citizens are highly delivered. It should also ensure that the VAT system is very transparent and the proceeds from VAT be used honestly for the betterment of the Kyari & Akwe (2017)
citizens. Provision of facilities that will ensure the comfortable existence of necessary amenities for the well-being of the majority of citizens of the state must not be treated with levity. If individuals have no safe drinking water, no good road network, improved healthcare system and educational system, and have to live in perpetual fear, why would they be willing to pay tax. The citizens must feel the impact of development so as to pay tax voluntarily.
REFERENCES


Toder, E and Rosenberg, J (2010): Effects of Imposing a Value Added Tax To Replace Payroll Taxes or Corporate Taxes.

Appendix

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>GDP</th>
<th>VAT</th>
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<tr>
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<td>2014</td>
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<td>2015</td>
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Table 1: Regression Results

<table>
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<tr>
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<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
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<td>13.71213</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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R-squared 0.930701 Mean dependent var 33558.52
Adjusted R-squared 0.925751 S.D. dependent var 28553.79
S.E. of regression 7780.538 Akaike info criterion 20.87311
Sum squared 8.48E+08 Schwarz criterion 20.96968

{ 16 }
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<th>Log likelihood</th>
<th>F-statistic</th>
<th>Prob(F-statistic)</th>
<th>Hannan-Quinn criter.</th>
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<td>20.87805</td>
<td>2.274800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: E-View output computed by Researcher 2017
Bioethics: Philosophical Consideration and Challenges for Africa

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Abstract

Bioethics practice has become a prominent regimen among many national governments across the globe. Despite its prominence in many parts of the world, African nations, with just few exceptions, are yet to subscribe to the practice. This paper seeks to introduce bioethics to an African audience. While doing so it investigates the meaning of the concept of bioethics as well. It undertakes a study of bioethics and the possibilities it holds for Africa. It considers what would be the possible role of bioethics in an African cultural milieu. Equally, it acknowledges the peculiarity of Africa and holds that a functional bioethics in the continent will be one that places special emphasis on certain Africa-specific concerns. It also discusses the challenges to be faced by such a functional bioethics in Africa.

Key Words: Bioethics,
1.0 INTRODUCTION

Bioethics, also known as ethics of life is defined simply as application of normative ethical theories and principles to human life issues especially as they relate to health, science and biotechnology (Campbell, 2013; Koch, 2012). It is one of the major arms of applied ethics. Unlike other forms of ethics which are concerned with the “ought” of human actions, bioethics’ concern is said to be with the “must” of human actions (Omazu, 2012). It also differs from the other forms of ethics on account of its subject matter. Appropriately, the subject matter of bioethics is life, human life qua human life. Koch (2012) hinges the essence of this concern with human life to the need for human flourishing. Thus, a correct bioethical question can be rendered thus: what is the appropriate way of responding to a complicated situation where one decision or the other has great implication on the life of a subject and indeed on humanity?

Bioethics is designed to answer questions like the one above. It is a philosophical tool advanced for the protection of the human persons and their most intimate and fundamental right; the right to life. Thus, while extant studies in biology continuously regard the *homo sapiens* as a mere species of animal, bioethics protects against this sort of reductionism as well as its implication of objectification of the human subject. It insists that individuals MUST not be treated like animals but should rather be treated with respect simply because they are possessors of human rights conferred on them by the fact of their dignity (Bellantoni, 2011). When these human rights involve the human right to life, ethicists insist that it is binding on others as well as to the right possessor (Vaknin, 2005). Each individual, therefore, is under irrevocable obligation to preserve their life. Indeed, the necessity for this is not just to safeguard the individual but the entire humanity as represented by the individual as each individual carries in their selves the seed of all humanity.

This lofty conception of the human persons, of their right and place in the world is being challenged in the contemporary world by

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advancement in the fields of healthcare, science, technology and research. Increasingly, attention to some of the other concerns listed is consistently being shrunk as the camera is focused more on medicine and healthcare. This outlook is responsible for the description of bioethics in some quarters as a critic of medicine that will keep an eye on its excesses (Elliot: 2014, p.145). From this medical perspective, London (2000, p131) observes the increasing erosion of the physician-patient trust. Bioethicists feel that it is their duty to restore this trust. Doing this is viewed as necessary if medicine and indeed other scientific and technological inventions that raise the question of bioethics are to be saved from self-destruct.

Beyond this global agenda of bioethics, this study undertakes a study of bioethics and the possibilities it holds for Africa. It considers what would be the possible role of bioethics in an African cultural milieu. Equally, it acknowledges the peculiarity of Africa and holds that a functional bioethics in the continent will be one that places special emphasis on certain Africa-specific concerns. It also discusses the challenges to be faced by such a functional bioethics.

2.0 BRIEF HISTORY OF BIOETHICS

The practice of applying ethical norms to life issues is as ancient as human societies. In our traditional African societies, this application exists in form of various unwritten collective wisdom regulating attitudes to life especially as they relate to murder, suicide and abortion. In literate ancient societies of the Greeks, for instance, it is said that the same application of ethical norms was responsible for the great transition from the era of medicine as magico-religious phenomenon to the current era of empirico-rational phenomenon. In the old magico-religious era, possessing the characters of a seer is a sine-qua-non for a successful practice as a healer among the Greeks (Bartz, 2000). King and Hyde (2014) report that the subsequent Hippocratic physicians, trained in the arts of arguments by a group of itinerant philosophers known as the Sophists, applied their learned ethical arguments in defining and defending their trade, a practice that
was hitherto unknown. A major component of this transition is change in the constitution of medical texts. While the sky or other natural occurrences constituted the text for the magico-religious healers, the body was the appropriate text of the empirico-rational Hippocratic healers. They studied the body of their patients in relation to the patients’ past and made appropriate diagnosis. As questions arose concerning their new method of diagnosis and healing, the Hippocratic physicians resorted to the use of rhetoric to justify their procedures and process.

From all indications, therefore, the practice of applying moral norms to issues of life is an ancient one, and is present in every society. However, the codification of this practice into a single word is a recent innovation that took place only in the 20th Century following the usage of the word, *bioethics*, in 1927 by Fritz Jahr, a German scholar who wanted to extend the Kantian imperative of treating all humans as an end in and of themselves to other living things (Caplan & Arp, 2014). From all indications, Jahr’s usage was a bit ahead of time as it did not spark the required interest in the term.

It was not until 1971 that Van Rensselaer Potter published his seminal work entitled *Bioethics: A Bridge to the Future*. It is said that Potter’s work articulated the first global concept of bioethics (Moreno, 2014). Caplan and Arp (2014) inveigh against this importance ascribed to Potter and held that what Potter and Jahr regard as "bioethics" would be considered today to be the related branch of applied ethics known as *environmental ethics*. This notwithstanding, the relevance of Jahr and Potter in inventing the word, and in popularising it remains unaffected. Potter, for instance, used the term at a time when the global political and intellectual climate was ready for it. His was the era of birthing of applied ethics as a type of ethics as well as its branches such as bioethics. The following factors were responsible for the evolution of applied ethics in the 20th Century: the experience of two world wars, the rise of totalitarian system of thought, genocide, development and use of weapons of mass destruction (Haldane, 2002).

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Another major contributory factor is the research practice of Nazi researchers (mainly scientists and physicians). They were recorded to have dismembered some research participants, infected others with viruses and malaria while exposing others yet in a freezing temperature, malaria, poison and untested drugs as a form of human experimentation (Berg & Lune 2017). This later led to the establishment of the Nuremberg Code of 1949 which effectively laid down principles for subsequent research on the human subject. Berg & Lune hold that such unethical practices also existed in free, progressive and democratic states. They cite the example of the Tuskegee Syphilis Study as well as the Guatemala Syphilis study where researchers working for the government of the United States of America were involved in underhand practices. In the case of Guatemala, mental patients, prisoners, and soldiers were infected with Syphilis with active connivance of infected prostitutes (Berg & Lune, 2017). The essence of this was to test the efficacy of penicillin as a cure for Syphilis.

With the discovery of these cases, Haldane (2002) noted, it became a matter of disciplinary embarrassment that professional moral philosophy had nothing at all to say about ethical questions raised by these moral issues as the prevalent mood was that the duty of a professional ethicist just like a professional chemists, was to understand the nature of its subject matter and not to constitute it as instrument of change in the world. Thus, the immediate response was to channel philosophical efforts into these exposed cases in order to foreclose a repeat, especially as the world advanced scientifically and technologically. This challenge was first taken up in the mid-1960s by Henry Knowles Beecher, a Harvard anesthesiologist. Beecher's published article entitled "Ethics and Clinical Research, (1966) undertook a case by case exposition of violation of dignity and personhood of their patients in clinical research. Elliot (2014, p141) describes Beecher's article as a document of wrongdoing and quite unrelated to the methods and approaches of a professional ethicists. These efforts, unphilosophical in approach as they were, showed that the reported events offered great opportunity for the testing and
application of about 2500 years of research in moral philosophy. This effectively led to the intensification of research efforts in that area as well as the subsequent adoption of the word, bioethics, as representative of the concerns which are raised in the ancillary subjects.

3.0 BIOETHICS AS PUBLIC MORALITY

What is widely regarded as harm’s principle can be said to capture within it the sense and essence of division of ethics into private and public morality. The harm’s principle as developed by the philosopher, J.S. Mill simply demands that “the only condition under which one’s action can be restricted is only and only if his action can harm others” (Omazu, 2012, p.75). From this it can be assumed that private morality is the sphere of the individual where their actions have consequences only to themselves alone. Mill holds that the individual should be allowed to perform as it pleases him or her at this instance. His or her liberty is total. Anyone who does otherwise is trespassing and should be considered a violator of human rights. On the contrary, actions that have harmful consequence to the others, the public, must be interfered with. The individual must be stopped. They now constitute great danger to the health of society. This is the essence of public morality; that individuals must be compelled not to engage in those actions of theirs which have the capacity to cause harm to others. Thus, public morality exists as an ethical guide on how to behave towards the public and in the public sphere.

Since Jurgen Habermas (1989) initiated the modern discussion on the topic of the public sphere, the question of what constitutes the “public” keeps recurring on every discourse where the term public is invoked. This, in a way, is acknowledgement of the contextual nature of any definition of the term. Thus, the term is not fixed but is rather fluid. Every user is expected in one way or the other to delineate what they mean by public. Now the question: In the context of usage in this study, what does it entail to say that bioethics is public morality?

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First, the public morality of bioethics is derived from the fact that the subject matter that interests it is a matter of public interest. "Public interest is defined as "what . . . [people] would choose if they saw clearly, thought rationally, acted disinterestedly and benevolently" (Lippmann, 1956, p.40). Invoking the people into issues of bioethics stems from the understanding that bioethics issues are purveyors of consequences which apply beyond the parties immediately involved. They extend to the whole humanity and the fear that this extension may be actualised gave rise to the invention of the slippery slope argument. Thus, since bioethics issues are public interest issues, the public must have a say in what affects it. They must make a choice on how they want these issues to affect them one way or the other.

Second, the democratic nature of bioethics also places it in the arena of public morality. Democracy as a mode of political organisation is never done in private. It (democracy) is a public practice and presupposes the existence of individuals with varied, most times clashing, points of view. Decisions involving such individuals demand that opinions and their contraries are thrashed out in an argumentative and critical dialogue. The target here is to reach consensus on issues. Where consensus is impossible, the voice of the majority becomes the ultimate arbiter. Thus, the democratic character of bioethics entails that every contentious issue is brought to public knowledge of a committee who through reasoned debates decide upon them.

The third sense in which bioethics is a public morality is from the perspective of empowerment of bioethics committee which often derives its authority to command moral action from the cumulative whole constituted by the citizens. Moreno (2014, p16) writes that bioethics provides the odd example where ethics is done through a committee. This committee assumes the character of rationality of individuals in urging what must be done as opposed to private practice of ethics whereby individuals make decisions about what is right and wrong.

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The fourth sense in which bioethics is public morality stems from the fact of its imperativeness. It is the only form of morality that issues explicit public command about what must be done and points out the necessary consequence of doing otherwise. While doing this, bioethics assumes a juristic character. It sits in judgement of infraction against it and metes out appropriate sanctions that must be obeyed. Thus, while issues of private morality are for the most part matters of personal conscience and guilt, issues of public morality, and therefore of bioethics combine elements of personal conscience and guilt with that of publicly addressed sanctions. The essence here is to compel individuals to act in certain manner for their good and that of the human race.

Lastly, as a public morality, bioethics demands publication of findings, discoveries and resolved cases. The act of publication of findings entails the placement of bioethical issues on public domain. The essence of this is to inform the public. Informing the public about bioethics cases helps build citizens who are conscious of their rights and duties. Besides this, publishing of bioethics cases entails that mankind has store of resolved cases that may be useful in solving similar ethical challenges in the future.

The sense of the public that runs through all these is derived from Walter Lippmann (1993) who crafted the idea of the phantom public. Lippmann's idea is based on the idea that the public is not a fixed mass of individuals. It is merely those persons who are interested in an affair and can affect it only by supporting or opposing the actors (Lippmann, 1993, p.67). This public, as conceived by Lippmann are not a body of experts by mere association of their interest with an affair. They are people who are acquainted only with a sign that an affair suits their collective and individual interest. This idea of the public alerts attests to the fact that the audience which is addressed can be few as well as large. It is an audience comprising only of interested individuals. However, this membership is not fixed as it can expand or decrease. But one important character it possesses is...
the fact that its members represent the entire whole who form a particular society.

4.0 SOME MAJOR PHILOSOPHICAL PRINCIPLES AT THE HEART OF BIOETHICS

This paper took off with the claim that bioethics entails the application of ethical norm and principles to issues of life. While a lot of these principles exist, some of them are considered prominent by ethicists such that they appear to always be present, in one way or the other, whenever issues of bioethics emerge. Four of such identified principles include: autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and justice.

**Autonomy:** The term is rooted in two Greek words: *auto* (self) and *nomos* (government). Autonomy is expressive of the fact that each individual constitutes the government of their selves. It expresses the idea of self-government in the sense of deciding for oneself and taking care of oneself. Among the Greeks, an autonomous city is a city in control of its own government. This idea, on finding its way into the field of ethics, captures the understanding of the individual as a self-determining subject; a being in charge of his or her affairs. The importance of the concept of autonomy in ethics is so central because its absence will erode moral responsibility. This is because we are responsible for our actions because we choose them by ourselves; we govern them. The three components of autonomy as outlined by Beauchamp and Childress (2001) include: (1) ability to choose intentionally, (2) ability to choose with understanding, and (3) ability to choose without controlling influence from others. In bioethics, the principle of autonomy gives an individual right over their body and its management. It is up to that individual to decide what happens to their body.

**Beneficence:** The principle of beneficence compels us to always do good to others. It rests on the metaphysical assumption of the human person as an intrinsically good being. Thus, in everyday situations
individuals find themselves in contact with their fellow human persons. The only demand that beneficence makes of us in such instances of contact is simply to do good to the others being encountered. However, there is a proviso for this, doing good to others must not be at the cost of personal harm to the doer of good. Thus, we are compelled to assist others in so far as doing so does not hurt us in the process. In bioethics, the same principle demands that health workers, researchers, scientists, biotechnologists, etc., have a duty to do good to their subjects in the course of their work. Ekwutosi (2008) holds that "beneficence is a way of ensuring reciprocity in our relations and of passing along to others the good we have received in the past."

**Non-maleficence:** The principle of non-maleficence is derived from the Latin saying *primum non nocere* which means "first do no harm." It forbids us from harming others intentionally and frowns seriously at one acting in situations where one lacks the competence or the power to act.

**Justice:** Justice is the most controversial of the entire principles. Establishing its meaning has been a matter of great debate right from the ancient time. However, the conception of justice which serves our interest here is that of John Rawls (1971) who views justice as fairness. John Rawls takes us back to the very beginning of time when as individuals we were ignorant of our lives estate, not knowing what we will later become in life as well as what will befall us. In such circumstances, Rawls argues that every individual when confronted with the question of choice will make a fair choice that will be fair to all. In bioethics, the principle of justice is invoked to demand that in making decisions, a physician for instance, should place himself or herself, in place of the patient. Thus, the ultimate question is: were the table to turn will I desire for myself what I desire for this person before me? Justice demands that action should derive from the response given to this question.

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4.1 Bioethical Concerns for Africa

The principles of bioethics discussed above arose within the ethical discussions of western philosophical circles. This view accounts for the projection of bioethics, in some academic circles, as an entirely "western phenomenon" (Gbadegeisin, 2009, p.26). It is what the West do. Thus, even when many non-Western countries have established bioethics committees, scholars from such countries view the work of the committee as Western-imposed agenda that neglects the specific traditional values of their countries (Chattopadhay, 2011). A major contributory factor to this is the fact that such committees are understandably interested mainly and at times only in those issues that interest the Western societies. Thus, in order to be relevant to African societies, bioethics in addition to treating the currently mainline issues which are associated with it, must also draw an agenda that must cater for the peculiar situation of Africa. A brief exposition of such concerns is shown below.

4.2 Female Genital Mutilation (FGM)

Defined by WHO as "all procedures that involve partial or total removal of the external female genitalia, or other injury to the female genital organs for nonmedical reasons." FGM is a social reality in many African countries. Since FGM scarcely takes place outside Africa, it is rarely included in issues of interest in bioethics. However, as more and more African countries subscribe to bioethics, focus should be shifted to this and their bioethical status widely circulated.

4.3 Traditional Medicine Practice

The field of traditional medicine practice remains an all-comers affairs. Here nothing is standardised and medicine is practiced as a cult. The traditional medicine practitioner most often mixes his or her trade with some form of spiritualism or mysticism. He is not unlike the ancient Greek healer who resorted to interaction with spiritual forces in order to diagnose and cure diseases. Consequently,

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numerous unwholesome practices scale through in the guise of command from the spiritual world. Patients are dehumanised and there is often no record of procedure followed or treatment administered. To be responsive to its environment, bioethics in Africa must concern itself with the activities of this group.

4.4 Refugees and IDPs

Situations of war, terrorism and famine have rendered many African refugees within the continent and more have also assumed the status of internally displaced persons. How these two groups are treated within the continent has made them a matter of bioethical concern.

4.5 Lassa Fever and Ebola

Heath wise, the reputation of Africa is that of a basket of diseases. This reputation arises and sticks due to the fact that Africa has little resources to manage its diseases. These lacks of resources entail that many a disease, unheard of in other regions of the world breed and flourish in Africa. Among such diseases are Ebola and Lassa fever. The two diseases have a number of things in common. They are said to result from improper contact with animals. In the case of lassa fever, rat is the suspect, whereas monkey is the ebola culprit. The speeds of transmission of the two are high. Patients suffering from both diseases are mainly isolated. Both diseases were said to have spread across the continent in the 1970s. However, it was quite clear that by 2014, when Ebola epidemic reared its head again, that Africa has no response to the bioethical challenges that accompanied it.

4.6 Human Trafficking

Human trafficking entails an uninformed movement of persons for exploitative purposes. Birkenthal (2012) exposes the general character of human trafficking and holds that it could include force labour, slavery or servitude. It could also be within or across borders.(p.28). Most times, victims of both within and across the

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border human trafficking are Africans. This makes human trafficking an African issue, which bioethics, to sustain its relevance in Africa, must also engage in.

4.7 Challenges of Bioethics in Africa

Globally, there are epistemological, boundary and ethical questions which bioethics face. As Africa gets more and more interested in bioethics it will be confronted by some of the following challenges:

4.8 The Non-Universality of Ethical Norms

Richard Rorty bequeathed the following quotes to the discourse on universality of ethical norms: Ḟ do not think there are any plain moral facts out there in the world, nor any truths independent of language, nor any neutral ground on which to stand and argue that either torture or kindness are preferable to the other (1989, p.173). Rorty recognises that individuals and indeed societies nevertheless choose one of these or the other. He argues that such choice is grounded in cultural politics meant to serve socio-political goals (Rorty, 2007). For Rorty and other defenders of this view, utilitarian purposes are responsible for the choices made in all societies.

Holding tightly to this claim of non-universality of ethical principles, the question arises as to its implication to bioethics? This question is particularly urgent in Africa which has been described as hodgepodge of cultures. In Nigeria, for instance, it is said that there are about 400 ethnic groups presenting 400 different ways of doing things and interpreting the world. What this means is that ethical principles chosen by these cultures are the principles which work for them. There is no doubt that these choices often coincide from one cultural group to another, but it should also be observed that they do clash in some other instances. Thus, in bioethics where application of principles play important roles in decision making, how will decisions be taken in instances where ethical principles of committee members clash? This question is raised following the observation that

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individuals are purveyors of their cultural values and ideals, and are for the most intent on imposing these on others.

To overcome objection like this, proponents of universality of ethical principles point at the fact of our shared humanity. As human persons, we are said to be deserving of dignity. This idea of the human person as a being of dignity was first championed by Kant and his thought influenced its insertion into the United Nations Universal Declaration on Human Rights where it is stated that: "all human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights" (United Nations, 1948, art. 1). Pullman argues that this universality of dignity is an example of universal ethical principles, applied to all societies. Kant’s concept of a priori knowledge views the recognition of this as self-evident, that is one which all individuals of all ages would see and recognise a priori. Critics of human dignity as a universal ethical principle, again, scoff at the idea as "useless concept" (Macklin, 2003); arguing like Callahan (1999, p.281) that human dignity is "too vague to be useful and too weighted with the baggage of religion to be safely used in a pluralistic society" (p. 281). Since man’s possession of dignity is a wholly Kantian discovery which he predicated on reason, claiming that all people come to this conclusion by the special light of reason, it may be necessary to raise the question: how come some societies sanctioned slavery, others sanctioned degradation of women, and yet others sanctioned the killing of twins, and so forth? Bioethicists should not be discouraged by such questions as these. That the perpetrators of such acts have abandoned them for a more globally acceptable alternatives shows that when presented with superior facts and options, well-reasoned and well organised, mankind will toe the path which seems to be more rational.

4.9 Incompatibility of Moral Values

Up to a point in the history of philosophy the assumption was that values are incompatible, and therefore, clash simply because one is good and the other is evil. In this sense, prostitution and chastity are considered incompatible since one is outright evil whereas the other is
good. The discovery that values do not clash simply because one is good and the other is bad is attributed to the 16th Century Italian philosopher, Nicolo Machiavelli. However, it was not until the 20th Century that Isaiah Berlin, through sheer critical interpretation brought to the fore the core of Machiavelli’s thought. According to Berlin (2013), Machiavelli pioneered the thinking that two true ends, two good values, two morally upright positions can be incompatible, and therefore clash. We may take as example the case of autonomy and justice, which we espoused above as two principles or values of bioethics. Both values are desirable, good and true but there are instances where they clash. When values or principles clash like this, ethicists say that there is a moral dilemma.

To demonstrate, we present a hypothetical case of a patient in coma (Mr A) who needed a heart transplant to survive. However, it was increasingly becoming impossible to secure a donor as the patient had only two weeks to live. This patient was brought to the hospital unconscious by some good "Samaritans" who met him sprawled on the road. Their duty to him ended once they brought him to the hospital, a specialist hospital managed by a self-effacing medical doctor famous for his professionalism and expertise. Preliminary tests of his artery confirmed immediately that the patient was alive but in coma. Further tests carried out on him showed that his heart had failed and only a transplant could resuscitate him. After weeks of fruitless efforts in search of donor, another patient (Mr B) came to the hospital needing kidney transplant. The second patient, a wealthy businessman with interest in oil and gas, like the first patient, was brought in coma needing heart and kidney transplant. Indeed, this second man was only alive by life support technology. However, his son living abroad had secured a heart from one of the Research Centres in Europe where he lived. They had packaged and flown this heart home to Nigeria in a chartered jet. However, before the transplant could be performed, it was discovered that the man’s heart had started an inexplicable process of self-regeneration. After multiple consultations with other doctors and series of tests, it was decided that the man’s heart would in time recover and be good
enough for him to live a normal life. However, what was inexplicable to the doctors was the fact that the condition of the kidney worsened as the heart condition improved. Now the managing physician took a decision to take a kidney from Mr A and give it to Mr B while using the heart secured for Mr B in the treatment of Mr A. Weeks later, both patients regained their normal selves. And Mr A was told the process of his healing. Unknown to them, Mr A was a member of Jehovah’s Witness and he claimed that his religious obligation forbade members from engaging in any sort of organ transplantation. His shock also derived not only from the fact that they gave him the heart of an unknown person, but equally from the second fact that his kidney was taken without his consultation. In search of justice for himself, Mr A brought this case to the ethics committee. At the committee hearing, Mr A claimed that his autonomy and informed consent were infringed upon. The physician claimed that he only acted from sense of justice and beneficence, that he only did for Mr A what he would have done for himself.

It is clear that scenarios like this will always play themselves in bioethics committees, and from all indications they are not quite too easy to decide.

4.10 The Totalitarian View of Bioethics

Since Hannah Arendt published her work The Origins of Totalitarianism, the intellectual world has been kept at alert against any form of dominating institution and ideology. The sum of Arendt’s writing is that the totalitarian systems, through their insistence on social control, engage on thingnification of the individual. This process is achieved by the promotion of a supersense against the no-sense of others. Arendt holds that the essence of this is to render people superfluous. (Arendt, 1976). In viewing bioethics from the totalitarian perspective, what is at play is the capacity or tendency, presently latent, of bioethics to constitute itself into a moral totalitarianism for the experts whose fields of engagement it seeks to regulate. Individuals, it is believed, possess the capacity for rational
thought upon which their description as moral agents lies. However, bioethics assumes the responsibility of moral thinking, of ethical decision making for the physician, the biotechnologist, the scientist, the researcher and indeed to all persons whose line of activities it oversees. It casts these group of experts as incapable of making ethical decisions with regards to their subjects. Here indeed emerges the contradiction in bioethics. At conception, it emerged as a noble solution against attempts at dehumanisation of the human person. But following its systematic progression the baton is changed and it is bioethics that is increasingly emerging as agent of dehumanisation. Most importantly, it is unlikely that thinking individuals perceiving bioethics to be totalitarian will cooperate with it.

4.11 Widespread Sense of Dogmatism

One of the debilitating arguments against bioethics is that it is an ethics without principle. By holding this view about ethics, what the critics point at is the contextual nature of bioethics. This contextual nature of bioethics ensures that, though ethical decision making always begins with a process of analogy, a process that involves examination of the best related case available, it finally ends by considering the circumstances of each specific case (Zarefsky, 2014). The consequence of this is that similar problems may produce different decisions at different times or even at the same time.

Whenever this is the case, it may give rise to two implications. First, it may lead the public to question the sincerity and uprightness of the bioethics committee. In Africa, where corruption is said to be rife, the committee may be accused of having been induced to arrive at a more favourable disposition in a particular case where a similar case received unfavourable sanctions. If this ever becomes the case, bioethics loses face. The second implication may be the outcome of the first or it may be as a consequence of moral self-assessment of the committee members. Whatever it is, committee members would insist on being firm in their decisions in order to ensure that similar cases do not produce different outcomes. They will insist that they are men

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and women of integrity, individuals possessing ethical principles. This way dogmatism sets in.

The danger of dogmatism stems from its claim of certainty. It is the pitfall of religion as well as science. To claim ethical dogmatism is to assume a position of infallibility, and to do this is to neglect the philosophical and democratic origin of bioethics. Both philosophy and democracy thrive in argumentation, they thrive in shifting positions in the face of new reality (Moreno, 2014). Thus, to divest bioethics of this quality is to make it what it should not be.

5.0 CONCLUSION

The capability of bioethics in safeguarding human dignity and protecting the future of bio-scientific research is well documented. Despite this documentation and the global movement of constituting bioethics as political and moral tool for countering the challenges of development in the field of bio-science and healthcare, the bug is yet to settle in Africa. This paper undertook a theoretical understanding of bioethics for an African audience. It considers the content of an African-centred bioethics as well as anticipates some of the challenges that such an African centred bioethics is likely to encounter. These include; the non-universality of ethical norms, incompatibility of moral values, totalitarian view of bioethics, and widespread sense of dogmatism.
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Effect of Office Design on Employees’ Productivity: A Case Study of Selected Banks in Uyo Town, Nigeria

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to test the effect of office design on the employees’ productivity. Employees have craved for increased personal control and comfort needs, hence the concern among organizations to provide them with an environment and office design which fulfil the employees’ needs and help to boost their productivity. The main objective of this study is to find out the relationship between office design and productivity. For this purpose, 5 bank branches of 25 banks were reached and studied using the survey method to collect data and the Pearson Correlation Coefficient to establish the degree of relationship. The findings of this study show that office design is very important in terms of increasing employees’ productivity. The overall impact of different elements showed that lighting affects the productivity of most employees. Other elements include air quality, noise and temperature. Comfortable and ergonomic office design motivates the employees and increases their performance substantially.

