

EDITORIAL COMMENTS

We are delighted to introduce to you the second issue of our journal for 2016. This edition is a true reflection of the central focus of the journal, in that, it captures articles which address critical existing and emerging issues with policy implications for administration and development. In the first article, Women and Governance in the Nigerian University System, Moti, Ukertor Gabriel examines women involvement in leadership positions in selected Nigerian within a period of five years (2009-2013) and reveals that although obstacles to women involvement in the University decision-making positions still persist, there has been improvement in the involvement of women in University leadership and governance in recent years. Aremu Fatai, Isiaq Atanda and Aluko Opeyemi in their article, Managing Democratic Structures in Africa: The Way Forward, seek to interrogate democracy in Africa and the existing institutions in the face of administrative letdown with the adoption of the afro barometer database round six 2015 in the analysis of level of democracy in four selected states in Africa with selected institutions: the executive, the legislature, the judiciary and the security sector. In the article, Women Educational Empowerment as Panacea for Nation-Building, Abdullahi Muhammad, Lawan Ibrahim and Umar Abubakar x-ray the current educational status of women in Nigeria against the notion that women constitute almost 50% of the country's population but contribute very little in the nation-building, and conclude that despite the current wave of globalisation, women especially in the North are still lagging behind in education due to poverty, religious and socio-cultural beliefs. Samuel Oyedele explores Communication Management for Effective Local Government Administration in Nigeria; arguing that local government administration in Nigeria has not been efficient enough to contribute meaningfully to national development and submits that a major factor influencing the efficiency and effectiveness of local governments in Nigeria is organizational communication which, if effectively carried out, will ensure greater efficiency and development in local government administration. In the article, Evaluation of Planning Strategies for Development Administration in Nigeria, Alabi Abdullahi, Ameen Abdullateef and Arinze Okpala seek to know why efforts made by both military and civilian governments to achieve national development in Nigeria since 1960 have yielded little or no results. They conclude that lack of political will, corruption, lack of data bank, insufficient machinery and technology were responsible for failure of development programmes in the country. Osezua Ehiyamen, and Nkogbu, Godfrey Oshilim in their article, Managing Changes in Organizational External Environment: The Role of Human Resource Managers contends that, given the fast pace of changes in the external environment facing organizations, human resource managers must keep with the pace if they are to succeed and remain relevant. The paper concluded that changes are inevitable in organizations and the human resource management field is not exempted from such changes. Olaniyan, Samson Olajide examines Governance and Food Security in Nigeria between 1996 and 2014 using Principal Component Analysis and Generalized Method of Moments. The result showed that governance has a positive and significant relationship with food security and agricultural production in Nigeria. The study concluded by emphasizing the importance of management and governance in Nigeria in order to achieve food security and high agricultural production. In the article, E-Government in Nigeria: Progress and Prospects, Abdulkareem Abdulrazaq, and Ishola Abdulrasaq investigate the level of progress and the drawbacks that have inhibited the fast development of E-Government in Nigeria after sixteen years of introduction in the country, and conclude that performance has been a mix of failure and success over the period. Lastly, Ebenezer Ejalonibu Lawal and Opeyemi Idowu Aluko in their article, Election Management and Democratisation Process in Nigeria's Fourth Republic, adopt the system and decision making theories in analysing the extent of stability in the polity at post election years, and conclude that good governance and the use of constitutional provisions are instrumental in resolving electoral disputes.

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WOMEN AND GOVERNANCE IN THE NIGERIAN UNIVERSITY SYSTEM

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Abstract

The issue of women's participation in all spheres of life has become a major developmental concern world-wide. Over the years in Nigeria, it has been observed that female academics are not significantly involved in decision-making positions in Nigerian Universities. Among the reasons for the inadequate involvement are: social-cultural belief that women cannot be as efficient and effective as men; gender discrimination and social stereotypes; lack of encouragement and support among women; belief that domestic functions always affect women's efficiency when involved in leadership or governance-balancing family life and public life. It is within this context that the paper investigates women involvement in leadership positions in selected Nigerian Universities, examines obstacles to women involvement in the University decision-making positions. The study covers a period of five years (2009-2013). Although the study confirms that the obstacles noted above still persist, it reveals that there has been improvement in the involvement of women in University leadership and governance in recent years. This is attributed to the increasing number of qualified women who can hold such positions and the equally increasing number of women academics who are willing to present themselves for such positions even if it is elective.

Keywords: Academics, Governance, Leadership, Marginalisation, University Governance, Women's Participation.

Introduction

The subject of women's participation in development has gained attention globally since the Beijing Conference on women in 1995 which articulated issues concerning societal processes like leadership and governance and at the same time reducing their oppression and handicaps. This conference and preceding ones like 'the First World Conference on Women in Mexico in 1975', the 'Second World Conference on Women in Denmark in 1980' and the 'World Summit for Social Development in Denmark in 1995', among others, brought to the fore, the issue of gender equality and rights (Gyimah & Thompson, 2008). Since then most international women's conferences have stressed the importance of women assuming positions of power and influence not only because of their views and talents but also as a matter of their human right.

Women in Government in the modern era are under-represented in most countries worldwide, in contrast to men. However, women are increasingly being politically elected to be heads of state and government. More than 20 countries have had a woman holding office as the head of a national government, and the global participation rate of women in national-level parliaments was nearly 20% by 2005 (World Bank, 2005). Currently, the rate is 29% (Women in National Parliaments, 2013). A

number of countries are exploring measures that may increase women's participation in government at all levels, from the local to the national.

Despite all these efforts and concern by international bodies and governments, women still remain greatly disadvantaged and grossly under-represented in many spheres of life in several countries. In Africa, the situation on women's participation in leadership offers little improvement. The general belief behind this situation is that women are generally seen in some African countries as being inferior to men and as such not in a position to efficiently and effectively compete with men for leadership and decision-making positions. This stereotyping of women may not be limited to African society alone. According to Okoye (1997), the 'inferiorisation' of women has been so entrenched and institutionalised that the enormous concern with the plight of women has not been able to easily dislodge it.