Keywords: Office Design, Employees’ Productivity, Ergonomics, Uyo Town
1.0 INTRODUCTION

Office management has the same importance as production management, personnel management or marketing management since it is the office that moves the wheels of business efficiently. It is the channel that joins the organisation with the outside world (Arora, 2007). An office that provides physical comfort will inspire the worker to work more time and bring greater productivity for the business. According to Richard Kauntze, CEO of the British Council of Offices (BCO), no part of BCO's work is more important than developing a more important understanding of the relationship between an office building and the effectiveness of the people who work in it. The workforce is by far the most valuable asset of any business, and almost always the biggest cost. A business that gives serious attention to the physical environment of the office is far more likely to increase staff productivity than one which ignores the building.

Similarly, Yankelovich (1998) asserts workplace design plays an important role in company performance, holding employees and attracting talents. Employees in high-performing company rate their physical working conditions higher than their counterparts in all other companies. Having a nice workspace is one of the key things that help people feel better about their jobs and enjoy their jobs more.

Increased personal control and comfort needs of employees triggered the concern among organizations to provide them with an environment and office design, which fulfills the employees' needs and helps to boost their productivity. Comfortable and ergonomic office design motivates the employees and increases their performance substantially.

Workers spend substantial part of their lives within indoor environments, which greatly influence their mental status, actions, abilities and performance (Sundstrom, Town, Rice, Osborn, & Brill, 1994). Better outcomes and increased productivity is assumed to be
the result of better workplace environment. Better physical environment of office will boost the employees and ultimately improve their productivity.

Much literatures pertaining to the study of multiple offices and office buildings showed that the factors like dissatisfaction, the physical environment and cluttered workplaces are playing a significant role in the loss of employees’ productivity (Carnevale, 1992; Clements-Croome 1997). Hughes (2007) surveyed 2000 employees pertaining to various organizations and industries in multiple levels and reported that nine out of ten believed that a workspace quality affects the attitude of employees and increases their productivity.

Employees in different organizations work in differing office designs. There’s uniqueness in terms of furniture and spatial arrangements, lighting and heating arrangements and different levels of noise. This study proposes to analyse the effect of office design factors on employees’ productivity. Available literature shows that good office design has a positive effect on employees’ productivity and the same assumption is being tested in this study for the banking sector of Nigeria. This study will try to find out the effects of office design on employees’ productivity. The area chosen is the banking sector of Uyo town, South-South Nigeria. The study will be based on primary data collected through a structured questionnaire.

This study is important to both the employee and the employer. To the former, the office environment is the operational base where much of the day is spent. The level of job satisfaction derivable is tied to some extent to the workplace; hence, making it conducive becomes paramount. For the employer who is demanding the highest level of performance from the worker, there’s need for him to provide the necessary work environment. Human resource professionals in the organizations and outside policy makers are well aware of the importance of this issue. In Nigeria, workplace environment and its related issues are significantly neglected. It is evident that little importance is attached to the design and furnishing of the office.

Awu (2017)
Evidence abound where in the face of erratic power supply from the national mains, some offices do not have standby generators. In some high rise public buildings, the lifts don’t work while others suffer from lack of water supply. Indeed, basic incentives and facilities are not available to the employees; curiously, the situation is that they cannot even complain about them.

These circumstances are affecting the performance of the employees greatly, in the form of delay in work completion, frustration, absenteeism, health, personal growth and general performance. This study will try to find out the effects of office design in terms of furniture, noise, lighting, temperature and spatial arrangement on employees’ productivity.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Literature will be examined under two broad themes, namely office design and work and office design and employees’ productivity.

2.1 Work design and work

An office is generally a room or other area where administrative work is done. The Encarta Dictionary define an office as a room in which business or professional activities take place, often occupied by a single person or a single section of the business. Office design is defined by BNet Business Dictionary (2008) as “the arrangement of workspace so that work can be performed in the most efficient way.” Office design incorporates both ergonomics and work flow, which examine the way in which work is performed in order to optimize layout. Office design is an important factor in job satisfaction. It affects the way in which employees work, and many organizations have implemented open space offices to encourage teamwork.

Regarding office space, an open design meant to facilitate collaboration is the trend. Generally, the workplace is becoming smaller, flatter and more open, composed of fewer private offices and
cubicles. Cluster of intermixed individual and collaborative spaces for spontaneous discussion and innovation are the new model (Ely & Nieto 2012). It appears that a productive workplace design is achieved when individual work and collaborative work successfully complement each other within an open floor plan.

In another vein, Stier (2012) identified an open office design as the use of office floor planning characterised by large open spaces in place of more traditional private offices and smaller enclosed rooms. On the other hand, churn rate refers to how often businesses need to move their employees and/or assets around. More precisely, it is defined as percentage you get when you divide number of moves your business makes in a year by the total number of offices it occupies.

Contrasting open space office design and close space design, Stier (2012) enunciates the benefits of open office: a sense of community among co-workers; enhance collaboration; better communication and a greater ability to ask questions and exchange information; a perception of team support among other people, as opposed to feeling "closed in" or "all alone"; and a feeling of being "in the know" about what is going with the company. Close space design office has these benefits: employee privacy is perceived (9 to 10 workers cited privacy as number one benefit); an enhanced feeling of personal and work-related security; much less noise; and a perception of more "personal space".

Greater collaboration and good communication are not just feel-good words but also vital production components for today's modern team-oriented workforce, team members who work within the same auditory and visual space are able to generate the instant feedback that results in an effective and efficient high performance work environment. Also, co-location can engender much more than just a feeling of unity. Employees who share an open workspace with team leaders and managers are able to communicate and interface with management more quickly. As a result, issues get resolved more quickly, which leads to greater efficiency and more productivity.
2.2 Office Design and Employees’ Productivity

Casti (2013) states that the right workspace can greatly increase employee peace of mind and productivity. Whether it is a big painting the walls or as small as adjusting your desk chair, here’s how you can tailor your office design for maximum effectiveness.

Ergonomics. Take five minutes and adjust, adjust, adjust. Specifically, focus on the heights of your desk chair, desk and computer monitor so that your thighs are parallel to the floor and your upper arms are perpendicular to the floor. Your wrists should be almost straight. You want to ensure that everything is within easy reach without straining any of your muscles, (SitOnIt Seating, 2014).

Clutter-free. Loose the clutter. Keeping a clutter-free desk will greatly increase productivity and organization. Some easy tips to get you started: stick to format for naming files, labeling with the relevant project or event; develop an organizational file system; and occasionally take time to delete documents you no longer need or nest them within one ‘Old Projects’ folder. Remember to back up your files if you are going to go paperless.

Get sensual. Colour me productive. Colour has long been proven to affect people’s productivity at work (Wright, 1984). The Colour Affects System developed by the world renowned colour psychologist Angela Wright, determines that while individuals might have certain preferences for colour, the effects of colour influence people universally. According to Wright’s theory, blue stimulates the mind, yellow inspires creativity, red affects your body and green creates a calming balance. If you can’t change the colour of your whole office, opt for accents so that different teams are surrounded by colours that best suit their type of work.

Go green. Get on with nature. If you can’t change the colour scheme of your office or have no control over the lighting design, adding a small potted plant to your desk décor is one of the quickest and
easiest ways you can maximize your productivity at work. Two works, Raanaas, Evensen, Rich, Sjostrom and Patil (2011) and Evensen, Raanaas, Hagerhall, Johansson and Patil (2013) found that having plant on your desk increases productivity and cognitive attention, as well as filter the air to remove mold and bacteria, keeping employees happy, productive and healthy.

Light up. Letting in a lot of natural light increases productivity, energy and creativity, according to Edwards and Torcellini (2002) which showed natural light improved test results and let customers spend more time in stores.

Ditch the open plan. This goes against everything that you’ve heard about open plan being great for collaborative work and productivity. But according to this study, Kim and de Dear (2013), workers who were lumped together in an open floor plan often are less satisfied with their working environment, citing lack of privacy specifically “sound privacy” as the reason. If you need proof, just walk through every open plan office and count the pairs of headphones. Hardly anyone collaborates, because it’s intimidating to talk to someone else when the whole office can hear your conversation. If you must have an open office plan, make sure there are plenty of private nooks and conference rooms available for people who want to have small meetings or to take a phone call, but don’t want everyone in the office to hear them.

Calves and Quads. Even the well-designed office will make employees unproductive if they feel chained to their desks. Make sure employees have the space to get up and take a walk occasionally, or maybe a lounge area where they can get a little work done without sitting in the same place all day. Free range it works for the chickens!

An office environment goes beyond good design; it comes down to culture, in addition to whether or not your employees feel comfortable
taking a 20 minute break to walk around for a mid-afternoon recharge.

Ely and Nieto (2012) identified some challenges that exist in the implementation of the collaborative office design. They include:

Dichotomous human behavior. Freedom from interruption is necessary for full exploration of possible innovations. Research shows that individuals perform more productively than do group because group work allows diffusion of work responsibility unto others (Cain 2012). Cain (2012) does not ignore the fact that brainstorming and sharing discussion can further innovation. Rather, she proposes a need for both private thinking spaces and collaborative sharing spaces. Humans have dichotomous needs in the workplace: the need for social stimulation with others and a craving for autonomy. Allocating distinct individual office space and separated collaborative settings within an open office plan is the solution to maintaining productivity among a diverse employee population of introverts and extroverts.

Noise distractions. Challenges such as noise distractions and co-worker interruption inadvertently distract employees from productive individual work. Quality acoustic design can help alleviate unwanted noise and distraction.

Air quality. Poor air quality can decrease productivity by 3% (Ashrae, 2011); however, improved air quality can lead to an increase in productivity.

Daylight. Research shows that productivity flourishes with an increase in natural lighting. Occupants in day lit and full-spectrum office buildings reported an increase in general well-being. Specifically, benefits in these types of office environments include better health, reduced absenteeism, increased productivity, financial savings, and preference of workers (Edwards & Torcellini, 2002). Benefits to the office worker are so great that many countries in
Europe require that workers be within 27 feet of a window (Franta & Anstead, 1994; Omiri, 2016).

According to Edwards and Torcellini (2002), office worker productivity can increase with the quality of light. Natural light increases attention and alertness during the post-lunch dip and has shown to be helpful in increasing alertness for boring or monotonous work, (Day, Theodorson & Wymetenberg, 2012).

For the case of absenteeism, some companies have reported a reduction in office worker absenteeism moving to new office buildings that integrated daylight; it stands that daylight has an indirect effect on productivity.

Inasmuch as an open space design office has benefits, its side effects working against productivity exist. First, there are too many distractions (noise). Second, there’s loss of employee moral (lack of privacy); and thirdly, risk of compromising work-sensitive information (less security). Awareness of these things is a key starting point for companies striving to maximise productivity. Many firms are forgoing a win-win scenario – instituting open office design but doing it in ways that allow them to retain many of the benefits of a closed environment too. But maximum productivity only happens when the issues associated with open design are recognised, confronted and proactively addressed. When businesses implement open space office and do it smartly, their workplace becomes modern and their workforce becomes productive.

Sankey (2008) sees the workplace as a point of humour and frustration for employees, depending on their outlook, but recent research suggest that different office designs can significantly help or hinder productivity in the workplace. Reporting Tim Welch’s finding, the design of office workplaces and proximity to co-workers affects employee output. The social benefit is that you feel better you’re not locked into a little closet, but with people performing tasks around you leads to interference effect. That is to say that open-concept
office is good for social and team collaboration, innovation and fostering communication. But the major drawback lies in when it comes to getting job tasks done, however, we may be paying more attention to what others are doing than to our own work. In case designers want to maximize idea generation, communication and just a general feeling of social well-being, then open-concept offices would be the better way to go. However, if the concern is for people to do individual tasks, obviously working in isolation would be the idea, which will facilitate efficiency. It would be noted that the open-office system, concentration could be hampered and those distractions slow people down and lead to more errors.

In conclusion, Sankey (2008) states, the research doesn’t negate the benefits of open-concept workplaces, rather a full assessment is recommended before making any changes, because of the social benefits associated with environments where there is more collaboration and communication.

Knight and Haslam (2010), in two experiments, found superior outcomes when offices are decorated rather than lean. However, further improvements in well-being and productivity are observed when workers have input into office decoration. Moreover, these effects are attenuated if this input is overridden. They claim to have developed office space that led to improved productivity by up to 32%, well-being by up to 45% and creativity by up to 48%, compared to the commonplace ‘flexible’ office. By implication, these findings point to the need to question assumptions about the lean office space management that have been dominant throughout the last century.

Card (2014) in an attempt to proffering how to change from ‘terrible places to work’, avers that researchers such as Fried (2010) are increasingly finding that many offices are unsatisfactory places to work, inspiring neither good ideas nor high levels of productivity. Many employees, it seems, would be more productive if they could work elsewhere.
Freeing people. There need to review the way people and offices use technology. In the past, we were stuck to the desk, but now we can recreate the office anywhere. It’s about freeing people from the shackles of the 20th century and getting away from the office production lines, which were created when most people worked in factories.

Remote working. Many businesses have already subscribed to the idea that work is something you do, rather than a place you go to. Ever greater numbers of people are now working remotely for at least part of the working week. Employees say benefits associated with staff being freed from the office often include increased productivity, improved staff retention and lower costs. Accordingly, this change means the purpose of offices needs to be rethought. People still need to meet to exchange ideas, so the office has to change to be more like a place to have meetings, rather than just doing work.

Fusion. Offices are being overhauled, the smart modern office is an all-round sensory experience designed to make people feel good and more creative. Office should, ideally, be a combination of entertainment, home comforts, technology and interactive areas.

Smell. Smell is perhaps not a subject to which many office managers give much thought, but evidence suggests that it can in fact have enormous impact on staff productivity. Aromatherapy probably isn’t the first tool you think of to stimulate your business, but perhaps it should be. In Japan the Takasago Corporation carried out research into how smells affect the accuracy of typists. It found 54% made fewer errors when they could smell lemon, 33% fewer with jasmine and 20% fewer with lavender. So perhaps what businesses need most of all is an improved air freshener.

Comfort. Research has revealed links between temperature and the productivity rates of employees. Seppanen, Fisk and Faulkner (2004) found that nearly half are less productive when the temperature soars.
above 25°C; therefore, it would seem that deviating far from the comfort zone of staff can have a considerable impact on work rate. Coleman (2014) advises on how the office can be arranged to improve employee’s productivity.

- Natural light. Try to incorporate natural light into the office space. Of course, not everyone can have large glass windows and, in some cases, large offices will have areas that aren’t even near a window. If this is the case, look at making one room (lunch room or just a quiet area) a sanctuary with natural lighting where employees can go and relax, away from the flickering fluorescent lights many offices use.

- Maintain 22°C. Studies have shown that people work best when temperature is within a range of 22°C - 25°C. They also showed that below these temperatures there were more errors, but as the temperature was increased to 22°C errors dropped by 44% and typing output increased by a massive 150%, showing that a small thing like regulating your office temperatures can play a significant role in productivity.

- Neutral colours. Try to use neutral colours where possible. Many experts believe that colours play an important role in shaping a person’s mood. Grey/white/neutral colours breed cool, open, relaxed atmosphere. If you want some colour, go for yellow which will help produce a bright, creative environment. Try a blue colour for a relaxation room/lunch area which helps promote peace, honesty and kindness. Try to avoid red whenever possible as although it helps with vitality/energy it also produces a bold, independent feeling which could cause conflicts in an office space. You may look at adding some pictures/art with these colours into your office space.

- Nature = nurture. Add some plants to your office. It’s been long established that plants can help reduce stress in the workplace, so go green and add some plants to help productivity in the office. Plus this can help air quality, help regulate humidity.

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Ambient sound. Many offices are now being created with the idea of open plan work areas which helps employees feel connected but this can also produce noise factors which can lead to distractions, which further lead to reduced productivity. Many offices have the radio on to help drown out the sound that one can generate. This can help by allowing people to concentrate on an ambient sound over the general noise, but be careful as not everyone’s taste in music is the same and choosing the right station can also be a key factor otherwise for some the music could just add to the distractions. You can bring your own music. One solution could be introducing a quiet room where people can work in a peaceful environment away from the general office distractions.

Keep healthy. Take away the sweets and go for the healthier options like fruits, nuts, etc, when that belly starts rumbling. Studies have shown that people who snack on sugary treats have a lull in the productivity in the afternoon compared to those who don’t - which is due to the fluctuations in your blood sugar levels.

Keep tidy. Maintain the office, keep things tidy and organized. Keep your desk free of clutter, make essential things handy to get by organizing what goes where; this will then create a more pleasant working atmosphere for yourself. Also don’t get annoyed by others who don’t keep organized, not everyone is the same.

3.0 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

From the literature reviewed, the relationship between office design and productivity can be depicted in the following concepts: Lighting (natural and artificial), Noise, Temperature, Air quality and Ergonomics. The relationship is defined in such a way that the set of factors impact on an individual, which in turn determine the final outcome in terms of increased or decreased productivity of that
individual. These factors have different effects on different employees based on their level of exposure or lack of it.

4.0 METHODOLOGY

The objective of the study is to find out the relationship between office design and employees’ productivity and the effect of office design on employees’ productivity. The Banking sector of Uyo town, Nigeria has been chosen as the population for the study. Out of 31 bank branches, 5 bank branches in Uyo were taken as sample. A total of 85 employees from these 5 branches were taken as the sample size. The distribution of sample among banks and number of employees taken from each bank are given.

Primary data was collected through a structured questionnaire. Observation was also used to collect information about the office design. The Questionnaire consisted of 24 questions; 4 questions on each variable. Out of these, 4 questions were on productivity, based on the technique of subjective productivity measurement. Subjective productivity data was gathered from the employees, supervisors, clients, customers and suppliers. A direct subjective productivity measurement is a survey question concerning an employee’s own productivity. For example, such a question might be, on a scale of 1-4; how your productivity changed during the last year (Black & Lynch, 1996 and Laitinen et. al., 1999). Data was collected from the sample of 5 banks (85 employees). A five point Likert Scale was used to measure all the variables. The scale varies from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) for most of the questions. A few questions were measured by the five point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (always). The questions in the questionnaire for the subjective productivity measurement were in percentages.
5.0 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Findings

Five indicators of office design such as lighting, temperature, air quality, noise, and ergonomics were considered for study. The overall response for each factor was analysed and the mean and standard deviation values are shown in the Table 1. Data was analysed to identify the factor that has relatively high tendency towards decreasing productivity. Different office design factors such as lighting, temperature, air quality, noise, and ergonomics were used to determine the extent of the loss in productivity.

Table 1 Mean of factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Total Number of Respondents</th>
<th>Mean (SD) for Factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.23 (0.79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.86 (0.54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.67 (0.67)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.70 (0.68)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergonomics</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>3.41 (0.68)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table, the foremost factor which affects the productivity of employees is lighting in the office. Following lighting the next factor is ergonomics. In subsequent order of importance, we have air quality, noise and temperature. It is noteworthy that a well-lit office environment makes for proper illumination and sight. Also, an airy and well-ventilated environment is essential in any workplace. It gives a sense of energy and affects the mood of the employees and in addition to the other factors; the office environment would be conducive for work thereby leading to increased employee productivity.
Table 2 Correlation between Elements of Office Design and Employee Productivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office design Elements</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation (r)</th>
<th>Significance (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>.185(**)</td>
<td>.047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>.470(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality</td>
<td>.774(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
<td>.488(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergonomics</td>
<td>.379(**)</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

r is Pearson correlation coefficient
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The analysis of the results indicate a positive correlation between Lighting and productivity (r = 0.185) and is significant at 0.05. This shows that when the lights in the office is poor and does not meet the illumination desire of the employees their productivity is affected.

There is a positive relationship between Temperature and Productivity. The correlation coefficient (r = 0.470) is significant at 0.01.

The positive relationship between air quality and productivity (r = 0.774) at 0.01 shows that employees’ productivity highly correlates to the air quality in the offices. The results of noise reveal its significant correlation with productivity (r = 0.488) at p = 0.01. Ergonomics is the general alignment of the employee with the physical environment, including sitting of the office design; when the correlation was calculated in SPSS it gave a positive relation with productivity (r = 0.379) where p = 0.01. It means that ergonomics has a considerable effect on the employees’ productivity.

5.2 Discussion

Analysis of the collected data revealed that office design has a substantial impact on employees’ productivity. The overall impact of

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different elements showed that lighting affects the productivity of most employees. Besides many other factors of office design affecting employees’ productivity, these were found in this study to include, ergonomics, air quality, noise and temperature. Their presence or absence affects the comfort of the employee and subsequently the performance.

There is a direct relationship between office design and productivity. The relationship between office design and productivity was determined by using the Pearson’s Correlation in SPSS. A strong correlation exists between elements of office design and productivity.

6.0 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, one of the implications of the study is lighting was found to be the major factor which is affecting the daily and overall productivity of employees in offices. Following lighting in rank order of importance include ergonomics, air quality, noise and temperature. Most organizations do not attach importance to office design; this study will give them ample reasons to consider office design as an important factor in increasing their employees’ productivity.

Therefore, it is recommended to have proper and adequate lighting, both natural and artificial in the workplace to improve the office design for better performance. Adjustable lighting switches should be installed to enable users adjust their lights in response to changing visibility and need.

It is further recommended that office design should earn management’s serious consideration regarding ergonomics, air quality, noise and temperature. Office design should not be painted with the same brush; rather differing temperature, seasons and locations, among other factors should be considered in designing the work environment.

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In addition to the general office furnishing and decoration, employees should be allowed additional moderate furnishing like wallpapers, quotations/wise sayings, pictures and flower pots with live plants. These are ones that could add to the aesthetics and beauty of the environment.

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Internet Access, Use and Monitoring Policies in Selected Organisations in Ibadan, Nigeria

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Abstract

The Internet has revolutionized, and continues to profoundly affect, the way one does business. Since the Internet has become a main source of communication both within and outside organizations, they are caught between providing Internet access to employees to perform job related activities and monitoring employees’ use of Internet without infringing on their rights and privacy. This study therefore examined the extent of Internet access and use, pervasiveness of Internet monitoring, availability of Internet use policy and compliance with Internet use policy in the selected organisations. The study adopted ex post facto survey design. Stratified random sampling was used to select 246 organisations comprising those in public, private, non-profit and non-governmental sectors. Findings revealed that two-third of the organisations provide Internet access to employees depending on their job category. However, some organisations monitor employee Internet use and also have Internet use policy. Majority of the organisations are concerned about the content accessed by their employees and therefore blocked some online content and
applications particularly those related to pornography, gaming and social networking. Most organisations reported difficulties with employees’ excessive chatting that is non-work related and accessing pornography at work. In addition, private organisations monitor employees’ Internet use most. The results suggest the need for more organisations to articulate their policies on Internet use, educate workers on Internet security and formulate mechanisms to ensure the integrity of employee monitoring. Thus, organisations need to invest on the formulation of Internet use policy that will protect both the organisations and employees.

Key Words: Internet monitoring, employee monitoring, Internet use policy

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Internet has revolutionized, and continues to profoundly affect, the way one does business. It is now a critical (if not the main) tool and venue for conducting commerce. As a tool, it allows buyers and sellers unlimited access to information, goods and services. As a venue, it does away with the limits of geography, the time zones and, in some cases, the need for a physical office. With its tremendous potential, it has become commonplace for businesses and consumers to utilize the Internet for a variety of transactions ranging from emails to actual online purchases (United Nations, 2007). The Internet has a range of capabilities that organizations are using to exchange information internally or to communicate externally with other organizations. The primary infrastructure for e-commerce, e-banking, e-business, e-learning and virtual library is provided by the Internet technology (Ureigho and Ekruyota, 2006).

The Internet is a compendium of information, a library of fun, a shopping mall, and health institute of a kind, a research institute, an archive, a musical studio and a pornographic shop amongst other
The word Internet is derived from two words: "international" and "network". The Internet therefore can be defined as an international computer network of information available to the public through modem links (Bassey, 2003).

Since the Internet has become one of the main sources of communication both within and outside organizations, companies ask their employees to use the Internet extensively for communication as well as for business activities. The Internet is cost-effective and is faster than other communication media, making it easy for employers to coordinate their global activities of customers and suppliers (Lehr and Lichtenberg, 2000).

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Various researchers have suggested that industries could be wasting up to one billion dollars each year because of Internet surfing for non-job related activities. Others estimate the cost to the American economy could be as high as 63 billion dollars each year for cyber loafing. Cyber-loafers need not be absent from their offices or desks since the computer provides them the world’s biggest playground and personal work opportunities (Schulman, 2000). Lim and Vivien (2002) states that cyber loafers in their virtual travels away from the office "may unwittingly or otherwise visit sites which expose the organization to legal liabilities and to the dangers posed by computer viruses." Lim goes on to say that "cyber loafers may pose a greater threat to the organization relative to the other types of loafers, in terms of productivity losses and cost incurred." Besides such losses, employers are greatly concerned with sensitive and confidential information being sent outside of the company to its competitors, vendors, suppliers, and customers; thus employees harming the company. According to Gahtan's (2002) article titled "Monitoring Employee Communication" there have been instances where employees were sending confidential information and corporate trade secrets through an employer's e-mail systems to other employees or friends. Furthermore, employees have been caught using an

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employer’s Internet facilities to start and/or operate their own businesses while on the job. Gahtan offers further reasoning for employee monitoring by stating, “employers may also find that they could be held liable for e-mail or Internet-related activities of their employees regardless of whether the employer was aware such activities or not.

Having stated the potential benefits and problems of providing access to the Internet in the workplace, it is necessary to have clear and legitimate guidelines to mitigate the risk while helping employees to be productive and efficient. To achieve this so some researchers suggests the following:

i. Installing appropriate monitoring and filtering software to prevent access to inappropriate material and to help identify problem employees (Overly 1999).

ii. Employers need to develop a specific Business Code of Conduct for their firm if one does not exist and adopt written policies that specifically define the rights and obligations of employees when using the Internet in the workplace (Privacy Rights Clearing house, 2002).

iii. There should be proper training and awareness programme on the Internet use and its adverse effect on productivity (Adams, Scheuing & Feeley, 2000).

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study was carried out using a survey research design which covering the organisations in Ibadan. A survey design was adopted because the targeted population is made up of organisations consisting of variables that could be measured by asking questions and the relationship between the variables could be examined through further analysis.

The study was also descriptive because it aimed at establishing the fact that organisations use Internet for their businesses, while

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employees’ Internet use is being monitored and the measures used for the monitoring. Finally, the study was explanatory because statistical analysis and procedures were used in explaining the relationships between the variables.

4.0 FINDINGS

Table 1: Access by type of organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of organization</th>
<th>Who has access to Internet in the organization</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only management</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depending on job</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson Chi-Square</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.808a</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 1 the Pearson chi-square value is 0.094 which shows that there is no significant association between a given type of organization and those who has access to Internet in the organisation.

From table 1 the result shows that there is an association between who has access to Internet in the organisations and industry type with the Pearson chi-square value of 0.000. Majority provided access to employees depending on their job (n= 114) description, the more discriminating, in terms of providing access, were public administration/government (n=7) organisations.

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
Table 2: Access by Industry type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry type</th>
<th>All</th>
<th>Only mgt/supervisor</th>
<th>Depending on job</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business/professional service</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale/Retail</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public admin/govt</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Services</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infor/Comm/Media</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/ School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>55.262a</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that there is a significant association between industry type and some applications are blocked because the Pearson Chi-square value is 0.000, it also shows that 55.7% of the organizations blocked some application with the financial services having the highest (32.2%, n= 59). It also reveals that there is association between industry type and all form of restrictions except other types of restrictions (chi-square sig value=0.263) described by the respondents.

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
Table 3: Industry type and blocked applications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDUSTRY</th>
<th>Application blocked</th>
<th>Blocked can be accessed after work</th>
<th>Some computers have access</th>
<th>Accessible on job</th>
<th>Accessed with permission</th>
<th>Other types of restriction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business/professional service</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale/Retail</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public admin/govt</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial Services</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infor/Comm/Media</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education/ School</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Chi-square test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Application blocked</th>
<th>Blocked can be accessed after work</th>
<th>Some computers have access</th>
<th>Accessible on job</th>
<th>Accessed with permission</th>
<th>Other types of restriction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square Value</td>
<td>74.497&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>88.906&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>29.053&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>21.273&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>18.836&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>10.028&lt;sup&gt;a&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>df</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>0.263</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adoeye & Adelowo (2017)*
Internet Monitoring and Usage

Table 3 shows Pearson chi-square value also shows that there is an association between the industry type and all sites except News sites which has the significance value of 0.740 which is above the threshold value of 0.05. Thus it shows that there is no association between the type of industry and the news sites.

5.0 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Organisations Profile

The results of the study shows that private organisations with small employee size are the most users of the Internet for their business transactions, just a few of the government owned organisation have Internet access. It also reveals that the majority were private organisations where the predominant type of industry is the financial services. This is so because these industries rely on the Internet as the backbone for successful business transactions nationwide. This findings differs from a similar study carried out in the Philippines by Alampay and Hechanova (2010) that reported that the predominant organisation type that has Internet access was retail. Beside, trade and that the large size organisations were the most users of Internet.