It is in this context of continued marginalization of women in our society that this paper situates its discussion with specific focus on the Nigerian University system. Over the years in Nigeria, it has been observed that female academics are not significantly involved in decision-making positions in Nigerian Universities (Ojiakor, 2007). The paper investigates women involvement in leadership positions in selected Nigerian Universities; it examines obstacles to women involvement in the

University decision-making positions, and proffers strategies for empowering women for University leadership and governance.

These objectives are based on the position that:

1. Women in academia have a substantive role to play in the change process, management and decision-making in institutions of higher learning;
2. Women have potential and ability which can be translated into effective leadership;
3. Developing and enhancing women leadership roles in institutions of higher learning requires a systemic plan, strategy and process that is driven by women in the academy.

Women in Academic Leadership Positions

While representation of women at higher professorial ranks is disappointing, women are even more scarce on the administrative career ladder. Relatively few women advance to top academic leadership positions such as dean, provost, president or chancellor. An exception is in traditionally female fields such as nursing and education (Dugger, 2001a), yet many social science and professional fields have shown substantial gender desegregation and an increasing supply of women for these positions. Where women are in top positions, it is typically in smaller, less prestigious schools. With women over-represented at instructor/lecturer ranks and less likely (controlling for experience, publications, and educational attainment) and taking longer to reach the associate and full professor ranks (Dugger, 2001b) which generally are tapped for leadership positions, the small number of women administrators is yet another piece of the problem. A multitude of practices impact women's advancement through either the professorial or administrative ranks. Many barriers are embedded in the gendered organization, including the so called "second shift" where women juggle home and professional responsibilities, compounded by "the coincidence of the biological clock and the tenure clock" and the "invisible job of greater academic service roles" (Martin, 1994).

There also is the "hidden curriculum" where women learn to assimilate into the male culture by downplaying their attributes (Thomas et al., 2004). In addition, there the Catch-22 of less prevalent but apparently more necessary (women are required to prove themselves more extensively than men in order

to advance) developmental experiences and informal networks to draw upon (Oakley, 2000). Adding the gender bias in selection, evaluation, and promotion processes, it is indeed an arduous trek to the advanced positions. Then, the chilly climate becomes even "colder at the top" (Sandler, 1986) as the few women do not neatly fit into male styles and cliques, and become more isolated yet increasingly visible for scrutiny. Solo status—being the only representative of a social category in another wise homogenous group—exacerbates effects of stereotyping and isolation, with negative impacts on evaluation and performance (Thompson & Sekaquaptewa, 2002). Often accompanying solo status, perceptions of tokenism (advancement based on social category rather than competence) diminish respect and increase pressure for women in top positions (Craig & Feasel, 1998).

A critical mass of 35–40% of non-dominant group members in leadership positions is thought necessary to overcome the stigma associated with tokenism (Karsten, 1994). Research has also found that workplaces with at least 35% women are better working environments for women (Collins, 1998; Tolbert et al., 1995) as the detrimental effects of solo status are removed. This is quite opposite the common practice of advancing mainly the "star" women who demonstrate achievement far surpassing both female and male colleagues. Attaining a critical mass of women in the leadership structure is especially important to position an institution for change. The observation that "few women want to go to places where few women are" (Steffen-Fluhr, 2006) describes a self-reinforcing cycle requiring bold organizational actions to interrupt.

It is logical to presume that greater numbers of women in the administrative hierarchy can jump start an organization's change process by facilitating advancement of women through the ranks. Their personal experience with pragmatic work policy obstacles and inherent understanding of subterranean barriers faced by women provide insight which, combined with levers of authority in their positions, can be instrumental to improve recruitment, retention, and promotion of female faculty. Ultimately necessary but immensely time consuming efforts to shift institutional culture away from that of the gendered organization need not fully play out (for decades) before meaningful change can begin. In fact, having more women in formal leadership positions actually models the desired

culture change in a conspicuous and powerful way, while opening valuable networking opportunities for both women and men to experience a new outlook. Rather than relying on familiar tactics adding more women at the front end of the academic process and encouraging them through the career maze, we believe a demonstrated commitment and proactive approach that increases women in academic leadership positions will speed progress of women toward fuller participation in the professorial ranks.

Challenges Faced by Women in Governance

Women face numerous obstacles in achieving representation in governance (UNICEF, 2006). Their participation has been limited by the assumption that women's proper sphere is the "private" sphere. Whereas the "public" domain is one of political authority and contestation, the "private" realm is associated with the family and the home (Basu et al., 2003). By relegating women to the private sphere, their ability to enter the political and leadership arena is curtailed.

Gender inequality within families, lack of family support, inequitable division of labour within households, and cultural attitudes about gender roles further subjugate women and serve to limit their representation in public life (UNICEF, 2006). Societies that are highly patriarchal often have local power structures that make it difficult for women to combat (UNRISD, 2005). Thus, their interests are often not represented.

In politics, even once elected, women tend to hold lesser valued cabinet ministries or similar positions (Basu et al., 2003). These are described as "soft industries" and include health, education, and welfare. Rarely do women hold executive decision-making authority in more powerful domains or those that are associated with traditional notions of masculinity (such as finance and the military). Typically, the more powerful the institution, the less likely it is that women's interests will be represented. Additionally, in more autocratic nations, women are less likely to have their interests represented (UNRISD, 2005). Many women attain political standing due to kinship ties, as they have male family members who are involved in politics (Ibid). These women tend to be from higher income, higher status families and thus may not be as focused on the issues faced by lower income families.

Additionally, women face challenges in that their private lives seem to be focused on more than their political and governance careers. For instance, fashion choices are often picked apart by the media, and in this women rarely win, either they show too much skin or too little, they either look too feminine or too masculine. Bashevkin (2009) notes that their romantic lives are a subject of much interest to the general population, perhaps more so than their stances on different issues. She points out that those who "appear to be sexually active outside a monogamous heterosexual marriage run into particular difficulties, since they tend to be portrayed as vexatious vixens", who are more, interested in their romantic lives than in their public responsibilities. If they are married and have children, then it becomes a question of how do they balance their work life with taking care of their children, something that a male politician or leader would not be asked about (Ibid).

Methodology

The study used cluster random sampling technique to select four Universities from each of the six geopolitical zones of Nigeria (Nigeria is divided into six geopolitical zones of North-West, North-East, North-Central, South-West, South-South and South-East, each with a cluster of Universities), a total of 35 universities. It covers a period of five years (2009–2013). The study made use of both primary and secondary data. In terms of secondary data, relevant information was extracted from the Academic Planning Units, and Registrar's Offices of the selected Universities as well as the Academic Department of the National Universities' Commission–NUC (the regulatory agency of the Nigerian University system) and websites. Questionnaire and key informants were employed to gather data from respondents in the selected Universities relating to the obstacles to women involvement in University leadership and governance.

The study limited itself to membership of the following governance structures in the University system: Heads of Departments; Deans of Faculties; University Senate; Governing Councils and Vice Chancellors.

Population

The Nigerian University system has 142 Universities owned by the Federal and State governments as well as individuals, communities and religious organizations. Using purposive sampling the researcher selected one University from each of the

six geopolitical zones of Nigeria, making it five Universities from each of the six geographical zones, a total of 35 Universities. A questionnaire was administered on 60 key female informants purposively selected, who were Heads of Departments, Deans of Faculties, members of University Senate and Governing Councils.

Data Analysis

The data collected are presented in tables zone by zone and analysed using percentages. Obstacles to women involvement in University leadership and governance are assessed by a Likert scale/summated rating.

Study Results

Level of Participation of Women and men in University Governance in South-West Nigerian Universities

The data collected show a low level of women participation in all the governance structures studied (see Table 1 below). Women constituted 21.80

percent of the total number of Heads of Departments from 2009–2013. In the same period, the men constituted 78.20 percent of the total number of Heads of Departments. A total of 81.25 percent of Deans of Faculties within this period were men. Women constituted only 17.75 percent of the total number of Deans. In the Senate of the Universities where academic matters and policies are handled, women constituted as low as only 9.62 percent of the membership of the Senate. An overwhelming 90.38 percent were men. 81.75 percent of men were members of the Governing Councils of the Universities, while women constituted only 18.25 percent of the membership of the Governing Councils. All the five Vice Chancellors of the Universities were men.

Table 1: Membership of University Governance Structures (South-West Zone Universities)

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
HODS	70	21	75	17	81	20	80	22	78	27
DEANS	60	08	62	10	60	13	57	17	60	21
SENATE	198	35	300	32	392	36	407	42	546	51
COUNCIL	62	12	60	10	65	11	60	14	62	17
VC	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0

Source: Academic Planning Units, Office of Registrars of the Universities, Academic Units of NUC (2009–2013)

Key: HODS–Heads of Departments
VC–Vice Chancellor
M–Male
F–Female

Data collected from Universities in the South-South zone also indicate a low participation of women in University governance. 15.79 percent of women are Heads of Departments, 11.63 percent are Deans, and 27.25 percent constitute members of University Governing Councils. Only 8.93 percent are members of the Senate of the Universities (see Table 2 below).

Level of Participation of Women and men in University Governance in South-South Nigerian Universities

Table 2: Membership of University Governance Structures (South-South Zone Universities)

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
HODS	65	10	72	14	80	17	85	15	98	29
DEANS	30	03	42	08	60	07	47	05	49	07
SENATE	240	20	260	35	365	38	398	36	471	41
COUNCIL	53	14	47	17	52	23	58	21	57	25
VC	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0

Source: Academic Planning Units, Office of Registrars of the Universities, Academic Units of NUC (2009–2013)

Key: HODS-Heads of Departments
 VC-Vice Chancellor
 M-Male
 F-Female

Level of Participation of Women and Men in University Governance in South-East Nigerian Universities In the South-East Universities, 18.34 percent women hold positions as Heads of Departments, 22.94 percent are Deans, and 12.23 percent are members of the Senate, while 12.96 percent are members of the Governing Councils of the Universities (see Table 3 below).

Table 3: Membership of University Governance Structures (South-East Zone Universities)

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
HODS	60	15	62	13	60	15	66	25	61	24
DEANS	51	10	55	08	48	11	60	15	62	18
SENATE	200	23	221	25	250	36	278	47	321	46
COUNCIL	50	05	53	03	60	10	58	09	61	15
VC	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0

Source: Academic Planning Units, Office of Registrars of the Universities, Academic Units of NUC (2009–2013)

Key: HODS-Heads of Departments
 VC-Vice Chancellor
 M-Male
 F-Female

Level of Participation of Women and Men in University Governance in North-Central Nigerian Universities

Data from Universities in the North-Central zone (table 4) show that 22.31 percent of Heads of Departments are women, 17.67 percent of Deans of Faculties are women, 17.81 percent Governing Council members are women, and only 7.92 percent of Senate members are women. One of the Vice Chancellors in the North-Central is a woman.

Table 4: Membership of University Governance Structures (North-Central Zone Universities)

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
HODS	62	15	58	12	60	15	61	20	62	25
DEANS	40	05	39	05	42	10	50	12	48	15
SENATE	210	20	297	21	315	28	420	35	502	46
COUNCIL	40	05	43	08	45	10	48	09	41	15
VC	5	0	5	0	4	1	4	1	4	1

Source: Academic Planning Units, Office of Registrars of the Universities, Academic Units of NUC (2009–2013)

Key: HODS-Heads of Departments
 VC-Vice Chancellor
 M-Male

F-Female

Level of Participation of Women and Men in University Governance in North-East Nigerian Universities

Data collected from Universities in the North-East zone show that 12.64 percent were Heads of Departments, and 10.40 percent were Deans of Faculties. 15.35 percent constituted the membership of Governing Councils, while only 5.08 percent were members of the Senate of the Universities. All the Vice Chancellors were men (see Table 5 below).