5.2 Internet Access and Use

The results of the study show that the organisations surveyed have Internet access and mostly make use of the Local Area Network and Wireless Fidelity connections which shows that providing access to the Internet is becoming the norm among organisations in Ibadan. More so, over half of the organisations provide access to employees depending on their job description; and a few said it is available to all employees which deviates from what Alampay and Hechanova (2010) described in a similar study in the Philippines that the higher percentage of access was granted to all employees. It also shows that more than half of the organisations that have Internet access restrict
their employees’ access to the Internet and only few give employees complete access. This finding also agrees with the survey of 670 companies by carrier site Vault.com which examined Internet monitoring, the results indicate that 41% of organizations restrict or monitor Internet use (Net Monitoring Survey, 2000). The reason that could be adduced for providing access to Internet was for easy communication between offices (financial services and information, communication and media) and aids research findings (research institutes, education/school and information, communication and media). Respondents also perceived that access to the Internet would lead to higher productivity among employees. This agrees with the findings of Alampay and Hechanova (2010) that the popular reason for providing Internet access to employees was for research and making communication easier.

5.3 Internet Monitoring and usage

Although Internet access is provided, a little below half of the organisations monitor websites connections of all employees and for selected job categories while a larger percentage does not restrict usage of the Internet. Also, a little below half of the organisations have written policy on Internet use and some uses a dedicated MIS staff and automated software to monitor Internet. In addition, majority of organisations that block some applications also agreed to the fact that some of the blocked sites that can be accessed after work hours are private organisations and mostly the financial services industry.

However a few of the organisations reported that some applications can be accessed if permission is requested to justify why the websites are to be accessed. These restrictions are necessary so as to aid employees’ concentration at work and would reduce traffic congestion on organisations servers. This finding agrees with the AMA survey of 2005 which showed that employers are increasingly concerned about inappropriate Web surfing, and 65 percent of employers use software to block connections to some web sites, a 27 percent increase over an earlier 2001 survey (AMA, 2005). But

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
according to Alge (2001), employers should allow employees personal Internet time; exercising excessive control impedes ideas and innovation. There is no doubt that the Internet is a productivity tool that makes communication quicker and more efficient. As a learning tool, it gives employees access to new knowledge, which makes them better in their jobs. Employees become both more effective and efficient. This increases their self-esteem, which improves customer service and interpersonal relationships (Singh, 2004). Therefore, it is not only discriminatory to allow only some employees access to the Internet, but it is also being selfish. The results also revealed that the smaller organizations really monitor their employees' Internet use. This might be due to the fact that most of them are privately owned and are extensions of other offices with several branches and outlets across the country and it is the management's decision to put all office Internet use in the right order.

What organizations block and how they do so also varies. A lot of the organisations are bothered about the content accessed by employees through the Internet, although some of them check time spent and just a few monitor employees' personal blogs. Blocking of pornography sites is common but it has not however dissuaded people from trying to access such content as evident from the results of the study. Almost all the organisations block pornography and online gaming sites as this two sites can reduce employees' productivity level and also lead to lack of concentration and time wastage which is precious to the organisation. This agrees with the findings with the study of Deisz (2005) on Norwegian organisations that reported that 73% of Norway active adult users accessed the Web at least once from work, 41% access the quite often at work, and 15% go online exclusively at work. Some organisations block some social networking sites like facebook, twitter and the likes, as they also distract employees from the job. Some organizations agreed that they block employees from downloading music, pictures and video as these sites clogs up the bandwidth and makes the Internet connection slow and also to protect their computer systems from viruses attached to the downloaded materials. Online mail services were blocked by most of the financial

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
services industry as most communication is meant to be within the organisations and other branches across the nation and every employee has company email for communication and business transactions. Whitepapers (web@work, 2004), (Davies, 2001) and (SecuComp, 2005) all concluded that cyber-slacking (surfing the web at work) is a major problem in most companies and that 37% of American workers surf the Internet constantly at the job, and that more than a half of them often use the Internet for private purposes at work. Also Dancaster (2001) reported that 64 percent of employees use the Internet at work for personal interests; and 37 percent say they “surf the Web constantly” while on the job. Caroll(2007) also reported that 60 percent of online purchases occur during normal work hours, as does 70 percent of porn traffic. Social networking sites are also becoming a particularly tenacious distraction. But almost all the organisations do not block news sites this might be due to the fact that everybody needs to know what is happening around them and in the world generally.

Some communication applications’s sites like Yahoo messenger and Skype were blocked by a little less than half of the organisations that were surveyed. Instant messaging was seen as a more problematic application especially in the financial services industry, as fewer organizations restricted the use of yahoo messenger, Skype and blogs. Some IT managers indicated that their organisations allowed internally developed instant messaging devices that could allow their employees communicate with themselves. This further illustrates the recognized importance of these applications, while also highlighting the security risks involved with using similar online-based services. As Villeneuve (2008) has claimed, trusting online services with personal communications may sometimes be misplaced. Majority of the organisations said employees’excessive chatting that is non-work related is a big problem they faced. Accessing pornography sites was not an uncommon problem too and likewise downloading of music, video and pictures, computer virus due to heavy downloads and playing online games as almost half of the respondents experience

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
this problem. Alampay and Hechonava (2010) reported the same findings in their study.

5.4 Email Use and Computer Surveillance

Most of the organisations do not review or store employees’ email messages. Only a few agreed to do this for all employees and for selected job categories while a little above half do not. The organisations that do review company issued emails mostly do it routinely and only few do occasionally or when specified. It further shows that a little above half of the organisations review all employees’ computer files, a few review for selected job categories and less than half do not review their employees’ computer files. More so, few of those that store and review employees’ computer files do it routinely and regularly. This finding disagrees with the American Management Association (AMA) study in 2005 that said that 3.63% employers store and review employees’ computer files. This implies that although some organisations store and review employees’ computer files yet not all of them informed their employees on organisations’ policy of monitoring files. The results also show that the private owned organisations were in the majority of those that store and review employees’ computer files. In fact, the results also revealed that just a few of the organisations are bothered about what employees use their computer systems and emails for. This might be because most of them do not have enough resources in form of revenue and human capital for putting this process in place. It can also be due to the fact that most of the organisations’ management staff does not have foreknowledge of the side effect of computer and Internet abuse.

5.5 Policy on personal use of ICTs

Findings show that the development of clear and written organizational policies for using ICT facilities is in place in a little less than half of the organisations. Only few reported having email use and Internet use policies. Many private organisations, specifically

*Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)*

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financial services and information, communication and media already have policies in place and their policies are in compliance to industry regulations, although some are imposed by their head offices. Some of the information, communication and media services organisations are government owned and non-governmental organisations are the least advanced in developing policies for ICT-use. A few agreed on informing employees of organisation’s policy on monitoring email messages and more than half did not inform their employees of the policy. This shows that just a few of the organisations actually informed their employees that there are policies governing the use of Internet. These findings agree in part with a similar study by Young and Case (2004) in America, the results indicate that 48% of the organizations had instituted an Internet Use Policy and 52% did not. Internet use policy is not fully utilized in the organisations and this may be because there are no policy developers or the management is ignorant of the use of policy for restricting and monitoring employee Internet use and the management is scared of breaching employees’ privacy. Most employees believe they are entitled to a little privacy when at work and they should be able to do anything in their private place but there should be balance between privacy and productivity. As noted by Signh 2004:

"An Internet policy is no different from any other organizational policy. Internet policies or Internet usage policies are designed to regulate the day-to-day usage of Internet facilities. Internet policies are designed to protect the rights of the employer and the employees, with regard to the use of Internet facilities. In many instances, policies are developed to ensure fairness and equity in the employer–employee relationship."

The organisations that put policies in place said this act has helped to increase productivity but some argued that their employees would not be free at work and thus it may reduce their self-esteem and morale.

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
5.6 Policy Compliance and Discipline

A little above half of the organisations agreed to ever disciplining their employees on breaching company policy on ICT use. About half of those that agreed to ever disciplining their employees on breaching these policies were on misuse of office Internet and misuse of company email. Majority were issued formal warnings and few led to dismissals. The incidence of discipline is higher in small organisations than in the medium and large organisations showing that most of the organisations that reported having Internet use policy are implementing them and their employees are aware of the dangers of not complying. However, only few organisations with Internet or email use policy shows that many organisations are not aware of the importance of policies and have not experienced any legal issues on Internet misuse by their employees. This finding contrasts a finding of the American Management Association (AMA) in 2005, which reported that approximately 38% of 2,100 major U.S companies check their employee’s e-mail and 54% monitor Internet connections (Yulihasri, et al, 2006). Of these organizations, 17% have fired employees, 26% have issued formal reprimands, and 20% have given informal warnings. The predominant industry that have complied and disciplined employees for inappropriate Internet and email use were the financial services and the information/communication/media industry, this is because they are branches to larger organisations. This may be due to the fact that the larger organizations are more likely to already have clear guidelines and policies, and may also have the dedicated resources in place for monitoring their information and communication systems.

6.0 CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of the this study, it can be concluded that most of the organisations surveyed in Ibadan have Internet access, use Local area network connection and are mostly private organisations. It also revealed that most employers grant Internet access to employees depending on their job descriptions and restricts their
connections by using blocking software and a dedicated MIS staff. Content accessed on the Internet by employees is the major concern of the employers has pornography sites, online gaming sites and social networking sites were blocked by most of the organisations. In addition, most organisations that review and store employees email messages and computer files do it routinely. It can be concluded that most organisation that have Internet, restricts employees use and monitor what they actually do on the Internet.

However, just a few of the organisations have written Internet use policy, which shows that the articulation and implementation of clear written policy is still lagging. The study also shows that only few of the organisation that have Internet use policy have complied and disciplined its employees on Internet misuse.

The commonly encountered problems in the organisations were excessive chatting that is non-work related and accessing pornography sites at work.

7.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study established that there is a need to put in greater effort to policy documentation and dissemination, employee education on Internet use and in establishing systems that will maximize the benefits of Internet technology while minimizing its risks.

More so, the organisations must balance employee productivity with privacy. If it is an organization policy to store, review and monitor employee Internet use then such information should be protected. It also requires developing organizational capabilities to secure such information from outside intrusion and pressure. The researcher recommends that organisations should sensitize their employees on the content of Internet use policy so that they can be aware of the consequences if breached. Also, organisations should employ a good policy developer that would consider the employees privacy with respect to productivity so that the restrictions and guidelines will not

Adeoye & Adelowo (2017)
affect employer-employee relationship, employee efficiency and organisation's productivity.

The limitations of this study are primarily a function of sample size and inadequate time. Even though responses were relatively equally distributed among organization size and industry type, a larger sample size would increase the robustness of results. Ultimately, results will assist organizations in improving employee Internet management, limiting risk, and maximizing employee productivity.

REFERENCES


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Newspaper Reporting of Corruption Cases in Nigeria: A Study of The Nation and Guardian Online Newspapers (March-June 2016)

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Abstract

Corruption-Growth nexus debate in Nigeria has become more interesting since the inception of the current political dispensation. One of the main focuses of present administration is war against corruption. The sand in the wheel of economic development in Nigeria has being increased by the corruption menace attributed to politicians and political office holders who are amassing wealth at the expense of the public treasure. Employing content analysis method, this paper examines the state of the Nigerian economy and cases of corruption reported by the Nation and Guardian newspapers over a period of 4 month in 2016. It found 225 reported cases of corruption and infer that the media is delivering on their social responsibilities to the society. It concludes that underdevelopment state of the Nigerian economy may persist if this rate of corruption continues unabated, if decisive actions are not taken against corrupt officials and if the reported cases are not given the critical attention by the government.

Key Words: Corruption, Corrupt Officials, Social Responsibility, Collective Responsibility, Media Reporting

Corruption can be beaten if we work together.  
To stamp out the abuse of power, bribery and
shed light on secret deals, citizens must
together tell their governments they have had
enough.

José Ugaz,
Chair, Transparency International

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Debate on corruption-growth nexus has been receiving media attention in Nigeria more often in recent times. Nigeria is known to many by its myriad of corrupt practices among its citizens especially the public officers and it is an incontrovertible fact that corruption has been the bane of Nigeria’s economic development. Ndokwu (2004) says: the Igbos call it Igbouzu, the Yorubas call it Egunje while the Hausas call it Chuachua. People no longer frown or feel ashamed to engage in corrupt practices. Chuachua Egunje or Igbouzu is now acceptable and it is possible to hear someone openly complaining that there is no Chuachua, Egunje or Igbouzu at his or her place of work and as such a person might quickly resign if he or she finds another work where there is opportunity for Chuachua. It is as bad as that!

More so, corruption is a global phenomenon. It is not the exclusive preserve of any nation, race or section of the world but transcends national boundaries and frontiers and symbolizes phenomenal universal unwholesomeness politically, Aluko (2009) opined. This menace has led to situations like slow movement of files in offices, police extortion of toll fees, port congestion, queues at passport offices and petrol stations, ghost workers syndrome, election irregularities, among others (Dike, 2005, Ihenacho, 2004, Oliyide and Odeku, 2002 and Oloja 2002 in Aluko, (2009).

Adesina-Uthman (2014) posited that corruption effects could be seen on infrastructural development, government expenditure and revenue as well as overall economic development of the Nigeria state. From internet fraud to money laundering, bribery, abuse of power; ill-

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treatment of subordinates and indecent treatment of people’s needs; self-award of contract; malicious withdrawal or carpeting of personnel files; unnecessary delay of actions on certain demands; fraudulent distortion of facts and figures; nepotism; embezzlement and other financial misappropriation; ghost worker systems; 10 percent syndrome; transfer of public funds to private accounts; over invoicing; inflation of contracts price; and incendiarism, usually to cover-up corrupt practices (Sowunmi, Raufu, Oketokun, Salako and Usifoh, 2010) without mincing words the phenomenon of corruption has ravaged the country and destroyed most of what is held and cherished as national values (Ogbeidi, 2012). Therefore, a collective responsibility of citizenry is required to combat the menace of corruption. Whistle blowers and the media have got synergy roles to play in ensuring that corruption and corrupt officials are exposed.

In diverse literatures, scholars trace the history of corruption in Nigeria to be rooted in the over 29 years of military rule (Malunzen (1995); Akinseye-George (2000); Ribadu (2006); Afoloyan (2012); Sowunmi et al (2010)). Here, all the military regimes subdued the rule of law, facilitated the looting of the public treasury, prohibited free speech and instituted a secret culture in the running of government business. Nwaka (2003) opined that corruption became legitimized, especially during the Babangida and Abacha regimes (1985-1998), with huge revenues, but wasteful spending, and nothing to show in terms of physical developments. According to Ribadu (2009), the African Union has reported that corruption drains the region of some $140 billion a year, which is about 25% of the continent's official GDP. In Nigeria alone, we had a leader, General Sani Abacha, whose looted funds are invested mostly in the western world running to $5–6 billion. He claimed that between 1960 and 1999, Nigerian officials had stolen or wasted more than $440 billion.

In all of these, what has been the role of the media? Where has it stood considering that the role of the media is critical in promoting good governance and controlling corruption?

Abidemi (2017)
The Media epitomize a vital and fundamental fragment of democratic process in any political setting. Their legislative purposes of enlightenment, education and entertainment have placed them on a base of watchfulness and vigilance such that they have become a crucial part of social governance. As whistle blowers, they inform the populace, set agenda for social discourse and hold public opinion through their editorial comments, public opinion corner and opinion articles (Akani, 2017). According to Harold Lasswell, the mass media plays a ‘watchdog’ role in the society not only by raising public awareness about corruption, its causes, consequences and possible remedies but also investigating and reporting incidences of corruption. Sowunmi et al (2010) examined the role of media in curbing corruption in Nigeria as well as the problems encountered in the process of performing this role. The study revealed that corruption has been and continues to be a destructive element in the governance of Nigeria economy and in the perception of the country in the comity of nations. The study showed that poverty, threat to life, undue interference by government, harassment, injury and lack of laws to protect journalist are the major obstacles to media in their fight against corruption. Alawode (2008) examined the efforts of the print media, the newspapers and news magazine in fighting corruption, especially since the establishment of the two Anti-Corruption agencies; the ICPC and the EFCC by the administration of former President Olusegun Obasanjo. Using simple content analysis of newspapers and news magazines, especially news reports and analyses showed that an appreciable space was devoted to anti-corruption reporting. The effects of these reports were manifest in the improvement in Nigeria’s ranking by the Transparency International and in other areas.

Afoloyan (2012) notes that the most obvious examples of media potential for curbing corruption can be seen when politicians or other senior public officials lose their jobs as a consequence of the public outcry or legal proceedings that follow the fearless reporting on corruption. Examples of this kind of outcome are not hard to find—particularly from Nigeria where a surge in media reporting on...
corruption charges (certificate forgery) has helped to force former speaker of house of representative Ibrahim Salisu and former President of senate Evan Ewerem to resign their positions. Also, in 2005, a newspaper report revealed alleged impropriety by the Ministry of Housing and Urban Development in the sale of government houses in Lagos. The story gained prominence when influential newspapers picked it up. This resulted in direct intervention by the President, who cancelled the allocations. Denying any involvement in the scandal, the President took action and ordered that the process be started all over. The legislative arms of the government have not been spared from media attention and exposure with some losing their seats following media campaigns (Egbuna, 2007). A good example is the case of former Speaker of House of Representative, Patricia Ette who was exposed on her furniture allowance scandal. It was also the media that exposed Chuba Okadigbo, Dimeji Bamkole and of recent giving prominence to Farouk Lawan atrocity.

Essentially, it can be deduce that the Media represent many ways through which information about the state, society and environment is presented to the general public. It is this information that builds the peoples literacy and fortifies them to challenge arbitrary rulership and demand humane governance. They can be classified into three broad categories- print (Newspapers, magazines) electronic (radio, cinema, and television) and the social media (internet, You Tube, Facebook and Twitter). The social media which is the latest arrival refers to social instruments of communication which are different from the conventional interaction often among heterogeneous people (Adibe, Odemelam & Chibue, 2014, pp 299-300). The traditional function of the media to educate, inform and entertain has inexorably made it a trigger of human development. This is because the basic goal of (the media) is to serve society by informing the public, scrutinizing the way power is exercised stimulating democratic debates, and in these ways aiding political, economic social and cultural development (Oboh & Onu, 2008, p. 3). In this paper however, attempts were made to examine the efforts of the print

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media, specifically the newspapers, in fighting corruption, especially since the ingress of the President Muhammadu Buhari led administration. Employing simple contents analysis of two major Newspapers between the periods of March to June 2016 when anti-corruption agencies became more proactive. The paper provides answer to the major question of how the print media has assisted in the fight against corruption especially in reporting and exposing the plague as well as helping to propagate the role of the anti-corruption agencies.

The paper is divided into Introduction; Conceptualising Corruption and Theoretical Framework; Methodology, Fighting Corruption in the Economy: Role of Mass Media; Findings and Conclusion.

2.0 CONCEPTUALISING CORRUPTION AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It is difficult to define corruption (Olugbenga (2007), Odofin and Omojuwa (2007), Ajibewa (2006), Faloore (2010), Igbuzor (2008), Egwemi (2012)). Ogbeidi (2012) concludes that there is no widespread or comprehensive definition as to what constitutes corrupt behavior. According to Stople (2008), United Nations Convention against corruption recognized corruption as a multi-faceted, dynamic and flexible phenomenon, and therefore does not define, but describe corrupt practices. However, the most prominent definitions share a common emphasis on the abuse of public power or position for personal advantage.

According to Salisu (2000) in Afolayan (2012), the simplest definition of corruption is that it is the misapplication of public resources to private ends. Collection of bribes by public officials in the course of duty for instance in the process of issuing passports or visa, permits and licenses among others were cited by Afolayan as misapplication of public funds for private use. Sternberg (2000) in Sowunmi, et al (2010) states that a bribe is an incentive offered to
encourage someone to break the rules of the organization he nominally represents and deliver an (unfairly) favorable outcome.

Ekiyor (2005) cited in Iyanda (2012), in his broad view of corruption, defined it as the unlawful use of official power or influence by an official of the government either to enrich himself or further his course and/or any other person at the expense of the public, in contravention of his oath of office and/or contrary to the conventions or laws that are in force. According to the World Bank and Transparency International (TI), a leading global anti-corruption watchdog, corruption is the abuse of public office for private gains for the benefit of the holder of the office or some third party. For instance, during the first four years of the Olusegun Obasanjo administration, federal ministers allegedly stole more than N23 billion from the public coffers. An audit report released by Vincent Azie, acting Auditor-General of the Federation, showed that the amount represented financial frauds ranging from embezzlement, payments for jobs not done, over-invoicing, double-debiting, inflation of contract figures to release of money without the consent of the approving authority in ten major ministries (Ogbeidi, 2012).

Corruption, according to Onyeziri, is a behavioral attitude contrary to or at the variance with the set rules and agreed norms (Onyeziri, 2004). Macrae (1982) in Sowunmi et al (2010) defined corruption as "an arrangement that involves an exchange between two parties (the demander and the supplier) which

(i) has an influence on the allocation of resources either immediately or in the future; and
(ii) involves the use or abuse of public or collective responsibility for private ends."

Konie (2003) identified two types of corruption, these are: C Vertical corruption, which involves managers and decision makers. This is more common in less developed countries and C Horizontal corruption, which involves the entire official, informed, and laymen
groups in the countries. The two types of corruption should be seriously addressed and eradicated if any meaningful economic or political progress is to be made. Adding to array of definitions, Adesina-Uthman (2014) defined corruption as “misuse of public or private funds or power for private or personal benefit”. She identified different types of corruptions such as administrative bribery known as “speed money” or “illegal lobbying fees” and illegal corruption with complicity between public and private officials. Adesina-Uthman further argued that level of development of official corruption and unfavorable political and socio-economic condition lends weight to corruption as sanding the “wheel of development” in Nigeria.

Having defined corruption, theory is the other side of practice. Both must however work in collaboration to produce expected results. The need to properly explore the theoretical foundations of this study has necessitated the use of two theories: the Social Responsibility Theory of the mass media and Game Theory in economics. The Social responsibility theory on the other hand allows free press without any restriction but at the same time the content of the press socially responsible. The theory lies between both authoritarian theory and libertarian theory because it gives total media freedom in one hand but the external controls in other hand. Here, the press ownership is private. The social responsibility theory moves beyond the simple “Objective” reporting (facts reporting) to “Interpretative” reporting (investigative reporting).

Melisande (2009) disclosed that the Robert Hutchins commission in 1947 put forth the following five guidelines for a socially responsible press in a report titled A Free and Responsible Press:

(1) a truthful, comprehensive, and intelligent account of the day’s events in a context which gives them meaning;
(2) a forum for the exchange of comment and criticism;
(3) the projection of a representative picture of the constituent groups in the society;

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(4) the presentation and clarification of the goals and values of the society;
(5) Full access to the day’s intelligence.

Foremost communication scholar Denis McQuail (1994), summarized the basic principles of Social Responsibility Theory as the following:

(1) Media should accept and fulfill certain obligations to society.
(2) These obligations are mainly to be met by setting high or professional standards of informativeness, truth, accuracy, objectivity and balance.
(3) In accepting and applying these obligations, media should be self-regulating within the framework of law and established institutions.
(4) The media should avoid offensive content triggering crime, violence, or civil disorder or harm to minority groups.
(5) The media as a whole should be pluralist and reflect the diversity of their society, giving access to various points of view and rights of reply.
(6) Society and the public have a right to expect high standards of performance, and intervention can be justified to secure the, or a, public good.
(7) Journalists and media professionals should be accountable to society as well as to employers and the market.

As it relates to this study, it is theoretically evident that the media is obliged to the society to ensure that cases of corruption are duly investigated and reported to the society at large. The study is also rooted in game theory of economics of corruption where the gains to the corrupt officials are losses to the society at large. This is known as zero-sum gain according to Myerson (1991). In a country where corruption is rooted, poverty and other vices such as child labour, unemployment, poor education, poor infrastructural development, violence to mention a few shall always abound. Corruption in the public places indicates loss of money for development going to the

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pocket of the few. Consequently, people in the economy suffer why the few enjoy the looted funds from the public treasury.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a simple content analysis as its methodology to determine the Newspaper coverage of corruption news. It has been used widely as an effective scientific research method. It is capable of providing valid and reliable qualitative and quantitative scientific observations because of its unobtrusive nature, which eliminates many confounding antecedent conditions that are often encountered in media research, when some other research techniques are used. According to Aina (2002), there are 43 daily newspapers in circulation in Nigeria. These newspapers constituted the population for this study. Using the purposive sampling technique, two prominent Newspapers were selected. According to Palys (2008), to say one will engage in purposive sampling signifies that one sees sampling as a series of strategic choices about whom, where and how one does ones’ research. With this in mind, the researcher selected The Nations Newspaper considering its reach and political affiliations in the country and Guardian Newspapers on the basis of its credibility and acceptability. The period of March to June 2016 was also selected on the basis for review. This period marked the height in the corruption fight by the President Muhammadu Buhari led administration. It involved the prosecution of diverse public officers not just in the courts but also the market place of public opinion.

The units of analysis from these papers are articles reported on corruption/corrupt practices in the Nigerian economy. The articles or stories could be inform of news, features or opinion (editorials). Two broad categories were created: corruption/corrupt-practices oriented stories and non-corruption related stories. The corruption/corrupt-practices-oriented stories included bribery, embezzlement, influence-peddling, and appropriation of public resources for private gain, patronage, pork-barreling, bureaucratic conflict of interest over national resources, impropriety and others. From the sample, sectoral

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analysis of the relevant stories/articles was carried out vis-a-viz frequency of coverage which refers to the number of times a sub-category appears in the publication.

4.0 FIGHTING CORRUPTION IN THE ECONOMY: ROLE OF MASS MEDIA

According to Lawal and Ogunro (2012), Successive governments have initiated various strategies aimed at fighting corruption such as War Against Indiscipline (WAI), Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences (ICPC), Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) among others, yet, corruption continues unabated. It thrives because most of the institutions established to combat corruption are not either constitutionally, legally, organizationally nor financially empower to be independent in a way to act without external influence in discharging their duties. Eigen (1999) in Nogara (2009) notes that media can play an important public accountability role by monitoring and investigating the actions of those who are granted public trust and who may be tempted to abuse their office for private gain. To Kigali (2013), investigating and reporting on corruption by the media informs the public about corrupt activities perpetrated in both government offices and the private sector. Media provides information with which citizens can hold public and private institutions to account.

Furthermore, news accounts circulate the findings of public anti-corruption bodies, thus buttressing the legality of these bodies and reducing the ease with which interested parties who hold power can interfere in their work. Equally, when media leaks blemishes and even corruption within the various bodies of the state, corruption is put on check. Additionally, if the consequential public pressure leads to a reform of those bodies, the long-term effectiveness and potential of the media to act as a terror against corruption is strengthened. Little wonder Kigali (2013) said media fight corruption by upholding the anti-corruption struggles of civil society groups as well as promoting

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action by official bodies vested with the responsibility of investigating and prosecuting corrupt acts.

Nogara (2009) citing Rose-Ackerman (1999) notes that qualitative, independent media reporting on corruption can play an important role in pressuring the government to act in the public interest. By drawing the government’s attention to behaviour that is generally perceived as acceptable and exposing such behaviour as corrupt, media can raise public awareness, activate anticorruption values and generate outside pressure from the public against corruption. However, how effectively media work and report on corruption hangs on a number of acute dynamics such as freedom of media professionals to access, verify and publish accurate information, and independence of media houses and their ability to access independent sources of financing.

It should be noted that media freedom of expression is indispensable in the fight against corruption. It is a required modality to probe and report occurrences of corruption in a professional, effective and ethical manner. Freedom House, which monitors the free flow of information to and from the public, measures press freedom in terms of the degree to which laws and government regulations impact news content; the degree of political influence or control over the context of the news system; the economic influences on the media employed either by government or private entrepreneurs, and the degree of oppression of the news media (Brunetti and Weder, 2003). Cross-country data measuring the effects of press freedom on corruption have found that press freedom is positively correlated with lower levels of corruption (Brunetti and Weder, 2003; and Ahrend, 2002). Little wonder the United Nations has set aside May 3 annually as press Freedom Day in recognition of the contributions of the media to national development (Nwanne, 2014).

According to Sambe and Ikoni (2004), press freedom focuses its attention on the unrestrained liberty to write or publish information for the consumption of the public. With this in mind, is the Nigerian press free enough to report issues of corruption?

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As Sambe and Ikoni (2004) have pointed out, there are six issues which press freedom is all about.

a. No prior or subsequent restraint
b. Freedom to gather information
c. The right not to be compelled to disclose the source of information
d. Freedom of impart
e. The right to receive information
f. Freedom from unreasonable punishment for what is published.

However, Press Freedom is often controversial and press freedom in Nigeria is a long piece of story book. From the period of the military where the press was gagged (Momoh (2002), Ufuophu-Biri, (2006)) to the democratically elected dispensation where politicians own the media houses. Hence, the Nigerian press is not totally free despite the passage of the freedom of information act passed during the administration of President Goodluck Jonathan. Part of the reason is that people in government often do not want a powerful press that could be a counterpoise to their exalted position. They would rather prefer that the press be sycophantic so that their shortcomings are not brought to the public glare (Nwanne, 2014).