Table 5: Membership of University Governance Structures (North-East Zone Universities)

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
HODS	40	02	42	05	50	03	51	06	52	08
DEANS	30	01	31	05	35	04	40	04	45	07
SENATE	120	05	118	12	225	10	220	07	252	16
COUNCIL	38	05	43	08	40	07	44	09	50	10
VC	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0

Source: Academic Planning Units, Office of Registrars of the Universities, Academic Units of NUC (2009–2013)

Key: HODS-Heads of Departments
 VC-Vice Chancellor
 M-Male
 F-Female

Level of Participation of Women and men in University Governance in North-West Nigerian Universities

In the North-West Universities, data available show that 15.56 percent of women were Heads of Departments, 17.52percent were Deans of Faculties. Only 9.23 percent were members of the Senate of the Universities, while 14.81 percent were members of the Governing Councils (Table 6 below).

Table 6: Membership of University Governance Structures (North-West Zone Universities)

	2009		2010		2011		2012		2013	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
HODS	30	02	40	05	45	08	50	10	52	15
DEANS	25	03	28	05	35	07	40	10	45	12
SENATE	130	08	158	13	175	20	200	22	222	27
COUNCIL	40	05	43	05	50	10	61	10	65	15
VC	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0

Source: Academic Planning Units, Office of Registrars of the Universities, Academic Units of NUC (2009–2013)

Key: HODS-Heads of Department
 VC-Vice Chancellor; M-Male
 F-Female

Obstacles to Women Participation in University Governance

Data collected through a Questionnaire administered on sixty women who were Heads of Departments, Deans of Faculties, members of University Senate, Governing Councils and Professors in the selected Universities revealed that Women Multiple Roles weighted first (4.17) as the most severe obstacle to women participation in University Governance. This is followed by Discriminatory tendencies (4.08), Academic qualification (3.42) and Attitude of Women (3.17). The weighted scores of these obstacles are indicated Table 7 below.

Table 7: Obstacles to Women Participation in University Governance

Obstacles	Scale of Obstacles by Respondents					Weighted Score
	Very Severe (5)	Severe (4)	Moderate (3)	Not Severe (2)	Poor (1)	
Academic Qualification	15	10	20	15	—	3.42
Discriminatory Tendencies	30	15	5	10	—	4.08
—	35	10	5	10	—	4.17
Attitude of Women	15	15	5	15	10	3.17

Source: Field Survey, August 2013

Discussion

Spread of Women and Men in University Governance Positions

The spread shows that men are dominant in all decision-making/leadership positions. Women are not significantly represented in all the various leadership positions in the Nigerian universities. However, considering that there are more male academics in the Nigerian University system, the inequality in representation of women in governance of the University system may not be alarming. Generally, it can be observed that there has been improvement in the involvement of women in University leadership and governance over the years. This can be attributed to the increasing number of qualified women who can hold such positions and the equally increasing number of women academics who are willing to present themselves for such positions even if it is elective.

Obstacles to Women Participation

Women's Multiple Roles: Women generally find themselves playing many roles as workers in the offices, as wives and as mothers. They are expected

to take care of their respective families and be effective and efficient in the office place. With this, most women say they have little or no time for themselves. Those of them in governance positions find it very difficult to cope with the expectations especially in their places of work. Thus, family responsibilities/traditional gender roles and expectations/burden of responsibilities in the home become severe constraining factors to women participation in University governance and public life generally. Women agree that a life of the female public decision-maker is dominated by constant time pressures, stress and, in some cases, feelings of guilt. Much of the stress has to do with a battle of priorities between career and family. Men use this as an excuse for not appointing women to positions of responsibility.

Discriminatory Tendencies: Men always face severe difficulties when they consider the possibilities of women gaining positions of influence. They harbour the inevitable fear that this will make them (men) fall from the culturally exalted superior stature they have exploited for so long. This is clear where positions of heads of departments are by appointment. The Vice Chancellors (almost all are men) favour men more than women. This is reflected in tables 1-6 above.

Existing stereotypes about women's roles in society and the discrimination that can come out of them are obstacles women face.

Academic Qualification: For one to be qualified to be in decision-making position in the Nigerian University system, he/she must be within the grade of Lecturer 1 and Professor. From data available (NUC, 2013), the number of women within this grade is minimal compared to that of men. To be highly educated helps women to have the skills and the knowledge required to get to the senior levels and aspire for governance positions. The fact that few women are within the grades of Lecturer 1 and Professor does not however mean women are not as intelligent as their men counterpart.

Attitude of Women: Many women in the Universities have responded to under representation by not being interested in these positions any longer. Some believe it is a men's world. Rather than confront the situation that subordinates them, they adopt the idea that those positions are meant for men. Linked to the lack of support and traditional views of the female role, most women have low expectations of themselves and the wider cultural order. Some have few interests and aspirations outside the job and family.

Conclusion

In the Nigerian University system, men have always felt that University governance/leadership belongs to them and that women should be involved minimally. This is reflected in the data gathered on the distribution of men/women in the governance structures. There is generally low level of women participation in all governance structures in the University system. This is largely due to a number of factors such as women's multiple roles, discriminatory tendencies and women's attitude to themselves. Consequently, strategies for empowering women towards significant involvement in University governance have been proffered. This will give women a sense of belonging in the Nigerian University system and will also reverse the masculinist perspective in governance/decision-making and ensure equality, development and peace.

Recommendations

To enable more women get involved in University governance, the following strategies are suggested:

1. University women should be at the forefront to fight any unjust and discriminatory tendencies. They must come together as a group and press for equal access to full participation in the decision-making /leadership positions in the Nigerian University system. In this respect, the National Association of Women Academics (NAWACS) and University Women Association (UWA) should network with International Women Movements in Academics towards improving their empowerment.
2. Women should develop interest and consciousness towards occupying any leadership/governance position in the University. They should aspire to attain academic qualifications that will qualify them to be involved in decision-making bodies in the University system.
3. Nigeria's Affirmative Action policy of giving 35 percent of appointive positions to women should be implemented in the Nigerian University system.
4. Women also need positive role models (mentoring) and supportive families, assertiveness, self-confidence and determination as key elements that can help them get into University governance.

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MANAGING DEMOCRATIC STRUCTURES IN AFRICA: THE WAY FORWARD

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Abstract

The principle of democratic practice has never been alien to Africa even before the advent of colonialism. The name democratic practice presumes all manners of checks and balances. The advent of colonialism reshaped the traditional system of government (TSG), which is democratic in principle, so as to conform to the styles of colonial administration. At the demise of colonialism in Africa, the TSG powers had been reduced to mere peasantry and pedantry. Consequently, after independence, new order of government emerged which took to autocratic rule. Interestingly, the colonialist reintroduced the form of TSG back to Africa in an advanced system called Liberal Democracy. Therefore, this paper seeks to interrogate democracy in Africa and the existing institutions in the face of administrative letdown. The methodology adopted the afro barometer database round six, 2015 to analyse the level of democracy in four selected states in Africa with selected institutions; the executive, the legislature, the judiciary and the security sector. The democratic peace theory is used to reach a conclusion regarding failed democracy or institutions. This paper recommends an institutionalised democracy with integration of the principles of Africa TSG.

Keywords: Democracy, Colonialism, Democratic Peace, Development.

Introduction

Democracy is a system of governance which has a multi-dimensional outlook. The classical origin zoned to the Greek city states is popular among democracy scholars while the traditional origin claimed in this paper which is Africa is not contestable either. Democracy is a current world arrangement of governance while other forms are seen as bad and the states practicing such are seen as anathema. No doubt, the forms of democracy vary from one part of the world to the other. The kind of democracy in Africa has a twist in taste and variation in angle to that of the Europeans and the Americans. However the basic principles and objectives of democratic practice have never been alien to Africa even as far back as the pre colonial era.

The traditional Africa community leaders had been leading the community members in the most

collective and adequate participatory level. The members of the community have adequate control over their leaders which in some cases might assume office via ancestral lineage or rotational basis. The rotational basis will be subject to the approval or knowledge of the community members. In some cases, the community chiefs on behalf of the community members vote for the next community leader. This shows that some basic principles of democracy in practice are indigenous to Africa Traditional governance.

Ever before the commencement of colonialism in Africa, which entails a forceful scrambling and partitioning of kingdoms, there was a form of community based acceptable system of government which is democratic in outlook. The traditional system of government (TSG) has principles of governance and administration domicile and

institutionalized in the community blood stream of comportment and minimum acceptable behaviours. The name the system of government might be primitive and in most cases nameless to the non-members of the traditional African community who then felt that there should be more improvement. The system was traditional in nature no doubt, and it was filled with all manners of checks and balances where the council of chiefs can checkmate the paramount ruler when he is going out of the written or unwritten code of conducts of the community (Mazrui 2002; Oyekan, 2009).

There were institutions from all arms of government which work with the principles of separation of powers. This ranges from the executives who are headed by the paramount ruler to the legislature which composed of the council of chiefs and the judiciary which is highly in the custody of the traditional priest, the paramount ruler and or the community (spiritual) custodians (Aremu et al., 2015). The delegation of powers to institutions and oversight function exists with great caution from the leaders so as to prevent a breakdown of law and order in the community (Venter, 2003).

The advent of colonialism about six decades ago reshaped the traditional system of government (TSG) in Africa to conform to the styles of colonial administration. The colonial administrators however knows that they were not forming an entirely new community but just to adopt their homeland administrative system to the new found land in order to have a smooth running of their forceful colonial government (Janda & Goldman 1995; Falaiye, 1998; Olaniran & Arigu, 2013). This is not totally strange practice to man as every man will like to adapt to the weather condition of a new place by creating his own conveniences (Faboyede, 2013; Ajayi & Buhari, 2014). Forceful persuasions were used to integrate a new order of colonial totalitarian government against a democratic traditional order inherent in the Africa system of government.

At the demise of colonialism in Africa, the TSG democratic powers had been reduced to mere peasantry and pedantry. The traditional rulers had been exposed by the colonial leaders to the trade of divide and rule and assimilation policies just to secure their consents of destroying the original system of government (Ndege, 2009; Alemazung, 2010; Ziltener & Künzler, 2013). Consequently, after independence, new order of government emerged which took to autocratic rule. The old order of traditional system of government had been manipulated and reshaped into the totalitarian

structure of the new order of colonial rule (Aremu et al., 2015).

As a result, crime to humanity pervaded the entire system as rule of law of the old order had been laid in silence and the rate of power greed of the few traditionalists loyal to the ex-colonial rulers mounted the tension in the lawless authoritarian regimes later formed. This new development heightened the concern of the ex-colonial rulers knowing that the evils of colonialism will escalate to their homeland and negatively affect the network of international system. This made the ex-colonial leaders to feedback with the re-introduction of the old practice of governance which they met as traditional system to the native land but with a new name (democracy), coats and technical advancements.

Interestingly, the colonialist reintroduced the form of TSG back to Africa in an advanced way called Democracy. Therefore, this work seeks to interrogate democracy in Africa and the existing institutions in the face of governance failure. What is the present understanding of democracy in Africa, its level of satisfaction and to what extent is it institutionalised back in the various countries considering the executive (police) and the judiciary (court) institutions? Also, to what extent is it institutionalised in the various countries considered?

The methodology adopted was the afro barometer database round six, 2015 to see the level of democracy in four selected states in Africa which include: Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya and Zimbabwe with their selected institutions—the executive, the legislature, the judiciary and the security sector. The democratic peace theory was used to reach a conclusion regarding fail—democracy or institutions. This work concludes on the premise that the TSG and the new democracy have the same underling foundational principles. It therefore recommends an institutionalised democracy with integration of the principles of Africa Traditional System of Government (TSG).