5.0 FINDINGS

Table 1: Frequency distribution of corruption articles covered by the selected Newspapers across the Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Month</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
<th>Guardian</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>March</td>
<td>20(36%)</td>
<td>35(64%)</td>
<td>55(24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April</td>
<td>28(46%)</td>
<td>33(54%)</td>
<td>61(27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>37(54%)</td>
<td>32(46%)</td>
<td>69(31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June</td>
<td>25(62.5%)</td>
<td>15(37.5%)</td>
<td>40(18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>110(49%)</td>
<td>115(51%)</td>
<td>225(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ Data Extraction from the Nation and Guardian Online Newspaper

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Results in Table 1 show the frequencies of corruption articles covered by each selected newspaper within the study time frame. This result shows that information about corruption practices was high in May 2016 with the Nations Newspaper accounting for 54% of the reports and Guardian only 46%. Looking at the trend for each month, Guardian newspaper reported cases of corruption more than the Nation newspaper. Most of the news items bothered on sections of the society’s support for the President’s will to fight corruption in Nigeria as well as stories from the trial of the Senate President, Senator Bukola Saraki, who allegedly made a false declaration of assets. For instance, Guardian of April 22nd, 2016 headlined “Drama as Saraki’s counsel dares CCT chair”. The Nations Newspaper had a similar headline on the same issue. Other headlines within this period included “Oronsaye operated 66 illegal accounts, says EFCC” (Guardian 15th June 2016 and The Nations); “At last, FG releases details of recovered loots” (05 June 2016), “APC has reduced corruption in Nigeria” – Lalong (22 May 2016).

REPORTED CASES OF CORRUPTION IN NIGERIAN NEWSPAPERS FROM MARCH-JUNE 2016

Abidemi (2017)
Table 2: Frequency Distribution of Categories of Corruption Articles Across the Newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Reporting</th>
<th>The Nation</th>
<th>Guardian</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>News</td>
<td>82(67%)</td>
<td>40(33%)</td>
<td>122(54%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feature</td>
<td>12(75%)</td>
<td>4(25%)</td>
<td>16(7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editorial</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opinion</td>
<td>7(26%)</td>
<td>20(74%)</td>
<td>27(12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>9(15%)</td>
<td>51(85%)</td>
<td>60(27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>110(49%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>115(51%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>225(100%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 2, it is evident that majority of the reports on corruption are news reports on the government’s effort to fight corruption as well as reports of support to the government in its bid to fight corruption. Evidently, out of the 51% of corruption reports from the Guardian, 35% were news articles while 3% were feature stories and 17% were opinion articles and 445% were made up of other forms of media reports such as ads, columns, Saturday specials, etc. From The Nations Newspaper, out of the 110% reports on corruption, 75% of the reports were News reports while 11% were feature articles and 8% were made up of other articles while 6% were opinions.

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6.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The ability of the media to pre-determine what issues are important gives the media an edge to fight corruption since they can easily lay emphasis on the atrocities being committed by public figures in the country. The power of the media to expose corrupt acts through the elements of this theory will go a long way in reducing corrupt acts in the country. If public figures know that their corrupt acts will be given a lot of publicity, there is the likelihood to have a rethink before stealing public funds. Legal lobbying corruption or illegal corruption of diversion of public wealth for private use is inimical to economic development. Consequently, the paper found that the two newspapers’ reporting on corruption has a wider spread in the news, editorial, features, opinions and others. The Nation’s newspaper recorded upward increasing in reported cases from March to May but was reduced in June with total of 110 reported cases of corruption. Guardian reported cases were much in volume, however, it shows a diminishing figure from March to June. Total reported cases of corruption by Guardian is 115. The study found that within the spate of 4 months, 225 cases of corruption were reported. This may account for why Nigeria’s rating on Transparency International’s Corruption Perception Index (CPI) remains at 36 in 2015 out of 167 countries. In 2014, Nigerian position was same as 2015 however out of 174 with a score of 27 percent for 2014 and 26 percent for 2015. Reporting of 225 cases of corruption within 4 months lend support to the underdevelopment state of the Nigerian economy. By inference, this was achievable through collective responsibility of the society and the media. There is the likelihood to conclude that the media reporting is a way of delivering of social responsibility of the media. The study opines that the 225 corruption cases should be properly investigated by the anticorruption agencies in the country with the aim of getting back the looted funds for the society and for economic development of the Nigerian nation. Necessary decisive action should be taken against corrupt officials.
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The Guardian Newspaper, March to June, 2016

The Nation Newspaper, March to June, 2016.

Assessment of Marketing Research on Product Development in Organisation: A Study of Globacom Nigeria Limited

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to assess the practical application of marketing research on product development in Organisation enterprises in Nigeria with reference to Globacom Nigeria Limited. The study focuses on marketing research on product development in Organisation. A descriptive survey research design was applied to describe management by objectives influence on organization. The sample size employed 82 respondents from Globacom Nigeria Limited. Questionnaires were administered to the sampled population to collect primary data and an interview was also conducted with management to get some key information which is needed for this study. However, the study made use of simple random sampling in selecting the respondents comprising management and
staff of Globacom Nigeria Limited. Pearson Correlation test was used to check the significant relationship between Management by objective (MBO) and organization performance. It was found out that marketing research has a positive significant effect on product development in Organisation. It was therefore recommended that management of Globacom Nigeria Limited should increase its present effort on marketing research activities to increase the awareness of the company to the public, number of policy holders, a check to the organization and customer satisfaction.

**Key Words:** Research; Marketing; Organization; Development

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Marketing research comprises one of the most important and fascinating facets of product development. The development of effective marketing strategies is based upon an understanding of the consumer and his or her behavior. However, understanding the consumer can be achieved through marketing research. According to Curry (2007), marketers who fail to conduct a thorough and comprehensive marketing research run the risk of not achieving their marketing objectives. At one time, businesses were small, customers were few, and markets were mostly local; suppliers and customers were in almost daily, close personal contact; bargaining was done face to face; the market place was the hub of economic and social life (Green, 2007). Businesses were run not by corporate executives but by people who were similar to those whose custom they sought to attract. They shared the same culture and communications was direct and resonate with cultural values.

The term marketing research can be seen as the application of the scientific method of inquiry in helping marketers to better understand and define their problems and find appropriate solutions to them. It is also the systematic and objective, collection, recording, analysis, interpretation, and reporting of data needed for solving specific problems.
market problems. It involves collecting and analyzing environmental information systematically that market opportunities would be recognized and marketing problem solved (Alih, 2007).

Companies use marketing research in a wide variety of situations. For example, marketing research is helpful when it comes to ascertaining the state of demand among consumers in the market. It can equally help marketers to understand customer satisfaction and purchase behavior; provide valuable information to management for problem solving; help in assessing market potential and market share; and also help in measuring the effectiveness of pricing, distribution and promotion activities. Some large companies have their own research departments that work with market managers on marketing research projects.

Good marketing research does not only involve ordinary technical tools, it requires cooperation between researchers and marketing managers (Prince, 2008). Good marketing researchers must focus attention towards marketing management and marketing research, and be sure that their researches focus on real problems. Broad principles or laws, putting it another way, research is a planned process of conducting investigations in order to achieve a pre-determined objectives. The objective is usually a solution to one or more specific problems or an addition to current knowledge in a particular field (Kotler, 1988).

It is against this background that the researcher believes the study of this nature is necessary. The outcome of this study will provide an adequate understanding on the practical application of the various marketing research to organisation (Akpan, 2002). Also, this research work will help to ensure an improvement in the quality of services rendered to the customers and publics by selected organisation and could as well help the management draw strategy and programme which will enable them to remain competitive.
Commitment to practical application of marketing research by organization in Nigeria is very low. When we talk of marketing research in Nigeria, fingers are always pointed at big organizations and multi-national establishment. Organisations in Nigeria fail to understand that marketing research is all embracing and organization wide. Many times, though, they (organization) make decisions with limited information and with inadequate facts.

The view of many organizations is that marketing research is not necessary. Consequently, they have a care-free attitude towards marketing research. This view is based on the erroneous assumption that many organization are surviving in Nigeria without marketing research, and that marketing research could be expensive.

Also, organizations are facing their toughest competition ever. Unfortunately, many organizations cannot compete successfully in today’s market place because of failure to a commitment to practical application of marketing research.

Many marketing managers discover that their information problems result from an overabundance (not paucity) of marketing data. Their computer facilities provide them daily with literally a deluge of printouts about sales in different market areas, about different products and customers. The marketing manager solves the crisis of too much information of the wrong kind in the wrong form. The solutions to the problem of obtaining relevant information appear simple by establishing a systematic approach to information management through the installation of a planned marketing research (Ahmadu, 2006).

The main objective of this study is to assess the practical application of marketing research on product development in organization in Nigeria. Other objectives are:

\[\text{Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)}\]
1. To examine critically various types, functions and classification of marketing research being used by the organization.
2. To examine the effect of marketing research on product development in organization in Lagos.
3. To investigate how organization can develop a sustainable competitive advantage going by effective marketing research.
4. To find out the relationship between marketing research and organization in Nigeria.

**Hypothesis I**

H0: Marketing research does not have effect on product development in organization.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2004) the key to winning and keeping target customers is to understand their needs better than competitors do and to deliver more value. This implies that the company must have an obsession with understanding customer needs and desires; and using that information to deliver satisfaction to the customer. Nowhere is this more important than in the marketing research responsibilities of the company.

There have been several attempts to define marketing research, and some confusion has been caused by the term "market research" being rather freely used to describe the full range of activities properly covered by marketing research (Gabs, 2007). Although the term market research is now largely used a synonym for marketing research, there is a distinct difference between the scopes of the activities they covered. The responsibilities of marketing research extend comprehensively, whereas market research is limited to finding out information about the market for a particular product (Aduks, 2006).
Marketing, as a specialized function of management, is generally interpreted today as including all those activities concerned with the development, production, and distribution of products to identifiable markets, where they will provide satisfaction to those who buy them. Marketing research is, therefore, far ranging in its enquiries; it covers product development, identifying the market, and suitable methods of selling, distribution, promotion, and sales/service facilities. In fact, it includes every aspect of business activity from the idea stage to eventual consumer satisfaction. Also, marketing research is by no means restricted to profit-motivated business activities. It has very useful application in, for example, the development of charities, public sector leisure, and cultural services etc.

The wide responsibilities of marketing research are reflected in the definition given years ago by the American Marketing Association: The systematic gathering, recording, and analyzing of data about problems relating to the marketing of goods and services (AMA, 1961).

Kotler and Armstrong (2004) define marketing research as the function that links an organization to its market through the gathering of information. This information allows for the identification and definition of market driven opportunities and problems. The information allows for the generation, refinement and evaluation of marketing actions. It allows for the monitoring of marketing performance and improved understanding of marketing as a business process.

According to Osuagwu (1999), marketing research can be define as the systematic and objective conceptualization of a marketing problem, and the collection, analysis, interpretation, and reporting of relevant data and information for marketing decision making and problem solving. Marketing research is a systematic process because it has a procedure. The tasks in this process include designing methods for collecting information, managing the information collection process, analyzing and interpreting results, and
Marketing research providers can be classified as internal or external, custom or standardized, or brokers or facilitators (Curry, 2007). Internal research providers are normally organizational units that reside within a company. For example, Unilever Plc and PZ Plc have internal marketing research departments. Glaxo realizes many benefits by keeping the marketing research functions internal; these benefits include research method consistency, shared information across the company, minimized spending on research, and ability to produce actionable research results (Alih, 2007). Other firms choose to use external sources for marketing research. External research providers, usually referred to as marketing research suppliers, perform all aspects of the research, including study design, questionnaire production, interviewing, data analysis, and report preparation. These firms operate on a fee basis and commonly submit a research proposal to be used by a client for evaluation and decision purposes.

Many companies use external research suppliers because, first, the suppliers can be more objective and less subject to company politics and regulations than internal suppliers. Second, many external suppliers provide specialized talents that, for the same cost, internal supplier could not provide (Curry, 2007). And finally, company can choose external supplier on a study-by-study basis and thus gain greater flexibility in scheduling studies as well as match specific project requirements to the talents of specific research firms.

Marketing research firms can be considered customized or standardized. Customized research firms provide specialized, highly tailored services to the clients. Many firms in this line of business concentrate their research activities in one specific area such as brand-name testing, a new product development, or customer care. For example, Name-stormier assists companies in brand name selection and recognition; Survey Sampling Inc. concentrate solely on sampling development for the restaurant industry (Luck, 2008). In contrast,
standardized research firms provide more general services. These firms also follow a more common approach in research design so that the results of a study conducted for one client can be compared to norms established by studies done for other clients. Examples of these firms are Burke Market Research, which conducts (among existing and prospective customers) day-after advertising recalls; AC Nielsen, which conducts store audits for a variety of retail store (Luck, 2008).

Marketing research is useful for marketing planning and decision making that will affect both the consumers and the business firms positively. Within a market planning framework, managers must make critical marketing decisions. These decisions vary dramatically in both focus and complexity. For example, managers must decide which new markets to penetrate, which products to introduce, and which new business opportunities to pursue. Such broad decisions usually require the practical application of marketing research. Regardless of the complexity or focus of the decision making process, managers must have accurate information about customers, competitors, and the market in order to make the right decisions. The entire marketing planning process is a series of decisions that must be made with high levels of confidence about the outcome. It is therefore not surprising to realize that a sound marketing research process is the nucleus of successful marketing practice (Green, 2007).

For a sound marketing research, managers must focus on competitive analysis. A research task used in competitive analysis is importance-performance analysis, which is an approach for evaluating competitor's strategies, strengths, limitations and future plans. Competitive analysis asks consumers to identify key attributes that drive their purchase behaviour within a given industry. These attributes might include price, product performance, and product quality, accuracy of delivery or convenience of store location. When the competing firms are analyzed in aggregate, a company can see where its competitors are concentrating their marketing efforts and where they are falling below customer expectations (Unionic, 2006).
It is the systematic gathering, recording, and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data about issues relating to marketing products and services. The goal of marketing research is to identify and assess how changing elements of the marketing mix impacts customer behavior. The term is commonly interchanged with market research; however, expert practitioners may wish to draw a distinction, in that market research is concerned specifically with markets, while marketing research is concerned specifically about marketing processes.

Marketing research is often partitioned into two sets of categorical pairs, either by target market:

- Consumer marketing research, and
- Business-to-business (B2B) marketing research

Or, alternatively, by methodological approach:

- Qualitative marketing research, and
- Quantitative marketing research

Consumer marketing research is a form of applied sociology that concentrates on understanding the preferences, attitudes, and behaviors of consumers in a market-based economy, and it aims to understand the effects and comparative success of marketing campaigns. The field of consumer marketing research as a statistical science was pioneered by Arthur Nielsen with the founding of the AcNielsen Company in 1923.

Thus, marketing research may also be described as the systematic and objective identification, collection, analysis, and dissemination of information for the purpose of assisting management in decision making related to the identification and solution of problems and opportunities in marketing.

Marketing research also has different definitions from various authors and groups. The American Marketing Association (AMA) has defined marketing research as the function that links the consumer, customer,
and public to the marketer through information used to identify and define marketing opportunities and problems; generate, refine and evaluate marketing actions; monitor marketing performances; and improve understanding of market as a process.

Marketing research specifies the information required to address these issues; designs the method for collecting information; manages and implements the data collection process; analyses the results; and communicates the findings and their implications. Marketing research is the systematic and objective study of problems pertaining to the marketing of goods and services. It may be emphasized that it is not restricted to any particular area of marketing, but is applicable to all its phases and aspects.

According to Osuala (1990) marketing research is the systematic gather, recording and analysis of data about problems relating to the marketing of goods and services. It may be undertaken by impartial agencies or by business firms or their agents for solution of marketing problems. Generally, marketing research consists of a formal procedure for collecting and analyzing information, which is normally used to help, solve one of a kind problems of special situations (AMA, 1961).

2.1 Types and Classification of Marketing Research

i. Exploratory Research: This is a type of research in which the major emphasis on gaining ideas and insights; it is particularly helpful in breaking broad, vague problem statements into smaller, more precise sub problem statements.

ii. Descriptive Research: A research in which the major emphasis is on determining the frequency with which something occurs or the extent to which two variable appears.

iii. Casual Research: A type of research in which the major emphasis is one determining cause and effect relationships.

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
Marketing research has the prime function of reducing risks, the greater the risk, the more justification exists for investing in objective and reliable information about specific aspects of marketing. As it can be rightly observe, research in marketing is committed to the fundamental principle of utility, and as two American researcher have emphasized, there is no point in doing research if the information gathered is defective and could not lead to doing anything differently where the information is defective, the resultant finding is not in the position to fulfill its purpose; if the research is not going to fulfill its purpose probably because of certain inadequacies, biases in sampling, non-sampling errors and data collection etc, the effort could be regarded as an exercise in futility.

However, the American Marketing Association in their definition emphasis that the function of marketing research is to provide information to management so that it can identify and react to marketing opportunities and problem. Marketing research has the function of assessing the information needs provide management with relevant, accurate, reliable, valid, current and actionable information.

The nature and role of marketing research can be better understood in light of the basic marketing paradigm. The emphasis in marketing is on the identification and satisfaction of customer needs. In order to determine customer needs and to implement marketing strategies and programmes aimed at satisfying those needs, marketing managers need information. They need information about customers, competitors, and other forces in the market place. In recent years, many factors have increased the need for more and better information. As industries have become national and international in scope, the need for information on larger and more distant markets has increased. As consumers have become more affluent and sophisticated, marketing managers needs better information on how they will respond to services and products and other marketing offerings. As competition has become more intense, managers need information on the effectiveness of their marketing tools. As the environment changes more rapidly, marketing managers need more timely information.

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
Firstly, very many times, marketing research tends to be fragmentary in its approach as a result of which it becomes difficult to have an overall perspective in which a marketing problem is to be viewed and studied. Second, marketing research is criticized on the ground that it becomes too superficial and faulty in industry. In industry, marketing research is very often used by those who have had no formal training in the subject. Thirdly, this is absence of a meaningful dialogue between the marketing management and the marketing research team. Fourthly, marketing research is not exact science. There are several imponderables which come in the way of getting accurate results.

2.2 Effect of Marketing Research on Product Development

With large-scale industrialization and vastly improved methods of transport and communication, entrepreneurs looked further afield for customers to buy their products. Today, technologies are dispersed over the world; new centres of production have been set up for motor cars, electronic equipment, and many other products that were once viewed as the prerogative of the Western developed countries (Paul, 2005). Inevitably, the gap between producer and final consumer has widened: some firms were in danger of losing touch with the actual needs of their customers. Without valid and reliable information, management decision making would soon degenerate into some crazy game of chance. Hence, a systematic approach to the task of management is increasingly important in today’s complex environment in deciding a company’s policy and day-to-day operations. This is possible only applying the systematic approach of research methodology.

The development of statistical techniques during the 1930s led to further refinements in sampling procedures and improved accuracy in research findings. By 1973 the American Marketing Association reported that 81 percent of the nation’s leading manufacturing firms had established formal marketing research departments (Twedt, 1973). Today, several organizations in Nigeria are engaged in marketing research.

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
3.0 METHODOLOGY

In this study, survey research method was employed. Survey research, according to Kothari (2011), is concerned with describing, recording, analyzing and interpreting conditions that either exist or existed. Oyeniyi (2011) employed survey design to investigate sales promotion and consumer loyalty in a Nigerian Telecommunication Industry.

The purpose of descriptive surveys, according to Ezeani (1998), is to collect detailed and factual information that describes an existing phenomenon. Survey method enable the researcher to gather data from a relatively large number of cases at a particular time; it is essentially cross-sectional (Kothari, 2011).

Asika (1991) gave the meaning of research design as the structuring of investigation research aimed at identifying variables and their relationships to one another. Put differently, a research design helps researchers in the process of gathering, sorting, analysing, interpreting and reporting their observation.

For the purpose of this study, the survey research design is adopted. Survey research design examines large and small populations (or universes) by selecting and studying samples chosen from the populations in order to determine or discover relative incidence, distribution and interrelations among the identified variables. Thus, data were collected from a given sample of the population elements through the use of questionnaire.

The population of a research work can be defined as the totality of all elements, sub-elements, or members that possess a specified set of one or more common definite attributes (Olayinka et al. 2006). The population for a research study could be finite or infinite, homogenous or heterogeneous depending on the nature of elements or units it is made-up of.

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
The population of the research study consists of all employees of selected organization was selected as sample for the study. However, because it is practically impossible to reach all the staff in the company, a sample must therefore be drawn.

(a) Management Staff - 11 - Top level employee
(b) Senior Staff - 21 - Middle level employee
(c) Junior Staff - 50 - Low level employee

As given above, a sample of 82 respondents distributed among the different categories of staff was selected to represent the entire population of the study.

Sampling is the procedure for drawing samples from a given research population (Olayinka et al. 2006). A sample, therefore, is a subset of the entire population of any kind. The way a researcher draws his sample from a population depends on many factors such as the purpose of his research, cost effectiveness, the ability of the researcher to deduce reasonable facts from his findings etc (Osuagwu, 2002). A systematic random sampling method was employed. In order to increase the representativeness of the sample and to ensure the questionnaires were completed by at least, half of the category of staff selected. The choice of this technique is to avoid subjective bias arising from a personal choice of sampling units. Simple Random Sampling is distinguished by the fact that each population element is not only known but has equal chance of being selected (Osuala, 1990).

Data collected from the respondents through the administrated completed and returned. Questionnaires are presented in frequency distribution table, analysis and interpreted using simple percentages. The hypotheses would be tested using Pearson correlation coefficient statistical method of hypothesis testing. This is a statistical method of

_Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)_
data analysis used in determining the nature of relationship between the two or more independent variables (Taiwo, 2000).

Data were obtained by administering a questionnaire on 82 employees of the selected staff of Globacom Nigeria Limited based on the research hypothesis. The data from the questionnaire were analyzed accordingly following each of the research questions.

Furthermore, the formulated hypotheses are subjected to empirical test using simple percentage distribution and Pearson correlation coefficient statistic. The essence of the tests is to either accept or reject the hypotheses.

3.1 Respondents’ Bio-Data

Table 1
Sex Distribution of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 1 above shows that 50 (61.0%) of the respondents are male while 32 (39.0%) of the respondents are female.

Table 2
Age Distribution Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>20 - 30 yrs</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>34.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31 - 40 yrs</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41 yrs &amp; above</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
Table 2 shows that the respondents are of different age bracket, respondents between 20 – 30 years of age are 28 represented by 34.1%, those between 31 – 40 years accounted for 34 representing 41.5% and finally, 20 represented by 24.4% are for 41 years and above. This shows that the majority of respondents are between 31-40 years of age distribution which is a good number for reasonable workforce in an organization.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Production</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>73.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>89.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Administrative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above table analysis, 29 of the total respondents represented by 35.4% emerge from Production department, 31 or 37.8% of the respondents emerge from Marketing in the organization, 13 or 15.9% of the sampled respondents are from Finance department while the remaining 8 respondents or 11.0% emerge from Administrative department of the selected organization.
Table 4
Do you agree that market research channel or routes is responsible for efficient product development in your organization?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>82.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>90.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

In the above table, 44 and 24 of the sampled respondents represented by 53.7% and 29.3% strongly agree and agree respectively that market research channel or routes is responsible for efficient product development in the organization. Among all, only 6 or 7.3% of the respondents were neutral while the remaining 8 or 9.8% of the respondents disagreed with the above statement. The implication of this result is that majority of the respondents are of opinions that market channel are the major tool for product development in any organization.

Table 5
Do you agree that organization make use of market research report for effective product development?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>43.9</td>
<td>90.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
In the above table analysis, 38 and 36 representing 46.3% and 43.9% of the sampled respondents strongly agree and agree respectively that organization make use of market research reports for effective product development in the organization. About 8 of the respondents or 9.8% disagree with the above statement.

Table 6
To what extent do you also agree that organization can survive without marketing research or review of product development?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>58.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>87.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

The table above depicts that 24 of the total respondents represented by 29.3% each of the total respondents strongly agree and agree respectively that organization can survive without marketing research or review of product development. In the same table, 24 of the sampled respondents representing 29.3% of the respondents were neutral while the remaining 10 (12.2%) disagreed with the statement. Those respondents that disagreed with the above statement believed market or no market research, organization can still survive.
Table 7
Do you agree that without marketing research, there can't be product development in an organization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly agree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>95.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 7 shows that 32 of the respondents representing 39.0% and 13 represented by 46.3% of the total respondents strongly agree and agree respectively that without marketing research, there can't be product development in an organization. In the same way, 8 of the total respondents representing 9.8% were neutral while remaining 4 respondents represented by 4.9% disagreed with the above statement.

Table 8
Organisation can develop a sustainable competitive advantage through effective marketing research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid Strongly agree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>56.1</td>
<td>85.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>98.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2017

Table 8 above also depicts that 24 or 29.3% and 18 or 56.1% of the sampled population strongly agree and agree respectively that Organization can develop a sustainable competitive advantage

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
through effective marketing research. Only 11 of the respondents or 13.4% were neutral while the remaining 1 respondent or 1.2% disagreed with the above statement.

4.0 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The hypotheses formulated were tested and analysis with the aid of the Pearson correlation coefficient and percentage counts. The result in the table is used to test the hypothesis.

**Hypothesis I**

H0: Marketing research does not have effect on product development in organization.

To test this hypothesis, data collected on questions for marketing research and effective product development. The result is presented in the table shows Pearson correlation coefficient between marketing research and effective product development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 9 Correlations</th>
<th>Effective product development</th>
<th>Marketing research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10. Do you agree that organization make use of market research report for effective product development?</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Do you agree that without marketing research, there can't</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.888(**)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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4.1 Interpretation

The table shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient between the two variables is 0.888 (r = .8888, p<0.05) i.e. (0.000<r<0.05). From the computation above, there is a positive significant relationship between marketing research and effective product development. Based on decision rule; reject null hypothesis (H₀) and accept alternative hypothesis (H₁) that marketing research has a positive significant effects on product development in organization. This study is in agreement with the findings of Ogbadu (2012) in appraisal of the practical application of marketing research by organization in Nigeria.

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, recommendation and conclusion and after a careful study of the marketing research activities on selected organization in Lagos. The researcher came out with the following findings.

1. That selected organization at one time or the other engaged in marketing research activities.
2. That company does not have a marketing research department but only marketing department which deals only with how goods produce is been distributed to various distributors because of the cost involved.
3. That organization cannot do without marketing research as it helps them to identify the needs of this prospect.
4. That organization has not fully identified the need for establishing a research department in the organization.

Eyanuku & Katagum (2017)
5. That the establishment of marketing research department will increase the profit level in the organization.

5.0 CONCLUSIONS

Some organizations in Nigeria see marketing research as only a fact finding activity. The marketing researcher is supposed to design a questionnaire, choose a sample, carry out interviews, and report result. This reinforces ideas of the limited usefulness that can come from marketing research. Also, some view marketing research as little better than a clerical activity and reward it as such. As a result, less are attracted into marketing research.

Marketing research which is a systematic design, collection, analysis and reporting a data and findings that are relevant to a specific marketing situation facing any company, is very important in the life of any business organization. Marketing research is carried out for numerous marketing problems especially in sales/marketing, advertising research and product research. The motives behind investing in marketing research are to identify customer needs, maximize turnover/profit.

Marketing research data are collected from data combination of primary and secondary sauces and theses data are applied in various ways like for decision making/identification of marketing opportunism and determination of the prices. Any business organization do not have their reasons which induce cost factors, company policy and/or more efficient use of marketing research consultancy firms.

6.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

Having carefully carried out the research on marketing research as a tool for increased profitability using selected organization in Lagos as a case study, with which the recommendations are made.

Eyanaku & Katagum (2017)
The management of the selected organization should strike to increase its present effort on marketing research activities to increase the awareness of the company to the public, number of policy holders and also a check and maintain the profit laced of the organization and also customer satisfaction. They should utilize the various techniques invoice in research activities like filed survey and other tools available to them in performing the marketing activity.

The management must understand the modern marketing philosophy and the role it could play for a firm to remain competitive.

More budgets should be directed to the appropriate department so as to conduct a result oriented research on consumer needs in order to enable the organization to develop a service offering that could appeal to the target market.