Conceptual Clarification

The whole essence of clarifying concepts is to put in some iota of strength into the meaning of the concepts in question. The following concepts will be clarified in this section of the work; Traditional System of Government, Democracy and Institutional Democracy. Traditional System of Government is the domicile system of administration found primarily in a native or homeland community or society before any modernity comes to reshape it (Aremu et al., 2015). This means that the original

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way of administering justice and executing laws in a land prior to the development of newly adopted systems of government. This further justifies the fact that a domicile system of governance or rule in a new land is traditional to it be it in Europe, America or in Africa.

Democracy is a system of government which is characterized by the participation of the people through their freely elected representatives, by which the recognition and promotion of the basic rights of citizens, including the rights of vulnerable groups such as the minorities (Omotola 2008; Campbell, 2008). This implies that so far there is a participation of people in the administrative process of governance and their rights are guaranteed then the system of governance is democratic. To Lively (1975), democracy is a mechanism by which the political system maintains its equilibrium. Dahl (2000) also pointed out two dimensions of democracy that, democracy in theory (as an ideal, goal, aim or standard) and in practices. This includes the traditional system of government practice in Africa. This takes us to the concept of Institutional Democracy. This is the practice of democracy as an integral part of the society. It is the reality of democracy in the administrative process of enacting laws, implementing laws and adjudicating processes in the community (Coppedge et al., 2011). The whole framework of democracy is seen in the whole organ or governance and not on the paper works alone. In other words, democracy is simply institutionalised when the people practicing it sees it as a binding norms and practice of their day to day activities. This feature is a typical traditional system of governance principles found in Africa, America and Europe.

**Theoretical framework
Democratic Peace Theory (DPT)**

The democratic peace theory (DPT) is used in this work so as to see the extent of violence acceptable in the democratic regime against the constituted rule of law of the state. The primary claim of democratic peace theory proponents is that democratic states do not wage war against each other, although a number of scholars have modified the claim to the proposition that “democracies are less likely to fight wars with each other” (Lake, 1992). A general explanations of the democratic peace theory assumptions fall into one or a blend of the three main summaries which include; Democratic institutions make makes democratic leaders reluctant to choose war or place constraints on the ability of leaders to fight other democracies. Also the norms

shared by democratic states cause them to view each other as friends and unthreatening to one another. Finally, democracy tends to foster economic interdependence, which promotes peace and reduces the likelihood of war.

Szayna et al (2001) noted that there are a number of approaches in the study of DPT. The various approaches of democratic peace theory are important to the understanding of the theory. These include; the Institutional Approach, the Normative Approach and the Interdependence Approach.

The Institutional view of DPT is that democratic institutions are believed to cause peace in one of two ways. The most common argument is that the constitutional and legal restraints on executive action in democratic states as well as the existence of free public debate are a strong force against peace for several reasons (Owen, 1994). Bueno de Mesquita et al (1999) position on institutional approach focuses on the desire of democratic elites to be re-elected. Democratic leaders are primarily concerned about retaining office, and they are especially concerned about policy failure, they therefore fight harder and are more cautious. They try harder to win warfare by spending more resources, and they only engage in fights they think they can winning.

The normative approach to DPT believes that other democracies are reasonable, predictable, and trustworthy; therefore, they will be reluctant to fight other democracies because they think that other democracies' intentions will always be good. Interdependence arguments of DPT believes that Democratic states have free-market economies in terms of movement of goods and services and they are better able to offer credible commitments regarding the terms of trade and capital flows therefore they are more inclined to trade with one another than autocratic regimes (Oneal & Russett, 1997). Interdependence promotes peace and harmony by increasing contacts among various democracies and contributing to mutual and collective understanding.

Methodology

The methodology adopted uncovers the perceptions of people in Nigeria, Tanzania, Kenya and Zimbabwe to the democratic administration. Therefore, this study seeks to interrogate democracy in Africa and the existing institutions in the face of governance failure. The questions marshalled to this effect include; what is the present understanding of democracy in Africa? What is it level of satisfaction and to what extent is it institutionalised in the various

countries considering the executive (police) and the judiciary (court) institutions. The data obtained in Afro barometer database round six, 2015 research is interrogated, analysed and used to see the level of democracy in four selected states in Africa with selected institutions; the executive, the judiciary and

the security sector. The data are further validated, analysed and interpreted.

The total sample size is two-thousand four hundred (2,400) participants across the countries each. The sample selection technique is simple proportionate purposive random sampling. Simple percentage,