The researcher could not cover more because of circumstances beyond his control; therefore further research into this topic can be extended to other areas of service industry or manufacturing industry. Further study should be conducted on this topic to find out how to calculate the actual profit in figural derided solely as a result of marketing research activities and to find out the other forces that help marketing research activities as tool for increased profitability.
REFERENCES


Effect of Religious Violence on National Security in Nigeria

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Abstract

Nigeria as a multi-religious society has faced various religious violence and conflicts over the years. Religious leaders and adherents contribute majorly to the causes of religious violence in the country. Religious violence in Nigeria today has threatened the stability of the state institutions, which brings insecurity and loss of lives and properties. The increased incidents of religious violence have received plenty of attention from scholars and policy makers alike. However, not much of its underline factors attract attention having been shredded in the belief system. A theoretical framework to analyse the effects of religious violence on national security is introduced in this paper. The study adopted exploratory method for its research design. It relied on qualitative method which involved an indepth interview and focus group interview of respondents located at Kaduna South, Kaduna North, Kafachan, Karun and Zaria in Kaduna states. The paper revealed that religious intolerance is one of the major causes of religious violence which often threatens national security in the country. The paper recommends, among others, that there should be measurable punishment melt out for perpetrators of religious violence in the country so as to serve as deterrence.
Keywords: Religious Violence, National Security, Religious intolerance, Political influence, Religious fundamentalist

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Religion has remained a dynamic force in the history of man and society. It is often held up as a vessel of peace, both inner and social. Religion which should be the agent of unity has become the agent of disintegration in Nigeria. Nigeria which is blessed with outstanding religious personnel has become known for violence and belittling political disorder as a result of religion. Nigeria as a multi-religious society has faced various religious violence and conflicts over the years. Religion which is supposed to be a unifying factor (Durkheim 1915) uniting together all other segments of the society is now a catalyst that caused the destruction of lives and properties in the country and other functional arts of the society. Hence, it is referred to as a double-edged sword.

It is noted that narrow-mindedness, misunderstanding, fundamentalism and fanaticism of religious adherents contribute majorly to the causes of religious violence in the country. Religion, so sensitive and powerful, co-exists with life and its controlling influence on human existence has been used to mar rather than make Nigeria. Thus, religious Faithful commit heinous violent crimes and acts as slaughtering innocent souls and destroying property in the name of religion.

In Nigeria, there are moderates and extremists, fanatics and realists, simple minded believers and complex adherents, liberals and conservatives, they all contribute to the multi-religious nature of Nigeria. (Anyanwu & Nwanaju, 2010)

In Nigeria, there are more than 180 million inhabitants. Ushe (2015) notes that Nigeria is populated by the adherents of Islam and Christianity and African tradition religion are often engaged in

Adegoke (2017)
conflicts, leading to lose of lives and properties. Similarly, the proliferation of religious activism contributed not in small measure to the religious violence witnessed in the country. Afolabi (2016) maintains that religious violence in Nigeria has a clear connection to Christian activism, a relationship that has to the growing culture of religious violence particularly in the northern Nigeria. The religious scenario in Nigeria has assumed a violent dimension, leading to suicide bombing, loss of innocent lives and properties (Ushe, 2015). Even if there is a seeming peace the relationship between Christians and Muslims is menced with mutual suspicion and distrust (Amadu, 1989).

Since independence, Nigeria has remained a multi-religious nation, which has been grappling and trying to cope with the problem of religious violence. There are several causal diagnoses of religious violence in Nigeria, but much of the literature in this area pay premium attention to the underlying socio-political, economic and governance factors that precipitate, not only religious, but violent conflict generally (Sampson, 2012).

Several political problems according to Afolabi (2016) take on religion, a dimension manipulated by politics, poverty, illiteracy and ignorance in Nigeria. Violence based on religious affiliation and religious politics has indeed caused physical and psychological damage to several people, thereby institutionalising religious schism among Nigerians who simply have different religious affiliations. Hence, this has metamorphosed into security threats in Nigeria.

According to Omotunde (2007) Religious riots have become a routine event in Nigeria. Burning houses, destroying property, maiming and killing innocent people have become a normal way of religious life. The question is no longer if but when Religious violence has become Allah’s unwritten commandment that must be obeyed, at least in Nigeria.

Adegoke (2017)
Religious violence has become an almost a daily occurrence in Nigeria. There is virtually no area in all the six geopolitical zones in Nigeria that has not witnessed one or more such crises. Nigeria has been bedeviled by religious violence with devastating human and material losses since the return of democracy in 1999. The religious sensitivity of Nigeria provided fertile ground for the breed of religious fundamentalists aided by the prevailing economic dislocation in Nigeria, vis-a-vis the introduction of party politics and politics of anxiety, the associated desperation of politicians for political power (Anyadike, 2013).

Several scholars at different occasions discussed various challenges confronting national security in the country. Ethnic violence and religious violence have been pointed out as the major causes of insecurity in the country. Specifically, religious conflicts have posed a serious threat to national security. The problem becomes complicated as regards the choice of target and the types of weapons deployed during these conflict. Several lives and properties worth billions of naira have been destroyed. Several people have been displaced and citizens become fugitives in their own country. Between 2009 and 2014, 11500 Christians were killed and 13,000 churches destroyed, the attacks were carried out by three groups: Islamist Boko, Haram terror group, Muslim Fulani herdsmen and the Muslim religious and political elites. Also in 2015, there were 4,028 killings and 198 attacks on Churches and 1,3 million Christians had fled their homes to safer places to avoid being killed by fanatics (Punch, 2016).

Religious intolerance contributes to security threats manifesting in different parts of the nation. Several investigations have revealed that government taking sides of one religion at the expense of the other, triggers violence. Poverty, lack of quality education, unemployment and other socioeconomic indicators has led the adherents of these religions to consider violence as way of championing their cause. Religious crisis with its multi-dimensional consequences has been an obstacle to progress, economic prosperity, democratic stability and

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over-all socio-economic development of Nigeria because of its destructive nature.

Religious violence in Nigeria has a clear connection with the proliferation of uncompromising Muslim and Christian activism, a relationship that has led to a growing culture of religious violence particularly in northern Nigeria. (Afolabi, 2016). This upheaval threatens the national security of the country. According to Awolalu(1976) religion is often seen as the cause of violence and instability in Nigeria as the country’s northern and south regions equally divided along religious fault lines.

It is to this end this study examines the effects of religious violence on national security of the country. Hence, the following research questions are relevant to this study: Is religious intolerance a factor affecting national security?; to what extent does politics influence religious violence in Nigeria?; does religious fundamentalism and extremism heighten religious violence into security threats in Nigeria?

2.0 THE CONCEPT OF RELIGION

Religion has been defined in many ways depending on the orientation and perception of the author. Religion is an elusive, imprecise and emotion laden concept. Oduwole and Fadeyi (2013) see religion in a narrow sense to refer to a particular group. While Bliss (1972) perceive it in a broad sense for the belief systems, moral norms and values of the field by members of the society. The foregoing depicts that religion is a difficult concept to define as observed by Pratt (1947) and Atlanamo (2004). However, Peter (1998) define religion as a system of the symbol which acts to establish powerful, persuasive and long lasting mood and motivations in man by formulating conceptions of a general order of existence and clothing these conceptions with such an aura of factuality that the moods and motivations seem uniquely realistic.

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Durkheim (1915) defines religion to be a unified system of beliefs and practices relatives to sacred things, that is to say, things set apart and forbidden, beliefs and practices which unite into one single moral community and all those who adhere to them. Oduwale and Fadayi (2013) argue that the definition of religion by Peter and Durkheim are characterized by the system of belief and practices or conceptions relative to a transcendent being, which unites the people into one fervent moral community.

In a broader perspective, religion can be understood in two related, yet distinct ways, material and spiritual. In the material perspective, it is conceived as religious establishments (i.e. institutions and officials) as well as social groups and religious concerns. On the other hand, in the spiritual perspective, religion is concerned with models of social and individual behavior that help believers to organize their everyday lives. It is in this way that religion is characterized as transcendence, supernatural realities and sacred (Alanamu, 2004).

2.1 The Religious Violence

Violence among the scholar has no acceptable definitions, however, Riches (1986) define it from anthropological views as Óan act of physical hurt deemed legitimate by the performer and illegitimate by (some) witnessesÓ. Hann (2008) and Afolabi (2013) maintain that RichesÓincorporation of the concepts of legitimacy and illegitimacy in the definition of violence raise because it is unclear how the discrepancy in basic understanding amongst those implicated in the performance of a violent act can be Ólikely to be minimalÓ when an act of violence by definition is deemed legitimate by the performer and illegitimate by (some) witnesses.

Conventional definitions of violence center on the use of physical force to cause injury to persons and, sometimes, damage to property. Violence has been defined as Ógoing far beyond (the infliction of ) pain and the shedding of blood although it encompasses injury to persons or property, it also include the forcible interference with

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personal freedom, violent or passionate conduct or language and finally passion or fury. (Tanner, 2007). Nayak (2008) notes that the word violence carries the meaning of physical force, violent language, injury and more importantly, forcible interference. For the purpose of the paper, violence is defined as any action, verbal or non-verbal, oral or written, physical or psychical, active or passive, public or private, individual or institutional, societal, human or divine, in whatever degree of intensity, that abuses, violates, injures or kills (Terrence, 2004).

In a systematic way to further present a comprehensive analysis of violence, Barak (2003) and Henry (2000) as reviewed by Afolabi (2013) made an attempt to be conceptually inclusive, take into account the full range of harms associated with a variety of interpersonal, institutional and structural relationships and behaviors and to not exclude any form and expression of violence, whether they refer to individual acts, institutional arrangements or structural conditions as well as whether or not they are prohibited by law. Barak adopts a definition of violence as any action or structural arrangement that results in physical or non-physical harm to one or more persons (Ladilola & Shupe, 1998) quoted in Barack, 2003:26 cited in Afolabi 2013).

Similarly, Henry (2000) defined violence as the use of power to harm another, whatever form it takes. Afolabi (2013) discusses further that in this case, harm is not only physical pain and suffering, it can occur along many dimension beyond the physical to include physical or emotional, material, or economic, social or identity, moral or ethical and so on. Also, the harm can be of two kinds, harms of reduction and harms of repression (Henry & Miloranovic, 1996).

Therefore, religious violence in Nigeria has caused not only physical pains but also psychological, emotional, material, economic and social loss. (Afolabi 2013).

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The dialectical link between religion and violence has given rise to the expression “religious violence.” Put differently, religious violence is embedded in moments of history and structures of culture. Hence, it will be inappropriate to embrace a single definition of religious violence. According to Wellman (2004), “religious violence is a term that covers phenomena where religion in its diversity, is either the subject or object of violent behaviours; religious violence becomes then violence covered, motivated or induced by the reaction of adherents to either their own or others’ religion beliefs, values, norms, doctrines or set actions.”

2.2 The Concept of National Security

The concept of security cut across many disciplines covering military protection, surveillance, protection of national values and human rights. Romm (1993) assert that a nation is said to be secured when it does not have to sacrifice its legitimate interest to avoid war, and is able if challenged to maintain them by war. Romm (1993) also defines it as the absence of threats to acquire values and the absence of fear that such values will be attacked by a nation to preserve its national values from external threats (Romm, 1993 cited in Ogbonnaya 2013).

The core interest of any nation is to ensure the nation’s survival and security. National security entails a condition, in which citizens of a country enjoy a free, peaceful and safe environment and have access to resources which will enable them to enjoy the basic necessities of life (Enahoro, 2004 and Aliyu, 2009) then aver that the security of a state directly translates to its ability to protect its citizens as well as national asset from both internal and external threats. It also facilitates individuals and groups in carrying out their legitimate businesses without any significant undue hindrance.

Nnoli (1997) while defining national security postulates that it consists of different forms. These include military security, political security, and religious security. According to Nnoli (1997), military

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security implies the capability of a nation to defend itself and/or deter military aggression. It implies the capacity of a nation to enforce its policy choices by the use of military choices. Nnoli explained the political aspect of security as described by Brown (1983) in Watson (2008) as an important component of national security which is concerned with the stability of the social order. Closely aligned to political security are the economic and religious securities which are concerned with the economic and religious aspects of the well-being of the citizenry. In Nigeria today, these forms of security i.e. economic and religious security, have become threats to the sovereignty of the nation. Afolabi (2013) postulates that national security encompasses the sum of what a nation does in order to safeguard itself as a sovereign entity and this includes every aspect of a nation’s life and existence. It then means that national security of a nation can extend to the well-being of its citizen's institutions, interests, development plans, economy etc.

It is a matter that bothers on the posture, wellbeing, stability and international affairs. Hence, the issue of national security is one that expresses the status of a nation in terms of its standing in the globe, in areas like citizen protection, freedom and well-being, property and intelligence safety, national integrity, sovereignty protection and protection of international interest. All these gear toward the overall stability and peaceful coexistence of the citizens of the nation as well as that of the nation at the global level (Afolabi, 2013).

Therefore, the most recent national security issue that standout of all is Boko haram insurgency. Afeno (2012:40) argues that the boko haram uprising is not only a security issue; it has also exposed the weakness of governance in the country. The perpetrator of this mayhem: the Bokoharamist always want people and the government of Nigeria to believe that they are fighting a religious war. However, the uprising of this sect was as a result of the failure of successive government in the country to fight corruption, provide qualitative public service, viable economic opportunities, and effective security institutions among others. Boko haram according to Afolabi (2013)
therefore provides a platform for unemployed youths and disgruntled persons to attack a system they believe is largely responsible for their plight.

3.0 THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION - SOCIAL CONFLICT THEORY

Conflict theory is most commonly associated with Karl Marx, German theorist and political activist 1818 – 1883, develop a theory that emphasizes a materialistic view of history and a more critical stance toward existing social arrangements within political and economic structures of society. As long as society remains stratified, Marx argued that conflict becomes inevitable. The mode of production, Marx argues determines also the relationship in the superstructural elements of society i.e. polity and religion, law and the entire social structure.

Marx’s theories of class, labour and alienation are some of the explanation of this conflict especially during capitalism when man is highly alienated and exploited leading to intense class struggle (Akafor, 2007). The proletariat working class has nothing but his labour that he exchanges for wages, salaries etc. Marx theory of religion is that, it is the opium of the masses. According to Marx, in a capitalist society, religion plays a critical role in maintaining an unequal status quo, in which certain groups of people have radically more resources and power than other groups of people.

The conflict in the society is characterized by man’s desire to satisfy his material needs. This often brings conflicts within the group. It is the satisfaction of this economic goal or wants by man that also determines his relationship in the social structure. Conflict may either be non-violent and violent. Max Weber in conceptualizing the state contended that violence is legitimate in the rule over men. (Wolff, 2006). To Wolff (2006), violence is the illegitimate or unauthorized use of force to effect decision against the will or desire of others.

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Mill (1976) observed that social structures are created through conflict between people with differing interests and resources, in turn, are influenced by these structures and by the unequal distribution of power and resource in the society.

The social conflict theory as a theoretical framework can be used to explain the religious violence in Nigeria. Nigeria has many religious groups and most especially three common groups - Islam, Christianity and traditional religion. The members of these religions actually compete not only between themselves but among themselves. Falola (1998) posits that religious conflicts and tensions arise as Islam and Christianity try to outdo each other in order to control state power and impose their own values. Religion in Nigeria is concerned with power struggle, domination and influence.

Conflict or religious violence occurs as a result of incompatible goals in their different religions. It is also as a result of struggle for power and material gains by the leaders and followers alike. Violent conflict eruption is linked with group pluralism and interaction to achieve their diverse objectives. In seeking relevance or retention of political power, the elites manipulate and message religious and ethnic sentiments. Religious violent sometimes, is caused due to the propagation of religious leaders and followers to install their own belief as the best or over the other religions. As we understand, that social conflict is a struggle over values or claim to status, power and scarce resources, in which the aims of the conflict groups are not only to gain the desired values, but also to neutralize, injure or eliminate rivals. (Coser, 1956)

4.0 RELIGIOUS INTOLERANCE AND THREAT TO NATIONAL SECURITY

Religious intolerance is defined as hostility towards other religions, as well as the inability of religious adherents to harmonize between the theories and the practical aspect of religion (Balogun, 1988). It encompasses bigotry, which is the obstinate and intolerant devotion to

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one’s opinions and prejudices, especially the exhibition of intolerance and animosity towards persons of differing beliefs (Baird & Rosenbaum, 1999).

Religious intolerance has been identified as the major source of religious conflict/violence in all societies existing as long as the history of mankind, and permeating all forms of human civilizations, with attendant destructive tendencies. (Gofwen, 2004:50).

The effects of religious intolerance are that it threatens the national security. According to Punch (2016), “if nothing is done to arrest the deteriorating social and group insecurity and violent situations in Nigeria, the country may end up having dozens of violent armed opposition groups across the country, leading to further deteriorating situation where everybody will go about armed.”

Freedom of worship and association said to be one of the key components of a politically stable society seems to be under a serious threat in Nigeria. Section 38(1) of the 1999 constitution which guarantees that “every person shall be entitled to freedom of thought conscience and religion, including freedom to change his religion or belief and freedom (either alone or in community with others and in public or in private) to manifest and propagate his religion or belief in worship, teaching, practice and observation.” Everybody in Nigeria, whether Muslim or Christian, is entitled to protection by the government. It is the primary responsibility of the government to protect its citizens.

The religious intolerance breeds religious violence. Besides the numerous losses of life and property destroyed during religious violent, it is also responsible for the hundreds of thousands of people being displaced in the different part of the country. The religious violent threaten the stability of the state governance institutions, which brings about insecurity of lives and property and increases criminality (Casimir, Nwaoga and Ogbozor, 2013).

Adegoke (2017)
Some examples of Religious Violence in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>State(s)</th>
<th>Nature</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>28 Feb. 2000</td>
<td>Abia</td>
<td>Religious riots in Aba, and minor disturbances in Umuahia.</td>
<td>Over 450 persons killed in Aba, Abia state, as reprisal for the Kaduna crisis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8 Sept. 2000</td>
<td>Gombe</td>
<td>The Kaltungo religious crisis.</td>
<td>The crisis erupted over the implementation of Sharia in the state.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>12 Oct. 2001</td>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>Religious riot in Kano.</td>
<td>In protest to US invasion of Afghanistan over Osama bin Laden. Over 150 persons were killed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7-17 Sept. 2001</td>
<td>Jos</td>
<td>A religious riot between Muslims and Christians in Jos Mosques, churches and several properties were damaged or torched. The clashes started on September 7 and lasted nearly two weeks, ending on September 17.</td>
<td>The riot broke out when the Islamic Brigade attacked a Christian woman who attempted to cross a public high-way barricaded by Muslim worshippers on Friday. Over 300 people were killed.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Adegoke (2017)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16 Nov. 2002</td>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>The Miss World crisis in which Muslims attacked Christians and churches.</td>
<td>The crisis was triggered by an article authored by Isioma Daniel in This Day newspaper, alleging that Prophet Mohammed would have loved to have the girls. Over 250 people were killed and several churches destroyed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>8 Jun. 2004</td>
<td>Adamawa</td>
<td>Religious conflict between Christians and Muslims in Numan town.</td>
<td>Caused by the location of the town's Central Mosque close to Bachama paramount ruler's palace. Over 17 persons killed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>18 Feb. 2006</td>
<td>Borno</td>
<td>Religious conflict between Christians and Muslims in Maiduguri.</td>
<td>The riot was caused by the Danish cartoon on Prophet Mohammed, in Jyllands-Posten newspaper. Over 50 persons killed and 30 churches destroyed; over 200 shops, 50 houses and 100 vehicles vandalised.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>22 Mar. 2007</td>
<td>Gombe</td>
<td>Muslims pupils killed their Christian teacher, Mrs Oluwatoyin Olusesan.</td>
<td>The pupils claimed that their teacher desecrated the Qur’ân while attempting to stop a student from cheating in an examination hall.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>28 Nov. 2008</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>Religious violence between Muslims and Christians in the city of Jos.</td>
<td>The crisis which was triggered by the controversial results of a local election later turned religious. Over 700 people killed and thousands internally displaced.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>29 Dec. 2009</td>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>Religious violence unleashed by the Kala-kato sect on Christians</td>
<td>Over 38 persons killed; about 20 suspected members of the sect arrested; and over 1000 people internally displaced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>17-20 Jan 2009</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>Resurgence of religious crisis in Jos</td>
<td>Police announced at least 320 killed, but aid workers and local leaders place death toll at over 550. Over 40,000 persons displaced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>7 Mar 2010</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>Attacks by Fulani Moslems on Christians-dominated villages of Dogo Nahawa, Shen and Fan in Jos</td>
<td>Over 500 people – mainly women and children- were killed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>17 Mar 2010</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>Suspected Fulani militia men attacked residents of Biye and Batem in Jos</td>
<td>13 persons killed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>11 April 2010</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>Attack on a Christian village of Berom stock, some 30</td>
<td>The attackers targeted the homes of some officials in</td>
</tr>
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Adogoke (2017)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>22 May 2010</td>
<td>Murder of three (Muslim) Fulani herdsmen at Tusung village in Plateau State.</td>
<td>Kura Jenta, reprisal to the killing of about 150 Fulani Muslims, who were allegedly killed and dumped in wells on 19 January 2010. No life was lost but 3 houses and 6 vehicles were touched, this violence was ethno-religious.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>29 Aug 2011</td>
<td>Clashes between Muslims and Christians at Rukuba road and Farin Gada in Jos.</td>
<td>No less than 20 persons were killed, 50 injured, over 50 motor vehicles and 100 motor cycles were touched.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>16 June 2011</td>
<td>Suicide bomb attack at the police headquarters, Abuja by suspected Boko Haram</td>
<td>Authorities said 6 persons were killed and 73 vehicles destroyed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Islamists whose ideology is framed around religion (Wahabism).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>26 Aug 2011</td>
<td>Suicide bombing at the UN House, Abuja by suspected</td>
<td>23 persons (11 UN personnel and 12 non-Un personnel)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adedoke (2017)*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Casualties</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5 Nov 2011</td>
<td>Potiskum, Damaturu and Maiduguri</td>
<td>Coordinated attacks on churches and police stations by suspected Boko Haram Islamists</td>
<td>More than 90 persons were reportedly killed, several churches and police stations torched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Dec 2011</td>
<td>Madala, Niger state near the FCT</td>
<td>The bombs were alleged to have been planted at the church's parking lot</td>
<td>At the last count, 45 persons were killed. Some died instantly others from injuries sustained from the explosion. Over 80 others were receiving treatment for various degrees of injuries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6 Jan 2012</td>
<td>Gombe, Gombe state</td>
<td>Gunmen stormed a deeper life church in Gombe, shooting indiscriminately at worshippers. The Boko Haram Islamists sect claimed responsibility for the shooting</td>
<td>6 persons were reportedly killed while many others were injured.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Culled from Sampson (2012)
4.1 Religious Fundamentalism/Extremism and Religious Violence

Religious extremists are religious fundamentalist, who take religious conservatism and intolerance to an unreasonable extent, by manifesting violence against those who hold contrary religious views. Religious extremist takes the position that if others do not follow their ways, they will be damned (Religious Extremism, 2011). To support the above assertion, Williams (2008) discuss that extremist groups have also, especially since the dawn of the twenty-first century, emerged powerful state security challenges that the state monopoly on the use of force is increasingly being reduced to a convenient fiction.

Religious fundamentalism and extremism are similar to and indeed, manifestation of religious intolerance. Komochak, Collins, and Lane (1996) view religious fundamentalism from three perspectives: from a cognitive understanding where the world is associated with a closed personality type that expresses exclusivity, particularly, literality and moral rigor; from a cultural theoretical viewpoint, where the word expresses opposition to religious and cultural liberalism in defense of orthodoxy and religious traditions and from a social movement perspective, where it denotes organizational and ideological uniqueness from other types of religious movements that promote the liberal interpretation of and strict adherence to religious doctrine, especially as a return to orthodox scriptural prescriptions and doctrinal originality. It seeks strict adherence to the orthodox principles of particular faiths- in the case of Nigeria, Christianity, and Islam - and abhors modernism with its propensity to adulterating or diminishing original doctrinal principles. The fundamentalist abhors the preaching of other faiths and resort to violence to stop it. They insist that their religious doctrines must be universally entrenched by brute force, while the political, social and economic systems must conform to other religious tenets.

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4.2 Political Influence and Religious Violence

Government involvement in religious matters is one of the causes of religious violence in Nigeria. Achunike (2008) while discussing visible causes of religious violence in Nigeria mentioned that wrong perception of other people’s religion or faith, wrong religious orientation, low level of literacy of religious adherents’ pervasive poverty and particularly government interference in religious conflicts. Salawu (2010), posits that government neglect, oppression, domination, exploitation, victimization, discrimination, margination, nepotism and bigotry are some of the predisposed factors.

Kukah (2010) also argued on political factor influence on religious violent. He reflected upon the Boko Haram religious violence in Nigeria as ‘going beyond the religious but political and economic. It portrayed the general frustration of citizens with the Nigeria state, its bad government, corruption and lack of security’

Religious learning and patronage have been entrenched in the public realm, depending on the predominance of particular religions adherent in positions of authority. At the federal and state government levels public officials manifestly patronize particular religions at the expense of the other. In many states of the Northern Nigeria, public funds are used for the purchase and distribution of food items and other valuables for Muslim faithful during the Ramadan fast; however, the government does not extend the same to Christians during Christmas or traditional religious worshippers during their traditional ceremonies. This attitude is reversed in some Christian-dominated states.

Furthermore, federal government established both Christian and Muslim pilgrims’ commission with state funding, some states especially in the north, have single pilgrims’ commissions for particular religions at the exclusion of others. Depending on which religious group has the superior numerical strength in a state, the clergy is given prominent roles and privileges at state functions, while

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marginalizing the other. In most states, the dominant religion denies the other religious groups access to certain privileges like land for erecting worship houses or airtime for transmitting religious messages. This attitude translates to political and economic preferentialism towards the favored religious groups.

It is, therefore, not out of place to hear religious groups complain of marginalization in respect of political and economic privileges, public employment and political benefits. This attitude does not only cause inter-religious upheaval, they precipitate religious sentiment in political and economic policy-making. The debacle over the institutionalization of Islamic banking in the country is based on this apprehension that the religious affiliation of the product could be used as an instrument for the exclusion of Christians. When these attitudes add up together they trigger violence and transform as a threat to the security of the nation.

Religion has become an indispensible phenomenon and important factor in political discourse. Juergensmeyer (2005) argues that Islam, the fastest growing religion in the world, is unique as it incorporates religion and politics and structures the political economy of a nation. Thus, neither can exist without the other.

Islam and Christianity are straddled across the Nigerian polity, each no longer knocking but pleading to be admitted, but seeking to take over the architectural design and construction of the Nigeria polity. Thus, religion has been politicized and politics has been religionized in which it is difficult to find a line of demarcation between the two entity (Kukah, 1993).

5.0 METHODOLOGY

Research design for this study is exploratory research method. Exploratory research method is carried to look for information that will explain, investigate and explore the subject of the study in a more systematic way (Adegoke, 2012).

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The population was made up of individuals in Kaduna State. The population comprises of the adherents of the major religious groups, the leaders of these religious groups, security personnel and opinion leaders in the society. The Kaduna State is a multi-religious state but it is majorly dominated by both Muslims and Christians.

Multi-sampling technique was used. Purposive sampling method was used in selecting five local governments from 26 local governments in Kaduna State. The local governments are Zaria, Kafanchan, Karun, Kaduna North and Kaduna South local government area. While simple random technique was used to select the respondents for the interview.

The research instrument was a semi-structured interview which provides opportunities for probing for more details of thematic questions of the study and focus group discussions (FGD). The interview guided was prepared by the researcher and it was validated by the pretest research carried out by the researcher. The key informants and chiefs are used for the group of people who formed panel that were interviewed.

The data collected was thematically analysed.

**Research Question 1: Effects of Religious Intolerance on National Security.**

Field data collected show that religious intolerance among religious adherence has created a dialectical polarization of belief system that contravene secularity as enshrined in the Nigerian constitution hence pitched believers against themselves in conflict. In corroboration, an FGD participant from Kafanchan posits:

> Exhibition of bigotry among the followers of a religious group in the country always results in religious crisis. Most times, adherents of one

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religious group are hostile towards others religions. If this continues for a long time it will escalate to violence in which innocent people will be killed.\(^2\)

The participant’s response above stimulates the idea about the danger of religious bigotry. Religious intolerance as the data depicts may not be enough reason associated with upsurge of violent conflict if the position of Sampson, (2012) is anything to talk about. He revealed that violent conflict in the Nigerian project over times have been triggered by search for identity recognition and belief superiority. This he further opined that is responsible for series of attack against government policy and interests using the cover of religion. This has implication to peace and national security. Security of lives and properties had suffered devastation from religious conflict internally or externally generated that may not have anything to do with religion but sectional interest and rivalry. In the light of the foregoing, a KII respondent from southern Kaduna says:

It is a very bad thing that has caused serious havoc in our society. When for instance, a Muslim is preaching he will be castigating Christians or traditional worshippers or other religion, running down, the quality of other religion. Some will always feel that their own religion is better than the other, by so doing creating a form of disparities and unable to tolerate or cope with other.\(^3\)

The data shown above indicate that rivalry is a major issue in explaining religious criminality in Southern Kaduna. For instance,

\(^2\)FGD/Male/Kafanchan/2017
\(^3\)KII/Male/Southern Kaduna/2017

*Adogoke (2017)*
Muslim is preaching against Christians or traditional worshippers or other religion, using disparaging innuendo deliberately to harm. Running down the quality and sanctity of others’ religion is passionately contestable in the entire northern region of Nigeria. This can cost sporadic explosion of intermittent violence such as the 1980 Maitatsine riots and the Zango kataf crisis that claimed lives and properties. These people exhibit ethnocentricism that perpetuate a monolithic belief as standard inclusion criteria. This is pushed to become the determinant of inclusion and exclusion in the allocation and access to common goods. This miscarriage of justice starts according to the data above with some feelings of my own religion is better than others’ and gradually graduates into extremism, frustration and aggression that ultimately results into violent conflict.

To further support the above, another respondent opined that;

Inability of the adherents of religion to harmonize between the sermons they hear at their worship centre with the realities the practical experience of religion outside create a form of intolerance and hence cause serious conflict that has involved the lose of valuable lives over the years.⁴

The data above revealed that the adherents of either Islam or Christian are not able to differentiate between what they are taught and reality of the situation in the country. Hence, what their leaders are preaching may not fit in into the reality on ground. This contradiction often leads to intolerance and violent between the two major religions. According to Sampson (2012) ‘inability of religion adherents to harmonize between the theories and the practical aspect of religion bring hostile towards other religions.

⁴KII/Female/Kafanchan/2017

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However one of the participants differs in his opinion that;

I do not believe religious intolerance has any effects but rather the fanatics among the followers of the religious group create a tensed situation that causes religious violence in the country over the years.5

Although the data from this respondent differ slightly from the above, yet they were both referring to the same thing. It is fanatics which makes adherent not to consider the views of other religion which often leads to religious violent.

**Research Question 2: The Extent to which Political Influence Contribute to Religious Violence.**

The roles of religion in any society go beyond the faith to cover social, economic and political sphere of life of the adherents. For example, Islam is not just a religion, but a way of life that encompasses the entire gamut of the economic, judicial, political and cultural lives of its Umma (faithful). Hence, some believe that there is correlation between political activities and religion. Nigeria is secular state but the political interferences are influencing and fueling religious violence. According to respondent from Southern Kaduna local government:

I do not believe that government interfaces into the affairs of religious bodies in other to favor their own cause in the society.6

The data revealed that the political class made use of religion as tools to exploit mass and create crisis by pretending as if they are

5 KII/Male/Kafanchan/2017
6 KII/Female/Karun/2017

*Adegoke (2017)*
supporting one religion against the other one. According to Afolabi (2016) in non-western societies like Nigeria, religion tends to have the capacity to be used as a political instrument. Another interviewer argued that,

Government marginalization of some religious group has brought serious danger upon the country. Several economic privileges and policies have been created to favor one side more than the other.7

The data above revealed that political interference contribute to religious violence in Nigeria. The government favourism and patronage of one religion more than the other religion increases religious violence especially between the two dominant. Several economic privileges and policies have been created to favour especially the dominance religion adherents in the positions of authority

Government most times patronizes one religion than the other, at the expense of the others, especially if those with political power belong to such religious group. These have been cases in which public funds are expended on such religion without extending the same to other religion. This has never gone down, with the other religion, hence violence will break out.8

The view of the respondent from Kafanchan local government was in line with Salawu(2010), ōhat neglect, oppression, domination,

7KII/Male/Southern Kaduna/2017
8KII/Female/Kafanchan/2017

Adegoke (2017)
exploitation, victimization, discrimination, margination, nepotism and bigotry are some of the predisposing factors.


Religious fundamentalism and extremism are similar. They are manifestations of religious intolerance and violence. On the above-stated statement, the result of the qualitative data as revealed form the In-depth Interview conducted in Northern Kaduna. The respondent posited that:

I believe that religious extremism is synonymous to the interference of the various adherents of religious of their adherents. They are conservative in nature. They even condemn other fellows of the religion that are following their ways.9

The respondent’s response is inconsonance with the explanation of concept of extremism or fundamentalist. Religion extremists take the position that if others do not follow their ways, they will be damned (Religious extremism, 2011). They abhor the preaching of other faiths and resort to violence to stop it. This explain the predominance of religious violence in the Muslim dominated Northern part of Nigeria where inflexible adherence to Islamic orthodoxy continues to grow steadily (Sampson, 2012). While asking a question on the possibility of the extremism affecting security in the country. A respondent from Karun local government specifically stated that;

The Boko Haram insurgents who are hidden under the guise of religion are

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9 KII/Male/Kafanchan/2017

Adegoke (2017)
fanatics. They believe that other people in the country who are not in their sect are enemies of God and God forbids their existence. They have caused huge havoc and serious destruction of lives and properties in the country, especially in the last five years. They have a heightened state of the insecurity in the country mostly in the north-east-region of the country. Boko Haram terrorists hate western education with passion.\(^{10}\)

The evidences gathered from the literature are in the support of negative effects of extremism and fundamentalist on security situation in Nigeria. The activities of this group have led to loss of many lives and properties, and of thousands of people have been internally displaced. It also created disruption of peace and harmony.

The activities of the Boko Haran sectarian violence are products of extremist dogmatic adherence to sharia jurisprudence, which inspires Islamic Jihad and the obliteration of western civilization (Onuha, 2012), have created an atmosphere of siege and desolation in most parts of northern Nigeria. In fact, to say that Boko Haram insurgency threatens Nigeria’s corporate existence is to state the obvious. This observation could be regarded as a truism considering the destructive and destabilising effects of the sect. in recent times in Nigeria. The resultant effect of public security volatility in the north has been on impediment to trade and investment, peaceful co-existence and stability, as well as sustainable livelihood and development (Okoli & Iortyer, 2014).

\(^{10}\)FGD/Male/Karun/2017

Adegoke (2017)
6.0 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

The paper is based on a view to understanding some fundamental issues that trigger religious violence in Nigeria which has over the year metamorphosed into a state of insecurity in which several lives and properties worth billions of naira were lost. The findings from the study have revealed that religious intolerance among the adherents of the religious groups in the country contributes largely to the violence that has broken out through religion to the country and this has created a state of insecurity whereby people panic and are in a state of perpetual fear any time they hear of religious conflict. Additionally, political interference in the religious matter and religious fundamentalism/ extremism heightened religious violence and insecurity in the country. Any representatives of the government in power who belong to a religious group as over the year favor his/her religion at the experience of others. This, in turn, did not go down well with others hence it results into religious violence. Likewise, religious fanatics and extremist created a disharmony among the religious group around.

7.0 CONCLUSION

Religions’ function supposed to a unifying factor among the adherents of many religious group but it has become a catalyst which has caused destruction of lives and properties in Nigeria. Nigeria as a multi-ethnic and religious society has faced series of religious violence and many criminal atrocities which have committed by followers of religious groups such as that of Boko Haram, Shites, etc. Nigeria as a country should adhere to strictly to constitutional provision which spells out the fundamental freedom of religion. Religion should be personal to individual without any interference from the other religious group and most especially from the government. The activities of religious group should be monitored and controlled by government through the law enforcement agencies especially any time there is any trace of security threat.

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8.0 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study, therefore, recommends that;

1. The two major dominant religions in the country need to look at their area of convergence rather than difference. This will go a long way in helping to stem down potential religious conflict in the country.
2. The message of peace should be the hallmark of their preaching.
3. There should always be room for dialogue at any time instead of resorting to conflict.
4. There is a need for all adherents of all religions to appreciate the sanctity of the human life.
5. There should be serious punishment dealt out for perpetrators of religious violence in the country.
6. The government should put in place mechanism that would make every part of Nigeria safe for the citizen to practice their religious belief.

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Impact Analysis of Retrenchment and Its Implications on Organisations: A Study of Nigeria Port Authority Plc (NPA)

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Abstract

This study examined the implicit costs inherent to an organisation as a result of retrenchment exercise aimed at improving the profitability and general well-being of the establishment. A survey, with structured questionnaires, was administered to 665 retrenched workers that cut across Apapa wharfs zone, Tin-Can zone and Marine zone in Lagos cosmopolitan, Nigeria. The statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) was employed in data analysis, and it was found that retrenchment incurs more future costs and overhead costs for the organisation that intended to cut down on cost from the onset. The study revealed that retrenchment has not been carried out in the organisation through best practices and that human resource strategy implementation errors misused human capital capacity and distort human management plan which is the major recommendation. The outcome of this study is of great importance, as it will help to show that retrenchment does affect the organisation as well and not only the employees.

Key words: Retrenchment, NPA, Employer, Employees, Organisations.
1.0 INTRODUCTION

Retrenchment has become dreaded phenomena in organisations in Nigeria of recent and for most organisations, an easy way out when cutting down on costs or engaging in restructuring especially in the big organisations. According to Natasha, (2010) retrenchment has become an organisational reality while the ultimate long-term effectiveness of retrenchments is unclear; there is a definite human impact (Levitt et al., 2008). It is an activity argued to be applicable to both declining and growing organizations and is typically portrayed as a means to lower overheads, simplify bureaucracy, speed decision making, facilitate communication, enhance entrepreneurship and increase productivity (Oluoch et al., 2013) without taking into consideration if what they intend to achieve from the onset will be accomplished or not.

A number of studies have focused mainly on the effects of retrenchment on the surviving workers and its effects on the individuals, household, and society that is, the socio-economic (Ogbechie, 2010). Only few studies have attempted investigating the inherent impact of retrenchment on organisations as a result of continuous and ongoing economic meltdown, which many organisations have found it difficult to maintain a large workforce. Due to this, the services of many workers have been declared superfluous which has led to a lot of uncertainties among employees in organisations (Gerber, 2010).

This action is done in order for organisations to control costs of running businesses and at the same time remain competitive in their business sphere. Furthermore, (Austin-Egole et al., 2014) posits that organizations on their part are faced with fierce international competitive pressures which equally result in enormous changes and also, as a means of improving its organisational performance and saving. Management teams are therefore forced to engage in cash saving initiatives which may call for cost savings (Oluoch et al., 2013). And as such, the researcher attempts to fill the gap in between
the bridge which underlines the impact of retrenchment on organisations by seeking to answer the following questions: does retrenchment of workers in the organisation have any overhead costs on the organisation, how has retrenchment affected the productivity of the organisation, and how as retrenchment increased the workload of staff in the organisation.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL MINING

The intentional and continuous elimination of jobs in organisations has become a common and popular technique for management when restructuring or cutting down costs in organisations since the inception of economic meltdown without first giving thought if there could be any other ways available for them in improving organisational efficiency and profits. According to the study carried out by (Ogabechie, 2013) on plight of the retrenched employees in Nigeria, advised that managers whose organizations are experiencing downturns need to ask themselves fundamental questions, such as, are the organisations challenges staff related? Are the problems due to limitations in the processes and procedures of the organization? Could the problems be as a result of inefficiencies in system management? Could it be as a result of innovations in the industry that were not anticipated in the organisations plans? And that management should assess the company’s profile, to unveil other intervention measures that can reasonably sort out the source of the difficulty before opting for elimination of employees so as to achieve cost management and maximization of profit.

Factors influencing retrenchment indicates numerous dynamics within and surrounding organizations include globalization, deregulation, mergers and acquisitions, technological change, increasing costs (Ochieno, 2013) and economic meltdown.

Due to deregulation and privatization, most organizations have transferred ownership and operations of huge organizations from governments to private businesses (De Meuse & Marks, 2002).

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Predictably, this has led to redesigning of organization structures (Ochieno, 2013) and has led to a massive retrenchment of workforce in many organizations couple with economic recession which started since 2007. Different theories are divided, and research findings inconsistent (Krasz, 2004). It has been assumed that retrenchment reduces expenses and reorganizes processes ensuing in improved competitiveness and profitability (Cascio, 2002).

However, the streamlining of organisation has become an apparent need in achieving competitive edge in the marketplace. Although, this claim has not been proved beyond reasonable doubt that retrenchment of workers has improve organizations profits. However, using a firm's return on assets (ROA) and share returns as measures of financial performance, Cascio, (2002) questioned whether retrenchment improved financial performance and what types of retrenchment worked best. The results of his study showed that organizations focusing on reducing headcount over physical assets actually saw a decline in their ROA from approximately 14 per cent to approximately 11 per cent, while stable employers had only a negligible decline in ROA. De Meuse and Marks (2003) noted that firms that had implemented retrenchment did not improve their performance during the year of retrenchment, the following year or two years later and that results indicated that performance continued to decline following their layoff announcement at a greater degree than firms which had made no layoff announcements. Notably, data consistently indicates that companies who implemented retrenchments, consistently under performs compared to organisations that did not implement this intervention (Mirabal & De Young, 2005).

However, it has been noted that some unintended effects usually accompany retrenchments. Retrenchment is supposed to improve organizational general wellbeing but in reality this is yet to be proven rather it has bred a lot of cost implications in the organizations which ranges from low morale, low productive, job insecurity, loss of knowledge and skills, high turnover of workers etc. These inherent costs have mitigated on the performance of the organizations.

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Organizational performance is also negatively influenced by the loss of organizational knowledge and memory possessed on the one hand by those who were retrenched and, on the other hand, by the survivors' quitting in the post-retrenchment period of decreasing loyalty and job satisfaction (Ochieno, 2013). Usually those survivors who leave the organization voluntarily, from the organization’s point of view, possess more useful knowledge, thus organizations risk to lose key skills and experiences as well as valuable knowledge by inappropriately managing a retrenchment procedure (Krasz, 2004).

Moreover, employees' deteriorating motivation and alienation owing to survivors' syndrome adversely affects performance (Redman & Wilkinson, 2009). A major factor that contributes to the failure of most organisations to attain their organisational goals after retrenchment is that they do not satisfactorily and successfully address the "people factor" throughout the process as it pertains to retrenchment survivors (Natasha, 2010). Survivors are typically uninformed or misinformed about various issues, such as their place in the newly structured organisation, corporate objectives, expected performance standards, additional work demands and the existence of or lack of opportunities for career growth. These ambiguities are further compounded by financial and job insecurities (Gerber, 2010). The shift from organizational to career loyalty is manifested in surviving employees focusing on the acquisition of marketable skills and seeking new job opportunities (Sheaffer et al., 2009). These employees tend to concentrate less on their tasks, neglect organizational objectives such as quality, product development, and so on. These finally lead to the stagnation or deterioration of organizational productivity (Ochieno, 2013) and innovations.

Survivors also may become depressed at their inability to avert future layoffs or disruptions to their work routine. In the short run, they become distracted from their work responsibilities (De Meuse & Marks, 2002). Over the long haul, employees who have been through such experience have considerably less confidence and trust in their employers (Marks, 2003). One of the most lasting symptoms of layoff
survivor syndrome is the wearing down of employee confidence in management as a result of the following factors: loss of control over their work, life, fear of the unknown, increased work load and painful experience of watching their fellow workers dismissed. De muse & Marks, (2002) affirms this, by saying that they hurt because the sight of co-workers being dismissed is painful, as is accepting that one’s own career dreams have been derailed by downsizings and divestitures and survivors are frustrated because their ability to get the job done is hampered by the confusion of the restructured organization and because they see few signs that things are going to get better any time soon. What really concerns survivors is the sense that they have lost control over their work lives. They perceived that no matter how well they do their jobs, they could be hit in the next wave of layoffs and as a result of this, some of them perceived that the only way they can regain control over their work situation is to walk away from the organization (De Meuse & Marks, 2002).

Stress also takes a toll on survivor well-being which in turn takes a toll on the organization wellbeing as well. Stress usually generates from workload and workload extends working hours on jobs which ultimately disturbs the incumbent’s roles in the family and society as well, because a worker has to fulfill other roles in his life (Hammer et al., 2010).

It is also observed in literature that employees who perceived that their workload has increased; their performance also reduces (Imam, 2011). Retrenchment could be devastating (Ogbechie, 2013) not only to the retrenched workers, survived workers but also to the organization itself. It opens the retained workers to uncertainties, since they cannot anticipate how long they will remain in the organization (Ogbechi, 2013). It also affects their financial security, their relevance in the organization and sometime alters their personal worth. Meier, (2011) noted that if the process is not managed efficiently, retrenchment could result in depression and may create demoralization, dampen organizational productivity, and increase voluntary retirement, increased drug and alcohol abuse among

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workers surviving a transition which will invariably lead to increase in the rates of illness and absenteeism at workplaces (De Meuse & Marks, 2002).

2.1 Understanding Retrenchment Cost Implications

Retrenchment has implications for both organizations, the country (Romanus, 2010), employees and the family. Organization intention from the onset is to offset any factor that is consuming most of its revenue during the time of restructuring or recession in order to increase its profitability and at the same time remain relevant in the spheres of its business. Levine, (2000:3), found that organizations facing crises, for example, reduced resources by implementing cutbacks in personnel retrenchment. In a related issue, the South African Reserve Bank (quarterly Bulletin, March 2001) argues that the high turnover in retrenchment results from restructuring by companies, the preference for capital intensive over labour-intensive production processes, the introduction of new technology, the economic shift from primary and secondary sectors towards service sectors and the right-sizing of the private sector.

Odell, (2010) indicated that it is often not what is done but how it is done that can make all the difference about how individuals cope with retrenchment. Possible examples of implications of retrenchment and how it can lead to major changes includes: it changes organisational structures, potential effect on prevailing culture, lower standard of living, greater workloads / higher stress, new teams and colleagues, different reporting structures / fewer layers of reporting, uncertainty, new priorities, aims and objectives, loss of morale and increased demotivation among the workers. According to Romanus, (2010) the major problem of retrenchment implication is decrease of human resources that result from cost cutting measures, which bring lower standard of living and abject poverty, loss of skills, energy, morale commitment, physical and mental health degradation, reduced cooperative attitudes, greater fear and distrust; poor communication, lowered performance goals, restriction of production and increased
turnover that results from employees withdrawing physically and emotionally. Which in the short and long run have adverse effect on the smooth running of organizations.

Cascio (2002:52), supports this view by saying that although lay-offs are intended to reduce the costs, some costs like the severance package, out-of-placement benefit, pension and administrative processing costs may increase. The implications of organization retrenchment seem to be numerous compare to the benefits. Aside from the low performance and productivity in organizations it also comes with a lot of health issues on the part of the management and employees that are best imagined than experience. Travagione and Cross, (2006) revealed that survivors experienced an increase in bad health issues. Also, Deng’a, (2001:4) states that retrenchment of workers, inflamed psych-social problems, for example stomach ulcers, high blood pressure, heart disease, depression, reduced self-esteem, general irritability, tendency to commit crime and financial emaciation. Such stressful events are not limited to low cadre employees, managers and senior officers are equally adversely affected (Romanus, 2010).

2.2 The Effects of Retrenchment on Organizations

It is not just the victims and survivors who suffer negative effects (Rama Rao, 2010) of retrenchment, it effects the organization has well. The employees in an organization are seen as one of the major resources in organization and as such anything that affects the employees affects the organization as well. Retrenchment had negative effects on many aspects of organizational performance and reduces the sensitivity of service to the public (Romanus, 2010).

According to Di Frances (2002), there are a number of negative consequences of retrenchment that can hinder the growth of organisations: Poor morale and lack of trust amongst employees, Loss of corporate culture and accessible mentors for remaining employees, and Loss of knowledge and experience base. But there is a general
agreement that downsizing results into reduced organizational commitment among survivors (Datta et al. 2010). Sheaffer et al., (2009) claims that the most significant consequence of retrenchment is related to the change of the organizational culture, not to short-term benefits or reduced costs. Retrenchment can also be viewed as a channel of changes in organizational culture. Being a necessary factor, retrenchment moves the organization from its current situation than is necessary to initiate organizational changes (Ochieno, 2013). Bhattacharyya & Chatterjee, (2005) are also of the belief that retrenchment can initiate the change of organizational culture; certain studies pointed out that the uncertainty after retrenchment results in resistance to culture change amongst survivors. Changes in organizational culture are considered by several authors as an adjustment of the psychological contract (Ochieno, 2013). Results have thus shown that the retrenchment process does not end with the departure of the retrenched. More has to be done with remaining staff to restore confidence and address the distorted organisational culture (Maunganidze et al., 2013). A poorly executed retrenchment process can lead to loss of productivity, low morale and decreasing economic performance (Bntlely, 2005:17). Moreover, employees' deteriorating motivation and alienation owing to survivors' syndrome adversely affects performance (Redman & Wilkinson, 2009).

There is a general agreement that downsizing results into reduced organizational commitment among survivors (Datta et al, 2010). The effects of retrenchment extend beyond those employees who lose their jobs (Oluoch et al., 2013). Surviving employees may perceive that the organization is not committed to them, thereby reducing their willingness to remain with the organizations (Moorman & Fuller, 2001). Also if they feel the victims' dignity was violated, it can arouse feelings of compassion and indignation among survivors and reduce commitment to the organization (De Meuse and Marks, 2002). Retrenchment have the effect of creating anxiety among both the separated persons and those employees within its rank and it should therefore be managed well and professionally in the interest of all to avoid unnecessary pitfalls"(Wandera, 2013) in an organization. When
anxiety among employees is not well treated it impacts the organization negatively.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study was designed as an indepth case study that investigated with the implicit costs inherent to the organisation as a result of retrenchment exercise aimed at improving its profitability and general well-being of the establishment. The study population was 2,277 with sample size of six hundred and sixty-five (665) was drawn using Cochran Probability sampling technique. Well-structured questionnaires were administered with data analyzed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The researcher also examined the internal consistency (reliability) in the results obtained from the survey with the Alpha Test, which will be justified with the Hotelling’s T-squared test and the F-statistics. From the observed values of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett’s Test, the sample adequacy was rationalized, and the hypothesis duly tested.

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Table: 1: Employees Witnessed of Retrenchment in the Organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Witnessed of retrenchment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>87.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>465</td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 shows that eighty-seven percent of the respondents agreed to have witnessed the organisation retrenchment overtime but survived but thirteen percent of them in the organisation presently have not witnessed retrenchment while in the organisation.

_Ishola (2017)_{174}
Table: 2: Reasons Why Organisation Retrenched

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No reason was given</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To achieve competitive edge</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational restructuring</td>
<td>219</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To cut down on number of employees</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change of ownership</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>29.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor job performance</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cutting down on cost</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>465</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 9: it shows that forty-seven percent of the reason why organisation retrenched is as a result of organisational restructuring, thirty percent as a result of change of ownership, eleven percent as a result of cutting down on number of employees, six percent as a result of cutting down on cost, three percent as a result of poor job performance and two percent as a result of no reason given.

Table: 3: Duration of Service Before Retrenchment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Duration of service</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than a year</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 1-5 years</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5-10 years</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>23.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 10-15 years</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 15 years</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>465</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 10: thirty-eight percent of the workers had been in the organisation for more than fifteen years, twenty-three percent had been for ten years, twenty percent had been in there for fifteen years, thirteen percent had been in there for five years, and eight percent of them had been in the organisation for less than a year. This suggests that most of the workers retained during retrenchment have been in the organisation for more than a decade.

*Ishola (2017)*
Table 4: How Employees Perceived Retrenchment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Strongly disagreed</th>
<th>Disagreed</th>
<th>Indifference</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is a good way to redirect a career</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>2.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is a necessarily steps that needs to be taken</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>1.715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It shows organisations are inconsiderate to staff well-being</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It contain staff ability to project it potentials</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It alights the fact that organisations do not respect staff expertise</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.453</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ishola (2017)
From table 11 above, the researcher sought to find out how the employees perceived retrenchment in the organisation. The findings were then presented using mean to show the consensus and the variance to show the diversion of the responses from mean score.

From the findings, PR1 mean of 3.18 means that the participants are indifferent that retrenchment offers a perceived option for career redirection while the variance of 2.509 shows those participants are in tune on career redirection. PR2 mean of 2.18 means that the participants disagreed that retrenchment is essential human resource measure while the variance of 1.715 shows that the participants are in tune with retrenchment as a human resource measure. PR3 mean of 2.86 means that participants are indifference weather is as a result of human resource management strategy failure while the variance of 2.012 shows that they are in tune with it. PR4 mean of 2.65 means that participants are indifferent if retrenchment serves as a means of projecting employees life cycle potentials while its variance of 1.503 shows that employees are in tune with it. PR5 mean of 3.61 means that the participants totally agreed that the organisation disregard staff expertise while the variance of 1.453 shows that they are in tune with it.

Ishola (2017)
### Table 5: Employees Preparedness before Retrenchment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Strongly disagreed %</th>
<th>Disagreed %</th>
<th>Indifference %</th>
<th>Agreed %</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not Prepared</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially Prepared</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>32.3</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>2.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral to the Issue of Job loss</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>2.045</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepared</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully prepared</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>1.670</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, the researcher sought to find out how the employees were prepared before the commencement of retrenchment in the organisation. From the findings, PPR1 mean of 3.23 means that the participants are indifferent to the fact of being prepare before retrenchment commencement while the variance of 3.421 shows those participants are in tune for retrenchment preparation. PPR2 mean of 2.29 means that the participants disagreed that the organisation partially prepared them before the commencement of retrenchment while the variance of 2.510 shows that the participants are in tune to being partially prepared. PPR3 mean of 2.33 means that participants disagreed to the issue of being neutral to the loss of job while the variance of 2.045 shows that they are in tune with it. PPR4 mean of 2.00 means that participants disagreed on being prepared before retrenchment while the variance of 1.847 shows they are in tune with it.

### Table 6: How Proud Persons Will Be During Retrenchment

*Ishola (2017)*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Very sad %</th>
<th>Sad %</th>
<th>Indifference %</th>
<th>Happy %</th>
<th>Very happy %</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Family members</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>50.1</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>.990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>61.3</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>.9</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line Manager/immediate Supervisors</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neighbours</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, the researcher sought to find out how proud persons will be during retrenchment. From the findings, PFR1 mean of 4.31 means that the family members agreed that retrenchment exercise does affect them while the variance of .99 shows those family members are not in tune on retrenchment exercise.

PFR2 mean of 4.11 means that the co-workers agreed they were not happy when their colleagues were being retrenched while the variance of .788 shows that the participants are not in tune with the retrenchment. PFR3 mean of 3.92 means that friends were also not happy while the variance of .803 shows that they are not in tune with it. PFR4 mean of 3.43 means that the line managers/supervisors were indifferent during the retrenchment exercise while the variance of .768 shows that they were in tune with it. PFR5 mean of 3.01 means that the neighbours were indifferent to their co-talent plight during retrenchment while the variance of 1.300 shows that they in tune with it.

_Ishola (2017)_
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Strongly disagreed %</th>
<th>Disagreed %</th>
<th>Indifference %</th>
<th>Agreed %</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I felt very angry with my employer at that time.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I felt very unsecure during the exercise.</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>49.9</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>1.432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I was affected emotionally during the exercise.</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>1.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can hardly sleep at night during the exercise.</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I suffered for some time, but have recovered now.</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have not recovered from the experience.</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>2.068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My work load increased as a result of the retrenchment.</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During the exercise</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>1.779</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ishola (2017)
there were tension among the workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Score 1</th>
<th>Score 2</th>
<th>Score 3</th>
<th>Score 4</th>
<th>Score 5</th>
<th>Score 6</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It helped in enhancing the well-being of the retained employees.</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There was lack of solidarity among workers at the time.</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>31.0</td>
<td>39.6</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There was lack of cooperation among the employees at the time.</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Since my colleagues were laid off, I often feel more traumatized at the work place
| My other colleagues are also more traumatized in the organization         | 2.8     | 17.6    | 19.8    | 46.5    | 10.1    | 3.34    | 1.336   |
| I do not feel more secure working in this organization                    | 2.8     | 18.5    | 32.3    | 29.0    | 14.4    | 3.25    | 1.376   |
| Given a chance, I would leave this                                        | 6.9     | 33.8    | 9.7     | 32.5    | 14.4    | 3.05    | 1.766   |

Ishola (2017)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization for another opportunity elsewhere</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am very motivated to work in this company</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>30.1</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>2.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ishola (2017)
From the table above, the researcher sought to find how retrenchment affected those employees that were retained in the organisation. From the findings, REAS1 mean of 4.18 means that the participants agreed that they were very angry with their employer while the variance of 1.432 shows that the participants are in tune with it. REAS2 mean of 4.16 means that participants are in agreement that they felt very unsecure during the exercise while the variance of 1.432 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS3 mean of 4.19 means that participants agreed that were affected emotional while the variance of 1.198 shows that they were in tune with it. REAS4 mean of 3.86 means that the respondents were in agreement that they hardly sleep during the period while the variance of 1.184 shows that the respondents were very much in tune with it. REAS5 mean of 3.83 means that the respondents also agreed that they suffered for a while during the period of retrenchment while the variance of 1.315 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS6 mean of 3.27 means that the respondents were indifferent towards recovery from the experience while the variance of 2.068 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS7 mean of 3.98 means that the participants agreed that their work load increased after retrenchment while the variance of 1.562 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS8 mean of 3.85 means that the respondents agreed that during the period of retrenchment that tension among the worker increased while the variance of 1.779 shows that they are of high variance. REAS9 mean of 2.91 means that the participants are indifferent to the fact that retrenchment helped in enhancing their well-being while the variance of 1.378 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS10 mean of 2.75 means that the respondents were indifferent to the existence of solidarity among themselves while the variance of 1.091 shows that they are in tune with it.