Analysis of Findings

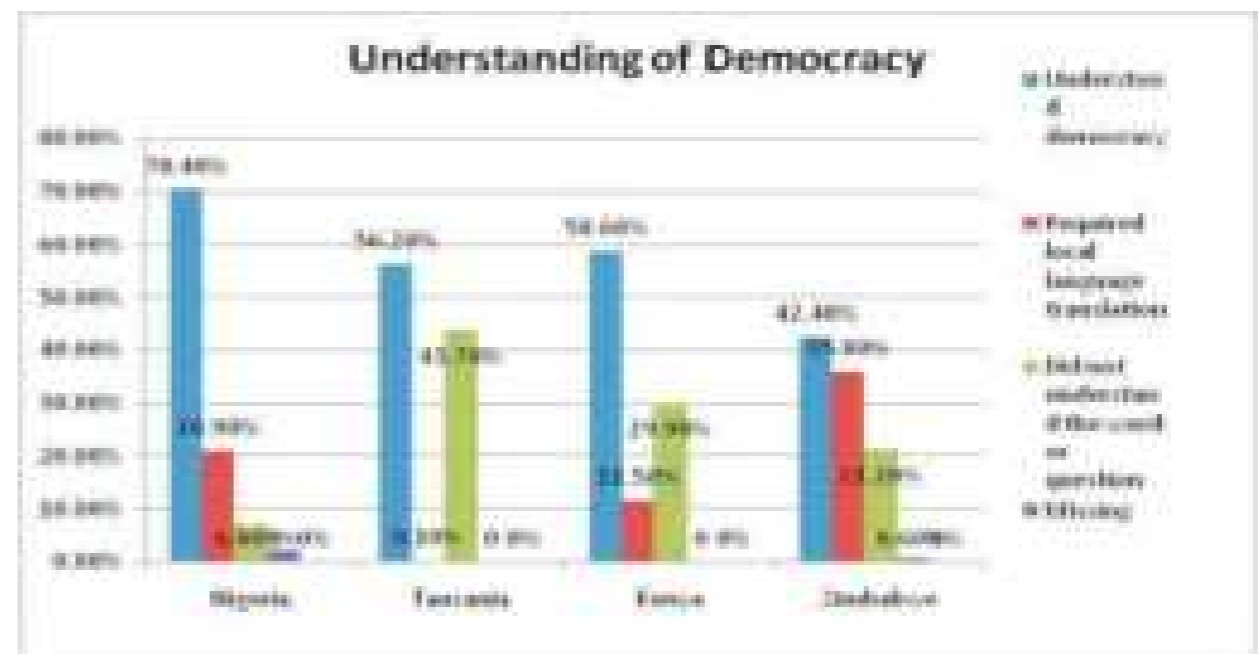
1. Understanding of Democracy

Table I

Level of Analysis	Nigeria	Tanzania	Kenya	Zimbabwe
Understood democracy	70.4	56.2	58.6	42.4
Required local language translation	20.9	0.1	11.5	35.8
Did not understand the word or question	6.8	43.7	29.9	21.2
Missing				0.6

Sources: Afrobarometer Round Six 2015

Figure I



The level of understanding of democracy is above fifty percent (50%) in Africa which is significantly high. This is seen in the four considered countries in Africa except Zimbabwe which has forty-two percent (42%) level of democracy understanding. The level of understanding is very significant in Nigeria which is seventy percent (70%). This shows that democracy is not alien to Africa from the foundational angle.

However, the percent of people in Zimbabwe and Kenya that do not understand the word democracy is somewhat low as twenty-one percent (21%) and

thirty percent (30%) respectively of the citizenry falls into this category. The percentage that does not understand the word democracy is significantly low in Nigeria as seven percent (7%) of the populace falls into this level. The level is significantly high in Tanzania as forty-four percent (44%) of the populace do not understand the meaning of democracy. The limited percentage of poor understanding of what democracy is in this regard is an indication of the level of failed institution of administration in the respective countries.

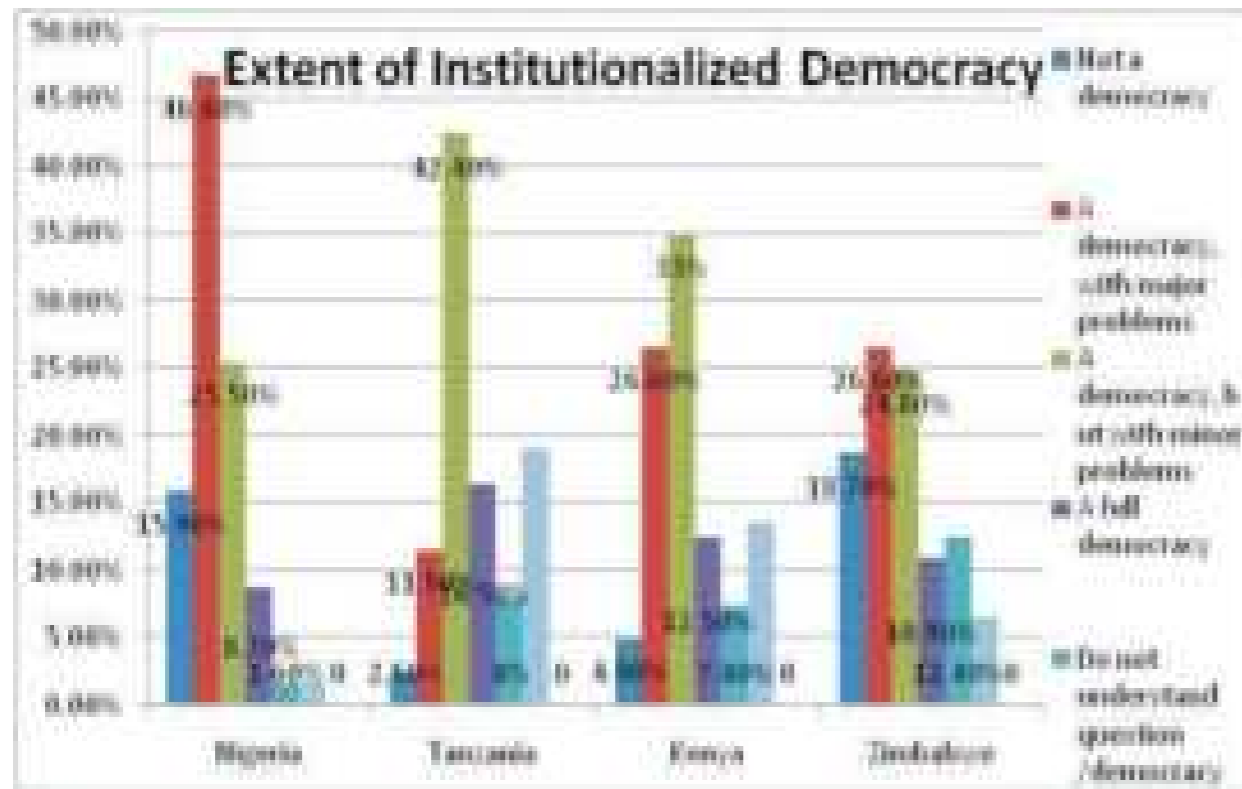
2. Extent of Institutionalized Democracy