REAS11 mean of 3.00 means that the employees were indifferent towards any existence of co-operation among themselves while the variance of 1.358 shows that they are of high variance. REAS12 mean of 3.34 means that the respondents were indifferent if they were

Ishola (2017)
traumatised at work place while the variance of 1.376 shows that they were in tune with it. REAS13 mean of 3.25 means that the participants were indifferent towards the state of their follow colleagues while the variance of 1.376 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS14 mean of 3.05 means that the participants were indifferent to being secure in the organisation while the variance of 1.766 shows that they are in tune with it. REAS15 mean of 2.83 means that the respondents are indifferent towards getting another opportunity outside their present organisation while the variance of 1.353 shows that they are in tune towards it. REAS16 mean of 2.89 means that the participants are indifferent towards being motivated in the organisation while the variance of 2.159 shows that they are tune with it.
Table 8: Employees Retained Recovered Fast from Retrenchment Exercise Due To The Following

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Strongly disagreed %</th>
<th>Disagreed %</th>
<th>Indifference %</th>
<th>Agreed %</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Through self-effort and self-development</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>29.0</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>2.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through effective organisation reorientation</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>1.613</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer fully prepared employees before the retrenchment exercise commenced</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>1.268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The assistance from follow co-workers that were retained.</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>28.8</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through cordial reactions of the retrenched staff</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.710</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table above, the researcher sought to find out how the employees perceived retrenchment in the organisation. From the findings, RFSR1 mean of 3.78 means that the participants agreed that they recovered from retrenchment through self-effort and development while the variance of 2.015 shows those participants are in tune on recovery through self-development. RFSR2 mean of 2.14 means that the participants disagreed on recovering fast through effective organisation reorientation while the variance of 1.613 shows that the participants are in tune with it.

RFSR3 mean of 2.27 means that participants are disagreed that their employer prepared them before the commencement of retrenchment while the variance of 1.268 shows that they are in tune with it. RFSR4 mean of 2.73 means that participants are indifferent towards having recovered through the help of follow workers while the variance of 1.214 shows that they are not in tune with it. RFSR5 mean of 3.03 means that the participants were indifferent towards having recovered through the reactions of their follow retained workers while the variance of 1.710 shows that they are in tune with it.

Ishola (2017)
Table 9: Effect of Retrenchment on Organisational Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire item</th>
<th>Strongly disagreed %</th>
<th>Disagreed %</th>
<th>Indifference %</th>
<th>Agreed %</th>
<th>Strongly agree %</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retrenchment had a significant positive effect on the organisation finances/costs</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrenchment had a significant negative effect on the organisation finances/costs</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>2.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has helped in increasing the organisational savings</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has improved the organisational productivity</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.475</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has helped in enhancing the organisation profitability</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It has helped the organisation in maintaining its</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.027</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ishola (2017)
It has helped to improve the working environment.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Percentage 1</th>
<th>Percentage 2</th>
<th>Percentage 3</th>
<th>Percentage 4</th>
<th>Percentage 5</th>
<th>Percentage 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It has helped in the generally well-being of the organisation</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>45.8</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudden retrenchment exercise led to total breakdown of retained employees’ trust towards the organisation.</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>11.2</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>3.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive training was given to staff members to improve their productivity on their new job roles.</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After retrenchment the organisation still find it difficult to meet up with its targeted plans of breaking even.</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After retrenchment the organisation has been</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>18.1</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ishola (2017)
able to accomplished its plan of cutting down on production costs.

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Retrenchment exercise is a better way in ensure that employee do their duties.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It created job uncertainty among the retained workers.</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrenchment is the proper step to take when cutting down on costs</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>3.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It helped in controlling organisation excessive costs</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>19.8</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>54.0</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>3.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ishola (2017)
From the table above, the researcher sought to explore the ethical issues of retrenchment as it affects the organisational well-being in general. From the findings OWG1 mean of 3.43 means that the participant were indifferent to if retrenchment had a significant positive impact on organisation costs (financial) while the variance of 1.974 shows that the participants are in tune with it. OWG2 mean of 2.86 means that the participants do not care if retrenchment has yield a negative impact on organisation costs while the variance of 2.118 shows that they in tune with it. OWG3 mean of 3.35 means that the participants are also indifferent to organisational retrenchment leading to increase in organisational savings while the variance of 1.971 shows that they are in tune with it. OWG4 mean of 2.97 means that the respondents indifferent that retrenchment has improved the organisational productivity while the variance of 1.475 shows that they are in tune with the result. OWG5 mean of 3.23 means that the respondents are indifferent to it enhancing organisation profitability while the variance of 1.267 shows that they are in tune with the result. OWG6 mean of 2.88 means that the participants are indifferent to the fact that retrenchment has helped the organisation in maintaining competitive edge over its competitors while the variance of 1.027 shows that the respondents are in tune with it. OWG7 mean of 2.65 means that the participants were indifferent to improving the general well-being of the organisation while the variance of 1.145 shows that the participants are in tune with it. OWG8 mean of 3.01 means that the respondents are also indifferent to retrenchment having improved the working environment of the organisation while the variance of 1.675 shows that they are in tune with the result. OWG9 mean of 3.58 means that the respondents agreed that during the period of retrenchment there was a total breakdown of employees trust towards the organisation while the variance of 1.907 shows that the participant are in tune with the result.
Discussion of the Findings: Table 9: Regression Results

Dependent Variable: L
Method: Least Squares
Date: 12/11/12 Time: 18:13
Sample (adjusted): 17
Included observations: 6
Excluded observations: 1 after adjusting endpoints

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>t-Statistic</th>
<th>Prob.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X1</td>
<td>0.064167</td>
<td>0.045056</td>
<td>1.424147</td>
<td>0.2275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X2</td>
<td>-0.781000</td>
<td>0.183019</td>
<td>-4.267312</td>
<td>0.0130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R-squared 0.747220  Mean dependent var -0.351667
Adjusted R 0.684025  S.D. dependent var 0.605154
squared 0.340167  Akaike info criterion 0.942441

S.E. of regression
Sum squared 0.462854  Schwarz criterion 0.873027
Log likelihood -0.827323  F-statistic 11.82405
Durbin-Watson 0.537459  Prob(F-statistic) 0.026327

The log of the items OWG1-OWG16 which represents the general well-being of the organisation has a Kaiser Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy of .754 with a Chi-square of 2.477 and a Bartlett’s test of Sphericity of 120 which is statistically significant at 1%. The rotated co-efficient matrix state that those items are made up of five components (variables). This result is in harmony with the preliminary results shown above. The log of the odds does not have

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positive relationship with collateral facility (x2). We can assert that loans to SMEs in Nigeria do not necessarily depend on the ability of the SMEs to provide collateral security. However, for R-squared of 0.7472, Adjusted R-squared of 0.6840 and a significant F value, the two variable X1 and X2 can combined together to mitigate the effects of retrenchment to a great extent.

**Perceived Retrenchment (PR):** The validity test of reliability for variables represented perceived retrenchment (PR) with five items (PR1-PR5) have a Cronbach’s Alpha .337 and Cronbach’s Alpha (CA) based on standardized item of .371. This result is a little below the approved CA reliability statistics value of 400. This means the items that make up the PR variables are not very strong representation of PR. From the item statistics it was noticed that respondents agreed that organisation shows disregard for staff expertise by retrenchment. They were neutral over retrenchment ability to redirect staff career path (HRRSCP).

The PR3 view retrenchment as a weakness of the firm (NPA) stating that it is partially human resource management strategy failure. Other items that made up these variables (PR2 essential human resource measure and PR4 employees life cycle potentials) have very weak result. This shows that the participants affirmed that PR2 & PR4 i.e. essential human resource measure and employees life cycle potentials have no influence on retrenchment or have no influence on why NPA should retrenched staff. This validity of this result is confirmed by the Hotelling’s T-squared test value of 274.14 with an F-test value of 68.09 which is statistically significant at 1%.

**Participants’ Preparedness for Retrenchment (PPR):** The PPR variables represent (participants preparedness for retrenchment). The validity result has a Cronbach’s Alpha (CA) of .873 with (CA) based standardized item of .883. This result shows that PPR1- PPR5 variables are strongly valued and true representation of employees preparedness for retrenchment. The Hotelling’s test square test has a value of 395.47 with an F-test of 98.23 which shows that the validity

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measures of the variable are strong. This variable is statistically significant at 1%.

**How Proud Family, Friends Will Feel During Retrenchment (PFR):** The PFR represent how proud the following will be during retrenchment. It has five dimensions (PFR1- PFR5) and each represents how proud family, co-workers, neighbours; friends and line manager will feel during retrenchment. The validity test shows that PFR1- PFR5 has a Cronbach’s Alpha of .863 and with a (CA) based standardized item of .863. This result shows that the dimensions (how proud family, friends etc will feel during retrenchment) is valued and a true representation of how people will feel of retrenched persons. The Hotelling’s T-square test has a value of 650.52 with an F-test of 161.58 which shows that the validity measure of the variable is strong. This variable is statistically significant at 1%.

**How Retrenchment Exercise Affected Staff (REAS):** The REAS represent how retrenchment exercise affected staff in the organisation. It has sixteen dimensions (REAS1- REAS16) and each represent how staff was affected during retrenchment. The validity test shows that REAS1- REAS16 has a Cronbach’s Alpha of .826 and (CA) based on standardized item of .834. This result shows that the dimension of how employees were affected during retrenchment is valued and true represent of how people were affected during retrenchment. The Hotelling’s T-squared test has a value of 842.55 with an F-test of 54.47 which shows that the validity measure is statistically significant at 1%.

**How Staff Recovered Fast from the Sudden Retrenchment (RFSR):** The validity test for reliability for variable RFSR represent how staff recovered fast from the sudden retrenchment. It has five items (RFSR1- RFSR5) and each represent how fast staff recovered from the sudden retrenchment.
The validity test shows that (RFSR1-RFSR5) has a Cronbach's Alpha of .482 and (CA) based on standardized item of .508. This result shows that the dimension of how staff recovered from sudden retrenchment is valued and true represent of how fast staff recovered from the sudden retrenchment of their follow staff. The Hotelling's T-squared test has a value of 127.11 which shows that the validity measure is statistically significant at 1%.

Organisational Well-Being in General (OWG): The OWG represent how retrenchment has affected organisational well-being in general. It has sixteen dimensions (OWG1-OWG16) and each represent how retrenchment has affected the organisational well-being as a whole. The validity test shows that (OWG1-OWG16) has a Cronbach's Alpha test of .789 with a (CA) based standardized item of .792. This result shows that the dimension of how retrenchment has affected organisation well-being is valued and true representation of how retrenchment has affected organisation well-being as a whole. The validity of this is confirmed by the Hotelling's T-squared test value of 273.19 with an F-test value of 17.66 which is statistically significant at 1%.

Analysing the hypotheses used in the study:

H₀ Retrenchment does not significantly reduce organisations overhead cost (Finance). Considering H₁ we investigated the impact of organisation overhead cost (financial) the impact of this on organisation retrenchment. The variables considered to estimate this impact are: PPR (participant preparedness), RFFE (Retrenches Company's goal concentric), RCGC (Retrenches Company's goal concentric), REED (retrenches retrenches employees exploitation dogma) and EUW (employees' unfair welfare) are the independent variables. The result estimated shows that RFFE has a positive impact on PPR. Therefore, a unit increase in RFFE has a 1.05 impact on PPR. This relationship is statistical significant at 1%. This result revealed the fact that firms that retrenched staff due to financial difficulties believed that retrenchment is a means to attain financial
stability. Also, it undermines the retrenches preparedness for retrenchment.

The RCGC (Retrenches Company’s goal concentric) variable has a negative impact on PPR. A unit increase in RCGC has a negative impact of .461 on PPR. This finding shows that firm that retrenched workers to meet their goals basically reduce the retrenched staff potentials to prepare for retrenchment. The REED (retrenches employees exploitation dogma) variable has a negative impact on PPR. A unit increase in REED (retrenches employees exploitation dogma) has 0.212 reduction impact on PPR. This variable is statistically significant at 1%. This result show that firms that perpetuate retrenchment has a means to obtaining their objectives are not directly exploitative but they portray attributes that do not prepare staff to be retrenched before retrenchment, thus, an unexpected shock on retrenches that is perceived as exploitation. The EUW (employee’s unfair welfare) variable has a positive impact on PPR. The result shows that a unit increase in EUW will lead to 0.227 unit increase in PPR. This is statistically significant at 1%. This shows that firms with unfair employees’ welfare packages will not prepare their staff for retrenchment and they are prone to retrenched staff at the perception of any sign of difficult. The R statistics is 0.54 this shows that on the average the model has a good fit. The Durbin-Watson statistics (DW) is 1.3 which is not too far from 1.5 shows that the model is basically stable. The F-change of 46.93 is statistically significant at 1%. This result have supported the F-statistics value of the ANOVA (analysis of variance) is also statistically significant at 1%. The regression residual shows that the variables are basically normal and well behaved and the normal P-plot of regression standard residual show that the result analysed by the model is in line with reality as observed in the sample and expected by the hypothesis test considering all probabilities. Therefore, the result obtained should be taken seriously by organisation and interested human resource management group. Consequently, it can be expected that retrenchment has a significant impact on PPR.
impact on organisation overhead cost (financial). Therefore accept the H$_1$ and reject H$_0$.

$H_0$ : retrenchment has not been carry out through best practice. Considering H$_3$ we investigated how retrenchment has impacted on organisation best practice. The variable considered to estimate this impact are: PPR (participants preparedness for retrenchment), RCRC (retrenches reaction of co-workers retained), ORPR (Organisation reorientation preparedness for retrenched), REED (retrenches employees exploitation dogma), and RMEB (retrenches management efficiency bias) The estimated result shows that RCRC has a negative impact on PPR. Therefore, a unit increase in RCRC has a .133 reduction impact on PPR. This relationship is statistically significant at 1%. This result show that firms that retrenched do so to the detriment of the organisation image but they go about it indirectly in order to cancel the favouritism portray in their action.

Hence, unanticipated shock on retrenched, that is perceived as favouritism. Therefore we reject H$_0$ and accept H$_1$. The ORPR (organisation reorientation preparation for retrenchment) variable has a positive impact on PPR. This means a unit increase in ORPR will lead to 0.316 unit increase in PPR. This variable is statistically significant at 1%. This result shows that firms that retrenched do not engage in reorientation programmes that will help the intended retrenches with the intended aim of curbing cost. This invariably undermines the retrenches preparation for retrenchment. This means ORPR have a positive feedback loop on macroeconomic variable linked with firm's preparedness for retrenchment. Therefore, we reject H$_0$ and accept H$_1$.

The REED (retrenches employees exploitation dogma) variable has a negative impact on PPR. Therefore, a unit increase in REED will lead to a reduction of .104 in PPR. This variable is statistically not significant at 1%. This shows that firm used retrenchment has a means of obtaining their objectives and goals are not directly exploitative but portrays the attributes that do not prepare the

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retrenched for retrenchment, thus, the perception of organisation of being exploitative by the retrenched. REED does not cause an influence on PPR. Therefore, we reject $H_0$ and accept $H_1$. The RMEB (retrenches management efficiency bias) variable has a positive impact on PPR. This means a unit increase in RMEB will lead to an increase of 0.251 in PPR. This variable is statistically significant at 1%. This result shows that organisation that succour to retrenchment during times of financial difficulties carry out the exercise in an inefficiency manner. Hence, it undermines management efficiency in the organisation. This means management inefficiency is being covered up by issuing employees’ retrenchment letters in order for the system to make up appropriately. Therefore we reject $H_0$ and accept $H_1$.

The R-statistics is 0.36 this shows that on the average the model has a good fit. The Durbin-Watson statistics (DW) is 1.3 which is not too far from 1.5 shows that the model is basically stable. The F-change of 17.02 is statistically significant at 1%. This result have supported by the F-statistics value of the ANOVA (analysis of variance) which is also statistically significant at 1%. The regression residual shows that the variables are basically normal/well behaved and the normal P-plot of regression standard residual show that the result analysed by the model is in line with reality as observed in the sample and expected to by the hypothesis test considering all probabilities. Therefore, the result obtained should be taken seriously by organisations and interested human resource management group. Consequently, it can be expected that retrenchment has a significant impact on organisation best practices. Therefore, we accept $H_1$ and reject $H_0$ the null hypothesis.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the impact analysis of retrenchment and its implications on organisation the case study of Nigeria Post Authority (NPA). This result revealed the fact that firms that retrenched staff due to financial difficulties believed that retrenchment is a means to

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attain financial stability but which invariably incur more overhead costs for the organisation that intended to cut down on cost from the onset.

Retrenchment has significantly influenced work ethics. This result shows that firms that retrenched staff without due processes or procedure invariably produced employees that are emotional bias against the organisation. Retrenchment has been carried out with best practices. This result shows that organisation that succour to retrenchment during times of financial difficulties carry out the exercise in an inefficiency manner. Hence, it undermines management efficiency in the organisation.

This means management inefficiency is being covered up by issuing employees’ retrenchment letters in order for the system to make up appropriately, and retrenchment incurred future cost for organisations. This shows that firms with human resource strategy implementation errors misused human capital capacity and distort human management plan. Basically, these failures are covered up in most of these organisations by retrenchment exercises which sometimes lead to increase in future cost as a result of the organisation having to train the retained staff, instigation as a result of law suits etc. From the study, it was discovered that human resource have a management failure and for that reason in order to ensure that the surviving employees morale, motivation, loyalty and also to make them feel more secure working in the organization since human capital is the most vital resources in any organisation. Therefore, the researcher proposes: That human resource manager should ensure that effective policies in retrenchment are formulated and strictly followed in organisation in order to capture effective training before the commencement of retrenchment exercise.

Human resource should try and understand the strength of its employees and fit them in the department that will be most beneficial for the organisation. They should also get rid of management favouritism in order to make the transmission process for retained staff in the organisation smooth and hitch free. Early communication

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should be made to the employees. This will make the employees prepare themselves in advance so as not to have much effect on the surviving employees. Finally, we recommend that open communication devoid of fear should be put in place in the organization so that the retained employees who have survived the retrenchment process can talk about their feelings and also have the right to know where the organization is headed.

REFERENCES


Nigerian Airline Passengers’ and Location-Based Social Network Usage

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Abstract

Location-based social network also known as the Location-based services emerged as location-based service tool tied to an individual current location facilitated by internet services and mobile telephone system. The study investigated the Nigerian airline passengers and location-based social network usage with focus on Nnamdi Azikiwe International Airport, Abuja domestic passengers. The study uses questionnaire to gather data about the Nigerian domestic passengers’ use of the location-based services. The study further use percentage and frequency to describe the demographics and respondents responses. The study reveals that the location-based services offer Nigerian Airline passengers and other transport sector services to access Nigerian airline services at the airports. The use of the location-based applications will depend on the ultimate users’ knowledge of its existence as reveal by the study. More so, the study found that passengers of the Nigerian airlines are aware of it existence and the potential influence of its usage on individual travel purchase intention and decision. The study also reveal that majority of the passengers utilized the emerged location-based information technology for travel related services in Nigeria. Thus, the major finding is that passengers are aware of the location-
based services but its usage on Nigerian airline service is limited. Conclusion was drawn based on the study findings, and marketing implications were highlighted.

**Key Words:** Location-based service, Location-based service Types, Location-based social Network usage, Nigerian airline passengers and Nigerian airlines

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The advanced information communication technologies (ICT) in the consumer market have enhanced relationship marketing to strengthen customer-business relationship; ICT continuously revolutionizes the travelling industry by facilitating convergences among different players, enabling the creation of new services with improved processes for the suppliers and added value for the consumers (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2018). Also, operating and interacting with recent technologies such as augmented reality, virtual human, robots, and virtual reality can enrich travellers stay experiences (Buhalis & Leung, 2018). This will therefore facilitated access to business information in the market, thereby facilitating tourism and other travel related information for travellers.

Location-based social network (LBSN) also known as Location-based service (LBS) as part of these advanced information communication technologies seem to have emerged to facilitate individual travelling and information search at a particular location. Location-based service is an information system that uses real-time global positioning systems, the internet systems, and wireless communication data to provide spatially and temporal information processing capability to end-users with regards to end-users activities at a location like airport (Dhar & Varshney, 2011; Junglas & Watson, 2008). It is defined as an application that depends on a user’s current location to provide services in various categories such as promotion of business messages,

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navigation, tracking, and healthcare services (Farid, Nordin, & Ismail, 2013). It is also referred to as marketer-controlled information customized for receipts geographical location via mobile devices that meet customers' needs at the right time and place (Field, 2005). It is also regarded as the 'killer' application for mobile business (Junglas & Watson, 2008). Thus, location-based service application is defined as the applications and tools that combine geographical coordinates with a service thereby providing value-added solutions to users (Krug, Mountain, & Phan, 2003). They are refers to as information technology services for providing information that have been created, compiled, selected, or filtered, taking into consideration the current location of one or several targets (Jothsna & Ramavataram Roll, 2009). Also, MMA (2011) described location-based service as any application service or campaign that incorporates the use of geographical location to deliver added value to the customers.

Consumers seem to resist some newly introduced products in the market due to inadequate information and lack of other users' comments in the market. The refusal of users to use location-based services as deemed fit by the consumers has call for further investigations by various researchers (Buhalis & Leung, 2018; Anisic, Tekic & Orcik, 2013). Several studies have been conducted with regards to location-based service usage. A study conducted by Atalik, Sak, and Sezgen (2015) on measuring consumers' perception towards the mobile marketing campaigns in air transportation, reveal that most of the passengers found the use of mobile location-based service appeals as an added-value to the operations of the business service industry, however many have not taken advantage of this. Also, a study conducted by Varshney and Joy (2015) found that most customers use mobile marketing tools such as LBS to facilitate information access but their integration on business services is limited. For example, Zhang and Rau (2014) found that location-based service application is one of the most popular forms of social media but suffers consistent unacceptance among social media users. More so, Chang and Ngai (2013) found that location social media is increasingly popular and has enormous potential for businesses,

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however, observed that the application of mobile location-based services is relatively limited. Thus, the potential and capabilities of mobile digital devices like location-based service application have been argued that integrating with the consumers’ needs would remain the focal point of the academic and business practitioners (Strom, Vendel & Bredican, 2014; Gao & Liu, 2014). Thus, the location-based service applications as newly emerging information communication tools provides means for accessing airline and other travel related services, but its usage in this direction has been limited as argued by Zhang, et al. 2014. Therefore, the aim and objectives of the study is to investigate its usage among Nigerian Airline passengers as tools to access airline and other travel related services in Nigeria focusing on Nnamdi Azikiwe International Airport Abuja Nigeria with particular emphases on Nigerian domestic Airlines. Specifically, this study investigate the period the passengers have used the device for airline services, number of the passengers who have used the device, and the Nigerian domestic Airlines they have used the device to access their information. In line with these objectives, the study adopted quantitative study.

2.0 METHODOLOGY

This is a quantitative study that focuses on Nigerian domestic airline passengers and Location-based social network usage. Thus, a questionnaire was designed in this regards that covers the Nigerian domestic airline passengers usage. This includes period of usage, use of location-based service application for Airlines, and 4 Nigeria Airlines were selected for the study. The study focused on location-based service usage, period of usage, airline related services and Nigerian airlines. The questionnaire construction was adapted from the study of Chang, and Ngai, (2013) on what influence user adoption of location-based services. The study was conducted at the Nnamdi Azikiwe International Airport Abuja Nigeria. A sample size of 550 was used for the study. The data were collected for a period of one month through the assistance of the staff of the Nnamdi Azikiwe International Airport Abuja, Nigeria. Percentage and frequency were
employed to describe the demographics and responses of the respondents.

3.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

The importance of business services would depend on ultimate market consumption by the consumers. A business service consumed by the consumers is an integral of service input and feedback to business service providers. Thus, one way of getting feedbacks on a business services in the market is through market consumption and in this context the use of location-based social network by the Nigerian domestic airline passengers. The use of location-based service applications has been argued to enhanced service delivery system but its usage by the travellers for airline service is limited (Zhang, et al. 20014). For example, Humphreys (2010) found that mobile phones have emerged as tools for communication and business interaction, although some users may not see it as tools for access business services. This means that mobile phones particularly smartphones has not only enhanced personal communication among individuals but has facilitated customer-business interaction on business services in the market.

More so, a study conducted by Mangold and Faulds (2009) on mobile devices as social tools found that they have become major factors influencing passengers’ behaviors in service consumption, but refusal of some users has limited its usage. It is on this premise that Verhoef and Lemon (2013) argue that the emergence of mobile devices, such as location-based services and smartphones will complement the traditional marketing communication media but its uses for airline and other travel related services are limited. Also, a study conducted by Sujata, Sohag, Tanu, Chintan, Shudham, and Sumit(2015) on the impact of over the top services on telecom service providers argue that passengers’ demand for convenience has made it necessary for service providers to track the preferences of individual consumers and deliver information and content accordingly which the location-based services has the capability to achieved. Thus, there is a
need for integration of business services and users' usage to enhance business service usage like airline services.

In addition, the rising of smartphones in the market will continue to widen the scope of consumers' to seek information about business services being consumed by the target markets (Gana, 2015). Therefore, the advancement in mobile information communication technology and the resulting pace of location-based service penetration would continue to spawn new business opportunities for service industry like airlines. However, a study conducted by Exact Target (2014) on mobile behavior found that consumers believe that it is easier to find information about a business service in the market via mobile information technologies but refusal of travelers has limited location-based services uses. On the contrary, a study conducted by Pew Research Centre Internet and American Life Project (2013) found that the use of mobile devices by consumers has enhanced service delivery and satisfaction.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Gerpott and Berg (2011) on factors that determined location-based service adoption, found that social influence, customer trust, privacy concerns, and willingness to use influences location-based service usage (Wang, Xiang & Fesenonaier, 2016). Also, a study conducted by Ryschka, Tonn, Ha, and Bick (2014) on the investigation of location-based services from business model perspectives, argue that location-based service attained value primarily by saving resources and reduces complexity through automated integration of a location, however, this potential opportunity is limited to few business service like City taxi and transport system. This implies, the use of location-based services has been limited to some selected service of business services in a city.

Besides, marketing literature reveals that perceived value is one of the paramount factors influencing customers' choice of business services selection (Dow, 2013). Although, researchers have argue that the location-based service applications will offer personalized mobile services for targeted individuals at specific locations and time but
general consumers perception is on the contrary which has limited its uses in airline and other travel related service (Turban, King, & Lang, 2009). For example, a study conducted by Atalik, Sak, and Sezgen (2015) on measuring consumers’ perception towards the mobile marketing campaigns in air transportation, reveal that most of the passengers found the use of mobile marketing appeals as an added-value to the operations of the business service industry (Roach, 2009; Barutcu, 2007). Also, a study conducted by Varshney and Joy (2015) found that most customers use mobile marketing tools but the use of location-based services for airline and other travel related services are limited. It is on this note that this study investigates Nigerian airline passengers and location-based social network usage.

Thus, researchers have argued in favour of the location-based service use. The location-based service applications in the market have facilitated attention of researchers and practitioners on its impact to business industry especially for travelling sector (Gana & Thomas, 2016; Chang & Liu, 2012). For example, Chong and Ngai (2013) states that one advantage of mobile commerce, when compared to e-commerce, is the ability to offer location-based services.

Understanding consumers’ usage with regards to location-based service applications in the market would be pertinent to the businesses because consumers are the ultimate users of business services in the market. Besides, these mobile applications seem to have emerged as one of the newest relationship marketing to facilitate individual consumers’ purchase decisions. For example, Berg Insight (2012) opined that the (mobile) location-based advertising has become an important part of the marketing mix which aims to achieve 32% of the total mobile advertising expenditure by 2017, this seem as huge potential opportunities for business industry.

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS

A questionnaire of 630 was administered to the passengers of Nigerian domestic airlines and 550 valid questions were returned
which focused on four areas—location-based service uses, period of use, airline related services, and Nigerian airlines. This are classified into four table as explained below. Table 1 provides details information about the respondents’ participation in the survey.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location-Based-Service Usage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>548</td>
<td>99.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In response to the question of the use of location-based service applications, interestingly 548 (99.6%) of the respondents claimed that they have used the location-based service applications (such as GPS, Google Plus, and Facebook Places). Whereas, 2 (0.4%) of the respondents claimed they have not used the location-based service applications as shown in Table 1. This, therefore, illustrates that the most of the participants for this study survey had knowledge of the use of location-based service applications, which implies that they have used the location-based service applications in different areas of travel and airline-related services.

Furthermore, the study reveals that 203 (36.9%) of the respondents belong to the category of 5 years and above based on the question of period of use. The study further reveals that 137 (24.9%) of the respondents falls between 3-4 years. Also, 127 (23.1%) of the respondents belong to the category of 2-3 years. Furthermore, 83 (15.1%) of these respondents belong to the category of less than 1 year as shown in Table 2

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Table 2
*Period of Usage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period of Usage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - 3 years</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - 4 years</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- years and above</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>550</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 further reveals that participants in the study survey had enormous experiences on the use of the mobile location-based service applications. It reveals that majority of these participants had five and above years of experiences on the use of the mobile location-based applications which was followed by three to four years of experiences, and two to three years experiences. This means that participants had adequate knowledge about the location-based applications in the market.

In addition, responses on the location-based service application for airline and other travel-related services, the study shows that 352 (64.0%) claimed that they have used it for airline travel related services, whereas 198 (36.0%) of the respondents declared that they have not used it for airline travel related services as shown in Table 3.

Table 3
*Usage of Location-Based Service Application for Airlines*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 3 further illustrates that majority of the passengers use the mobile location-based service applications for airline and other travel-related services. Although, some of these passengers are still contemplating using it for airline travel related activities. This means they have not been able to experience the influence and potential impact of the location-based service technological developments on individual purchase decisions with regards to airline services.

More so, in responding to the question on airlines which the passengers uses, the study reveal that Arik Air is on the top list with 218 (39.6%), followed by Aero Contractor with 137 (24.9%); and Chanchangi Airlines with 117 (21.3%). Also, other Nigerian airlines used by the passengers (Air Peace, Medview, 1st Nation, and Overland) had 78 (14.2%) as shown in Table 4.

### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nigerian Airlines</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arik Air</td>
<td>218</td>
<td>39.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chanchangi Airlines</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aero Contractor</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>24.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (Air Peace, Medview, 1st Nation, Overland)</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.0 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The analyses of the study shows that majority of the passengers are aware of the existence of mobile location-based services in the market as shown in Table 1 and 2. Further analysis also reveals that they have been using the mobile-location-based applications for averagely between 3-5 years, which seem a good period for evaluation of its
usage in the market. However, the analysis further reveals that some of these passengers are not aware or use the mobile applications for airline and other travel-related services in Nigeria as shown in Table 3. This finding is consistent with the previous studies of Zhang and Rau (2014) who found that location-based social network is one of the social networks in the market but suffers consistent un-acceptance among the consumers, in this context passengers. Also, Chang and Ngai (2013) found that location social media is increasingly popular and has enormous potential for businesses, however, argued that the application or adaption of these mobile location-based services is still relatively low. Also, Chen and Lin (2011) reveal that mobile location-based service is considered as a profitable opportunity for service firms; however, there is a low growth usage in mobile location-based services in the market.

The analysis also shows that there is low usage in relation to business services in Nigeria, particularly for airline services. This implies that passengers' perception towards location-based service application is still limited which can be linked to the philosophy of the theory of planned behaviour which observed that a belief is the cornerstone towards a consumer's attitude on business service usage. Also, limited usage of location-based services for airline and other travel-related services could be attributed to the value added syndrome which passengers hold in high esteem for any business service purchase intention (Ryschka, Tonn, Ha, & Bick, 2014). Cost-benefit analysis is also considered paramount among passengers on use of location-based service. It is only when there is addedvalue to passengers that the use of the location-based service applications will be vehemently embraced (Ryschka, Tonn, Ha, & Bick, 2014).

6.0 CONCLUSION AND MARKETING IMPLICATIONS

The use of location-based service applications would continue to offer closer relationship marketing among customers and businesses in the service industry. This, will therefore, have effects on managerial activities on a business service - Firstly, it would create keen...
competitions on business services. Secondly, it would offer passenger a variety of choices on business services which may lead to switching barriers among business customers. Thirdly, it will offer passengers opportunity on specific mode of service delivery system which should be adhered to by business firms. Lastly, it will cause a price war among businesses, since individual customer will desire to be addressed by its location and its specific needs, therefore, creating a personalized market which can easily be lost due to untimely delivery.

In conclusion, in as much the use of the location-based services will enhance customer-business relationship, it applications to airline services should be done with caution. This is because an individual customer varied in needs in relations to business services available in the consumer market. This study is limited to the Nigerian domestic airline passengers. Therefore, the future study may look into the wider scope of different sector of the transport industry.
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Nigerian Media and the Challenge of Yellow Journalism: A Theoretical Appraisal of Newspaper Contents

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Abstract

Repeated allegations of sensationalism and propaganda, the offspring of ‘Yellow journalism’ as against developmental journalism levied against Nigerian media demands empirical justifications. The allegations which earlier seemed observable, opinionated or hypothetical of the western appraisal of Nigerian media is now having more replications within. Subscribing to such assumption or hypothesis without much consideration of time, issue, news source, and other story-line determinants in relation to the media contents, may be detrimental to the essence of media research. As a result, this paper did a content analysis of what constitute the chunk of newspaper reports in Nigeria within a six-month timeline to empirically confirm or disprove and explain developmental journalism, sensationalism and propaganda, which are frequently used to define the media outputs. The content assessment was used to evaluate media actions and inactions towards development: level of involvement in crises prevention; manner of reporting crisis to allay crisis degeneration; level of involvement in post crises reconstruction, rehabilitation and sustainability; and the roles played in development research (such as adequate coverage of successful government policies, individual and organizational breakthrough; projection of
innovation, useful findings and laudable contributions in all sectors; as well as protection of national security and national interest). Chunks of newspaper reports were found to be sensational and propaganda though not to the level being currently celebrated. Taking the implications of some media-effect theories into cognisance, this study linked the effects of sensationalism and propaganda to public sympathetic and retributive interests in societal issues and the surge in societal vices.

**Key words:** Propaganda, sensationalism, development journalism, newspaper reports,

### 1.0 INTRODUCTION

The task of medical practitioners to diagnose and treat the sick of ailments does not leave out calling public attentions to preventive measures. Emphasising on preventive measure indeed promote rather than endanger the career of medical professionals. That throw weight on the saying "prevention is better than cure" since curing incurs costs and or agony. The analysis could be replicated in media-audience relationship. Any mass medium that cherishes development and is socially responsible to its immediate community dishes out more of information and news analyses that prevent problems before they occur; focuses more on reports that minimize crisis effects on the public; considers analyses of causes and solutions to crises; and preaches post crisis remedies (reconciliation, reconstruction and development). The only way to achieve this is to ensure that journalists write from developmental perspectives by putting the effects of every news story into consideration while reporting the issues.

Being revered to as the trustee of public trust, media is saddled with social responsibilities that promote development. Social responsibility theory, one of the four normative theories of the press (Siebert, Peterson and Schramm, 1956) emphasizes that though the press must

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enjoy freedom to operate, but such freedom should accommodates certain level of obligations and responsibilities as well as internal and external regulations (where required) (Nwabueze, 2012). It is alleged that Nigerian media practitioners take joy more in sensational and propaganda reports as it reflects in their unique selling proposition, ÒIt leads when it bleedsÓ. The allegation is emphasised in the remarks made by the Nigerian Senate President, Bukola Saraki, during World Press Day in May 3, 2017. As the system promotes market-driven media, information is becoming not only commodified but also an instrument for competitive advantage. For instance, when the following sets of headlines are considered, it is a predominant assumption that Set A make better banner headlines on the pages of Nigerian newspapers than Set B.

Set A
i. Fire engulfs ABC Community, kills 70, deforms 50, razes houses
ii. Eighty-seven died, hundreds injured in a religious clash: hospitals reject victims

Set B
i. ABC Community Mount Security Sensitisation on Fire outbreak
ii. Inaugural Lecture: University Don calls for Religious Tolerance, named Injustice the cause of religious crises.

It is also presumed that most readers would jettison newspapers that considered Set B and throw their rapt attentions in those that published Set A, after all, Ògood news is no newsÓ and nothing is unusual when dogs bite men except when it is otherwise. The atmosphere may be similar in some other African countries (Danso & McDonald, 2001) and even in some developed world, where certain interests order than passion for development journalism overrides Òsay it as you see itÓ principle. This aberration to the media normalcy may find solace in the realm of the criteria set for news evaluation, which are not in consonance with social responsibility roles expected

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of the media towards development. Though, the most interesting headlines or news items may sell the news or the newspaper, catch public attention, arouse and sustain audience interests, and boost newspaper patronage and income probably in the short run, they may not represent factual account of such issues reported objectively. Sensationalism and propaganda are offspring of yellow journalism. They occur when mass media misrepresent statistics conjecture and distort facts by blowing issues out of proportion to give room for scaremongers and mavericks leading to irrational shift in public behaviours (Kitzinger, 1999, p. 55). It is considered sensationalism when it satisfies interest within media or media practitioners’ interest either for monetary gain or recognition. But when external influences override professional ethics and in-house principles of the media to produce such a doom-laden scenario with open or hidden agenda to influence public decisions or to trigger public actions, then it tends more towards propaganda (Ransohoff & Ransohoff, 2001).

Ranging from issues of politics and governance, religious differences, ethnic and regional struggles, terrorism and hooliganism, risks and disasters, to other unusual issues that are assumed celebrated in Nigerian media, fingers of foul play are always pointed to the media (Nwabughuogu, 1981). Though, studies (Mullainathan & Shleifer, 2005; Uzuegbunam, 2013) have argued that there is element of sensationalism and propaganda in all information exchange even from time immemorial. This is justified within the realm of natural selection theory exhibited by journalists in their choices of language, words, metaphor, and innuendo to drives meanings and interests. The effect such reports generate in the audience and how the actions and reactions to such influence societal values and development pace, pose a major concern. Ransohoff and Ransohoff (2001) emphasise the effect of sensationalism on public contributions and decisions on policies to advance the bearing-less democracy in the developing world. Such report can generate false hopes and unwarranted fears, deception and denier of accurate account of occurrences, desensitising the public of needed information on issues affecting them, and paves

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way for exploitation of the unwary audience who cannot sieve media reports before consumption.

Sensationalism is also apparent when much of what are considered news worthy and celebrated in the media are economic crises, political disorder, embezzlements, corruption at various levels, killings, intertribal and religious clashes, social unrest, accidents, failure, stagnation, lawlessness, injustice, riots and demonstration, industrial strikes, disease outbreak, thieving and robbery, human trafficking, poverty and hunger, and many more of societal vices (Uzuegbunam, 2013). Pages of newspapers are bloodier of bad stories than the war front. Does it mean that only crises make news or news stories are made only from crises? It raises a grave concern if these are what mass media of the developing nations give preference to and as such present to the audience all over. What ratios of developmental issues make it to the press and how are such presented? Then, if apparent as assumed and could be empirically substantiated, it would sound illogical to be calling for World Information and Communication Order when the house is not in order. Why challenging the so-called developed world of information imbalance and dominance?; why accusing western media of propaganda and media persecution of the developing countries?; why frowning at western cultural infiltration and domination over the indigenous values on international media?; and why crying wolf while the nations are suffering from the perfidy of their own media?

2.0 AUDIENCE AS HARBINGERS OF MEDIA SENSATIONALISM AND PROPAGANDA

The economists believe that what to produce (in a free market economy) is a function of market needs (consumers’ interests). It implies that the quest for information by the media audience and the type of information they celebrate determine the types of news stories that the mass media dish out (Omenka, 2010). Since the media is a part of the system and absolute media freedom only exists in the air, the need to align with political and economic policies of the state is

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not negotiable. Media in the developing countries require certain level of measures to advance national development (Skjerdal, 2011). It should be established that the market structure in which the media operate in the advanced countries differs not in concept but in the consistency of congruent relationship in the market forces, of which the nature of less privileged media consumers cannot absorb. This is partly due to the pulling underdeveloped-causal-factors of the developing countries. Though, both markets require social responsibility of the media in the reportage of issues affecting public peace and interest, developing countries required more of its media roles to be developmental oriented.

It is doubtful if there is generally acceptable empirical model or principle that explains or describes how to practice development journalism. The type of media practice and the development targets of individual country calls for the pattern of development journalism that fits (Xiaoge, 2009). Balit (1996) and Okoro and Nwafor (2013), emphasize that African leaders are conscious of the essence of mass media in national development and as a result have invested and depended on mass media contributions towards the promotion of their policies, which in some cases turn out to be propaganda. This does not subjugate the roles of media to a mere mediator or curtail them from reporting happenings to inform the public. It does not even take the media effect theories and analyses to challenge. Rather, the essence is to monitor and propel the level and trends of such media effects in audience towards meritorious influence.

Many studies have established that mass media, through their reports, make certain influence in audience (Akpan, Eri, & Olofu-Adeoye, 2013; Niederkrotenthaler et al., 2010). Studies also continue to reinforce the media power to influence, which are empirically justifiable at every level of media effect theories, ranging from All-powerful-media through agenda-setting to Framing and Priming. The facts, which most studies also failed to deny is that mass media influence public opinions, affect public attitudes, reinforce public knowledge, and persuade or dissuade public interests, by analysing

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issues, events, candidates, parties, and claims to ensure change in the public decisions and reactions on issues, either positively or negatively (Chiluwa, 2011; Neuman & Guggenheim, 2011). This has been one of the reasons for the justification for media dependency analyses prior its modification and elucidation of audience consumption analyses.

Sensationalism and propaganda cut across all forms of mass media including new and social media. Newspaper sensationalism and exposure to television violence may have similar effect on audience behavioural traits as the latter is also an offshoot of yellow journalism. Therefore, the gap between exposing to television violent programmes/scenes and reading sensationalism stories in newspapers is narrow. And the reactions to both by the media audience have no precise variation except that other external influential factors make the difference (Ojo, 2003). As studies (Anderson et al. (2003); Neely et al., 2013; Phillips, 1982; Wood, Wong, & Chachere, 1991) establish the media violence effect (particularly Television) on the audience, so also sensationalism and propaganda affect the audience perceptions and evaluation of events related to the newspaper stories since every media output stimulate responses from the media audience. The audio-visual characteristic of television, video or motion picture and online media aggravate more the effect of relative behaviour in the audience than those of print journalism as revealed in Adelakun (2013).

In Japan for instance, more than 293 studies conducted on the effect of media reports on suicide confirm that media reports have strong influence on not only the increase in suicide rate in the country but also on other related events and activities such as the sale of suicide-related products (Hagihara & Abe, 2012, p. 245). They emphasized that the effect becomes aggravated when the media reports of suicide are:

a. Romanticizing suicide or idealizing those who take their own lives by portraying suicide as a heroic or romantic act;
b. Reporting suicide methods in detail;

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c. Displaying pictures or detailed descriptions of the profile of a suicide or the location or site of a suicide; and

d. Presenting suicide as the inexplicable act of an otherwise healthy or high achieving person

It is indisputable that media cannot prevent adverse occurrences most especially natural disasters or those beyond human control; the major concern is that media downplay its vital role to influence the causal factors and to lessen the effect on the audience. Newspapers can report unfavourable issues in a way that makes positive impact on the audience without prejudice or violation of journalistic standard. It is a method and path to developmental journalism. How? Application of media-effect theories to burning issues have considerable influence on how the audience digest and act on the issue. Sensationalism sometimes arises from unnecessary emphasis on certain issues to ensure that such issue become a public discuss and arouse public sympathy (Ransohoff & Ransohoff, 2001). Glamorising tragic issues to stimulate revengeful actions in the audience or to prove that some oppressors enjoys immunity or impunity while glamorising their dastardly actions breeds social unrest. Stories are glamorized if:

i. such tragic or iniquities stories are presented as if it is generally acceptable in the society;

ii. the report pronounces the actor or perpetrator hero;

iii. the accompanied photographs induce, deceive and may lure the ignorant audience into such or similar act;

iv. the story aggravates the tendency in the people with similar symptoms to commit the unruly act;

v. negative occurrences are always the lead stories in the newspapers

vi. the story details evil acts such that it teaches those who are susceptible how to do it;

vii. negative story is presented as the last option to achieve certain objectives;

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viii. such or similar negative stories are republished, and the previous similar stories are revered to or cited as references in the newer; and

ix. there is no clear-cut judgment decrying the undesirable act in the story.

The criteria itemised above are used to assess news items in The Punch and The Sun newspapers in order to analyse how do newspaper reports contribute to and affect the public reactions and behaviours in relations to societal growth and development.

3.0 THEORETICAL EXPLANATIONS OF MEDIA SENSATIONALISM AND PROPAGANDA EFFECT

Effort to establish how effective the media effects may open another link to previous discussions and arguments about changing-faces of media-effect theories, which gave birth to agenda-setting, priming, and framing. The concern in this work is how to and how not to apply the theories in order to lessen the undesirable effects and influence of sensational and propaganda reports on media audience. Media-effect theories is central to all media messages because it is about what media does to people rather than what people do with the media messages (Ngoa, 2012). Then, the discussion of current trends as regards the theories will point to area of application that conforms with pattern of reporting issues without prejudices to make laudable effect (whether intended or unintended) in the media audience.

Almost all research findings on media effects right from the era of ‘All-powerful media’ (Bineham, 1988; BratÎ’, 2006) to the current trends of ‘Media-agenda setting, priming and framing’ (Chong & Druckman, 2007; Claes H De Vreese, 2005; McCombs & Shaw, 1993; Dietram A Scheufele, 1999) confirm that media exert certain influence on the audience through its messages. The point of divergence lies in the degree of media influence, the consideration of other influential factors (e.g. opinion leaders), the perception of media audience (whether active or perceive), and many other determinants

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upon which the theories accommodate new perspectives and development. It is pertinent to discuss how the later fashions of media-effect theories address sensationalism and propaganda reports in order to avert the undesirable influence on the audience and the society at large.

3.1 Sensationalism, Propaganda and Agenda-Setting

Right from the time Siebert, Peterson and Schramm came up with the idea of agenda-setting of the media; there have been a lot of criticisms, empirical justifications, modifications and improvement from various scholars. The continuous works on the theory by the scholars are purposive to ensure that agenda-setting idea conforms with and prove right the findings in: related issues of study in media and communication regardless the environment of the studies, classification of audience structure involved, methodological approaches, and the type of media practices under which the studies are carried out. It is believed that agenda-setting is applicable in all issues competing for public attention. Mustapha (2012, p. 106), agrees that members of the public do not only learn about competing issues through the mass media; ëthey are primed to attach differential weights to those issues in response to the media placements, displays and contextualization.ê by injecting its interest or the interest it bade to protect. He argued further that media narrow the attentions of the public to certain issues by laying more emphasis on them at the expense of others to accomplish the agenda.

Coleman, McCombs, Shaw, and Weaver (2009, p. 147), describe agenda-setting as:

êèthe process of the mass media presenting certain issues frequently and prominently with the result that large segments of the public come to perceive those issues as more important than others.

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This description in actual sense makes the theory relevant in addressing the central obligation of the media to manage news towards societal reformation and development. The theory works simple and direct to the course as long as the media is ready to align its philosophy, editorial interest and decision towards making development journalism stories the priority of its audience. There should be no fear of where the public interests lie as earlier raised, the market need determines what to produce. Agenda-setting of the media manipulates audience interest towards what it considers important for the public not only to discuss but also to prioritise and act on.

Mustapha (2012), further agrees that the application of agenda-setting theory cut across various issues. Coleman et al. (2009), also confirm that researchers have adapted the theory to discuss and understand number of issues. But the concern is how many of the social virtues than vices are set as agenda for the public to positively influence the audience thinking and behaviour in the Nigerian newspapers. Then, are sensationalism and propaganda not the accomplishes towards setting agenda. It is a challenge and a new perspective to the unending argument among communication scholars on ‘who set the agenda — the media or the public?’

3.2 Issues Framing, Sensationalism and Propaganda

Media Framing could be regarded as an extended arm of agenda-setting. Dietram A. Scheufele and Tewksbury (2007, p. 10) confirm that the theories are interrelated not only because they are from the same root but also because they are "based on similar premises" and each is born out of what McQuail (2005) regards as paradigm shift in the understanding of media-effect theories. Agenda-setting simply means choosing for the public which the media consider the most important among competing news stories by laying the most emphasis on it such that it becomes the public discuss or agenda. This is a true understanding of what Baran and Davis (2010) consider first-level agenda-setting. On the other hand, media framing could be regarded as the direction to which media perceive or want people to perceive a

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news story by making salient a news angle, based on its judgment of and reference to previous similar occurrences (often driven by editorial interest or ownership philosophy (Yusha, 2011)), which have significant relevance to how the public interpret and react to the entire story. Agenda-setting (first-level) is choosing between stories while framing is choosing within a story, an attribute similar with second-level agenda setting (attribute salient rather than issue salient). Carter (2013), submits "Frames are embedded in culture, inside people's mind, and within the agenda of the media. All frames are subjective interpretation or emphasis of reality. Indeed, Carter submission like many others that see issue framing as a subjective interpretation of reality, has found justifications for and accommodated sensationalism and propaganda as inexorable in every media reports.

Relating the effect and influence of attribute-salience on the public assessment, interpretation, and reactions to what makes media reports enlists framing in this discussion. It doesn't matter, which news story the media set for the public as agenda or what issue the public perceive the most important (public agenda) upon which the media-agenda is set. Framing influences public behaviours by choosing from various attributes of a news story and make one salient in relation to what effect to be triggered in the media audience (Ette, 2012).

The salient attribute that is considered reinforces the aspect of news that the media pay more attention to and as a result dictates which effect is manifested in the media consumers of such news. Claes H. De Vreese, Peter, and Semetko (2001) add that the central core of framing is selection, organisation, and emphasis of certain aspects of reality, to the exclusion of others. The media may find it difficult and unprofessional to kill unpalatable and not-good-for public-taste news items in order not to make sensationalism effect in the public. But the development attribute of the stories could be made salient to lessen the damage such effect of the stories could cause in the development focus of the media. The meaning the media give to a news story based on the angle of the news emphasised tells how the

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media consumers perceive and act on the report (Mustapha, 2012). Framing is in no belittled way a theoretical justification through which the social responsibility of the media towards development could be achieved.

3.3 Issues Priming, Sensationalism and Propaganda

Priming is another product of paradigm-shift in media effect theories. Ju (2006, p. 50) confirms that Framing and priming do not operate independently of each other, even though media effect studies have examined them separately. Intensive coverage of a particular story among competing others (agenda-setting) can set foot for priming, so also continuous emphasis on a particular angle of the story content (issue framing) because it according to Kim, Han, and Scheufele (2010) increase the tendency to recall such issue and use its content to interpret, understand and evaluate new occurrences. Glamorisation of suicide cases in Japan earlier discussed could be attributable to the audience recall and linking every subsequent suicide case with previous. Then, priming becomes an issue when considering sensationalism and propaganda as aberrations to developmental journalism.

Every issue, whether new or known, has antecedents, which are linked to form the bases for the discussion of the issue. This simply means that previous issues have certain effects on the interpretation and understanding of the new occurrences or re-occurring issues (Stevens, Banducci, Karp, & Vowles, 2011). Media reportage of issues takes various dimensions. Old issue may be reported from new angle and often new issue are substantiated and discussed from the perspectives of previous news stories. If the cumulative interpretation of an issue over time tends towards a direction based on the media agenda and issue-framing, subsequent media reports on the same issue will be interpreted in line with the foundation already built (how people are programmed).

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Majority of the earlier studies on media priming of issues were centred on election and politics (Ju, 2006; Kim et al., 2010; Malhotra & Krosnick, 2007; Musa & Ferguson, 2013; Stevens et al., 2011; van der Brug, Semetko, & Valkenburg, 2007) because political issues are predominantly on both the media and public agenda. Such is the reason why in Nigeria and some other developing nations, agenda-setting, issue-framing and priming are instrumental to how people become the bearers of social change and development. If the media agenda are more on development journalism – issues that enhance development, priming effect negotiates for optimism in the public reactions to issues towards development. Rather than embark on sensationalism and propaganda to prick their consciousness of an occurrence, the media can prime issue to orientate public and to subdue the nervousness that could have been awaking without compromising news objectivity.

4.0 ANALYSES OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The coding was manually conducted by the trained coders and the constructs used by the coders to measure the variables were justified until about 98% agreement level was reached among the coders. Then, all the 653 news items were treated under the agreed codes. The coding was used as the basis for the identification and grouping of the news stories in the selected newspapers. Krippendorff’s alpha (α), was used to test, compare, and confirm the inter-coder reliability as well as percentage of inter-coder agreement for the three variables involved. Using Deen Freelon’s inter-coder reliability calculator (ReCal3), the variables have inter-coder reliability coefficients that satisfies the minimum value required (α > 0.7), with a percentage of inter-coder agreement of more than 90% (Freelon, 2013).

News stories, editorials and opinions articles in The Punch and The Sun newspapers were content analyses. Fourteen editions of each of the newspapers were randomly selected from all editions over a period of six month (from September 2015 to February 2016). Three variables and 12 constructs were identified to reveal not only the most
favoured area of focus of the news items but also the pattern of newspaper reports as well as what constitute the structure of each news item. A total of 653 news items constitute the sample for the analyses; 430 from *The Punch* and 223 from *The Sun*.

As earlier discussed, almost all form of information exchange reeks some elements of propaganda, sensationalism, or development journalism. The coders considered a report sensational if sensationalism was the most apparent element. The same criterium was used segregate propaganda and development journalism. Table 1 reveals that at least two out of every five news stories in any of the Nigerian daily newspapers are on political issues. Nigerian newspapers prioritise political issue so much that the probability of having it on the front page of any edition of the newspapers is approximately one. The media agenda are most often in favoured of issues pertaining to politics and governance. It is one of the factors that open the mind of an average Nigerians to politics and increased the interests of many in political participation and analysis. More than half of the political stories are sensational; many of the stories do not only centre on political crises, party rivalries, electoral malpractices, and maladministration among others but also the vices are emphasised and glamorised. This is done to make the stories larger than what they should have appear and with more interest and impact in audience.

Less than 15% out of the 270 stories on politics have development journalism contents, which is far less than what could influence the masses towards political development, while the media focus on the rest political stories are full of propaganda. Religious and socio-cultural/environmental issues account for not less than one-fifth of the stories published in the newspapers. The structure of the reports does not deviate too much from those of politics. About two-third of the 138 news reports on Religious, socio-cultural and environmental issues reek sensationalism. One could have expected that religious reports would be more of propaganda than any other yellow journalism element because of the persuasiveness and soul-winning

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purpose attributed to it. But the assumption was not significantly reflected in the finding as sectionalism took the lead. At least, one-fifth of the stories have their contents full of propaganda, while the few have development journalism contents.
Table 1: **Analyses of news items based on area of focus of newspapers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of news story</th>
<th>Story-line</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developmental Journalism</td>
<td>Propaganda</td>
<td>Sensationalism</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political/Government</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Type of news story</td>
<td>14.8%</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
<td>51.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Story-line</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>56.2%</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
<td>21.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Economics/Business</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>% within Type of news story</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>54.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Story-line</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
<td>9.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socio-cultural/Religious/Environment</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>% within Type of news story</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
<td>20.3%</td>
<td>65.9%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% within Story-line</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
<th>17.4%</th>
<th>17.3%</th>
<th>23.8%</th>
<th>21.1%</th>
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<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>Count</td>
<td></td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
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<td></td>
<td>% within Type of news story</td>
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<td>23.1%</td>
<td>61.5%</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>% within Story-line</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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*Adelakun (2017)*
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*Adelakun (2017)*
Reports on education follow similar trends with political and religious/socio-cultural reports. Education reports were also sensationalised but with low marginal difference with propaganda and development journalism in that order. Minor difference was noticed in the structure of economic/business report. Propaganda was overshadowed by sensationalism and developmental journalism. The competing interests which could have had major influence on the ratio of propaganda element in business reports was not noticed. Despite the entertaining nature of sport report, propaganda and sensationalism element embellish the contents. Propaganda was more noticed than sensationalism.

One of other issues essential and sensitive to media audience is health. It is assumed that media treat the issue much care considering the grave effect the media negligence or prioritised interest on the issue could have on audience. Though, health issue receives the least coverage with just 2.6% of the total news stories reported by the newspapers within the period of the study, much of the reports do not reflect the colour of yellow journalism. Irrespective of the story type, with exception to health and sport/entertainment, the stories contents tend more towards sensationalism and propaganda than development journalism leaving a concern on how such stories would not aggravate the issues reported as audiences are likely to be influenced in accordance with the direction of the stories.

5.0 Conclusion

As emphasised in the studies reviewed herein, social responsibility should be the trail on which the media process its news selection for public agenda as well as news direction for public judgement and reactions. If more development journalism reports are allowed to dominate the pages of Nigerian newspapers, it will in-turn not only change the public view of the country towards right direction but also induce the public support for good. Sensationalism stories could also be reported to make development journalism influence in the public by setting them free of glamorisation in order not to promote such
vices. Focusing on developmental issues will also assist the media to propel its social responsibility agenda so as to upturn not only the audience interests in bad stories but also the accomplished public behaviours. Mass media are also part of the public and society at large; the effect of the atmosphere that the media create with their reports hails or hunts the profession in return. For instance, (Adelakun (2014)) links the Boko Haram attacks on three Nigerian media houses (This Day, The Sun and Moment Newspapers) in April 27, 2012 as one of the effects of the atmosphere that the media created around the time.

Nigerian newspapers must act as agents of national development by pushing up its social responsibility to suppress its market-driven reports. Writing to build must envelope the anomalies even within their jurisdictions. It suggests that media of the developing nations are laying foundation for how the media of developed nations perceive and present the developing countries.

Adelakun (2017)
REFERENCES


Uzuegbunam, C. E. (2013). Sensationalism in the media: The right to sell or the right to tell?