Table II

Level of Analysis	Nigeria	Tanzania	Kenya	Zimbabwe
Not a democracy	15.90%	2.50%	4.90%	18.70%
A democracy, with major problems	46.80%	11.50%	26.60%	26.60%
A democracy, but with minor problems	25.50%	42.40%	35%	24.80%
A full democracy	8.70%	16.50%	12.50%	10.90%
Do not understand question /democracy	1.60%	8%	7.40%	12.40%
Missing				
Don't know	1.60%	19.10%	13.50%	6.60%

Sources: Afrobarometer Round Six 2015

Figure II



The level at which the Nigerian polity institutionalised democracy is considered as relatively fair as less than fifty percent (47%) regards its democracy as one with major problems; twenty-five percent (25%) regards it as democracy with minor problems while less than ten percent (9%) regards it as a full democracy. The level to which Tanzania polity institutionalised democracy is considered as relatively good as less than twelve percent (12%) regards its democracy as one with major problems; forty-two percent (42%) regards it as democracy with minor problems while seventeen percent (17%) regards it as a full democracy.

The situation in the Kenyan polity in the institutionalization of democracy is considered as relatively fair as less than twenty-seven percent (27%) regards its democracy as one with major problems; thirty-five percent (35%) regards it as democracy with minor problems while sixteen percent (10%) regards it as a full democracy. Zimbabwe on the other hand has relatively good institutionalised democracy. Less than thirty percent (27%) regards its democracy as one with major problems; twenty-five percent (25%) regards it as democracy with minor problems while eleven percent (11%) regards it as a full democracy.

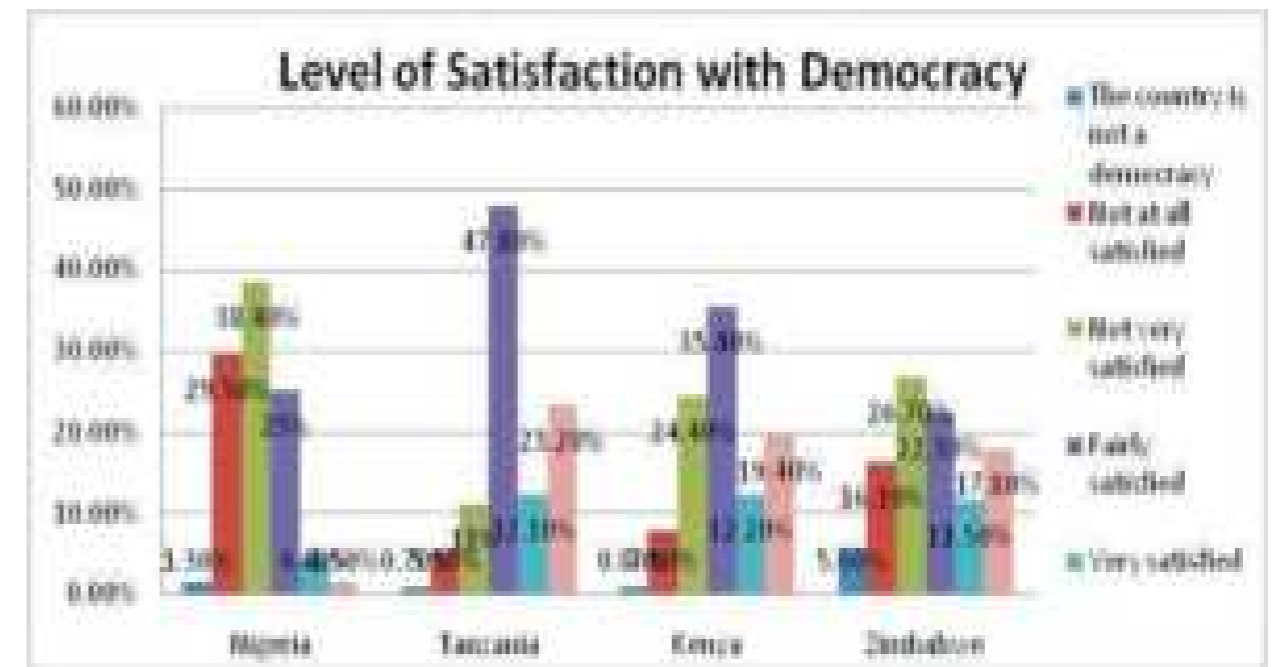
3. Level of Satisfaction with Democracy

Table III

	Nigeria	Tanzania	Kenya	Zimbabwe
The country is not a democracy	1.30%	0.70%	0.80%	5.60%
Not at all satisfied	29.50%	5.30%	7.80%	16.10%
Not very satisfied	38.40%	11%	24.40%	26.70%
Fairly satisfied	25%	47.80%	35.40%	22.30%
Very satisfied	4.40%	12.10%	12.20%	11.50%
Missing				
Refused				
Don't know	1.50%	23.20%	19.40%	17.80%

Sources: Afrobarometer Round Six 2015

Figure III



The level of satisfaction with democracy in Nigeria is relatively weak as the total (very satisfied and fairly satisfactory) satisfactory level is twenty-nine percent (29%). The percentage of “not satisfied” with the level of democracy in Nigeria is thirty percent (30%) while thirty-eight percent (38%) was not very satisfied. The lines of satisfaction with democracy level in Tanzania are relatively strong as the total (very satisfied and fairly satisfactory) satisfactory level is sixty percent (60%). The percentage of “not satisfied” with the level of democracy is five percent (5%) while eleven percent (11%) was not very satisfied.

These lines of satisfaction with democracy level in Kenya are relatively strong as well as the total (very satisfied and fairly satisfactory) satisfactory level is forty-eight percent (48%). The percentage of “not satisfied” with the level of democracy is seven percent (7%) while twenty-four percent (24%) were not very satisfied. In Zimbabwe, the lines of satisfaction with democracy level are relatively weak as the total (very satisfied and fairly satisfactory) satisfactory level is thirty-three percent (33%). The percentage of “not satisfied” with the level of democracy is sixteen percent (16%) while twenty seven percent (27%) was not very satisfied.

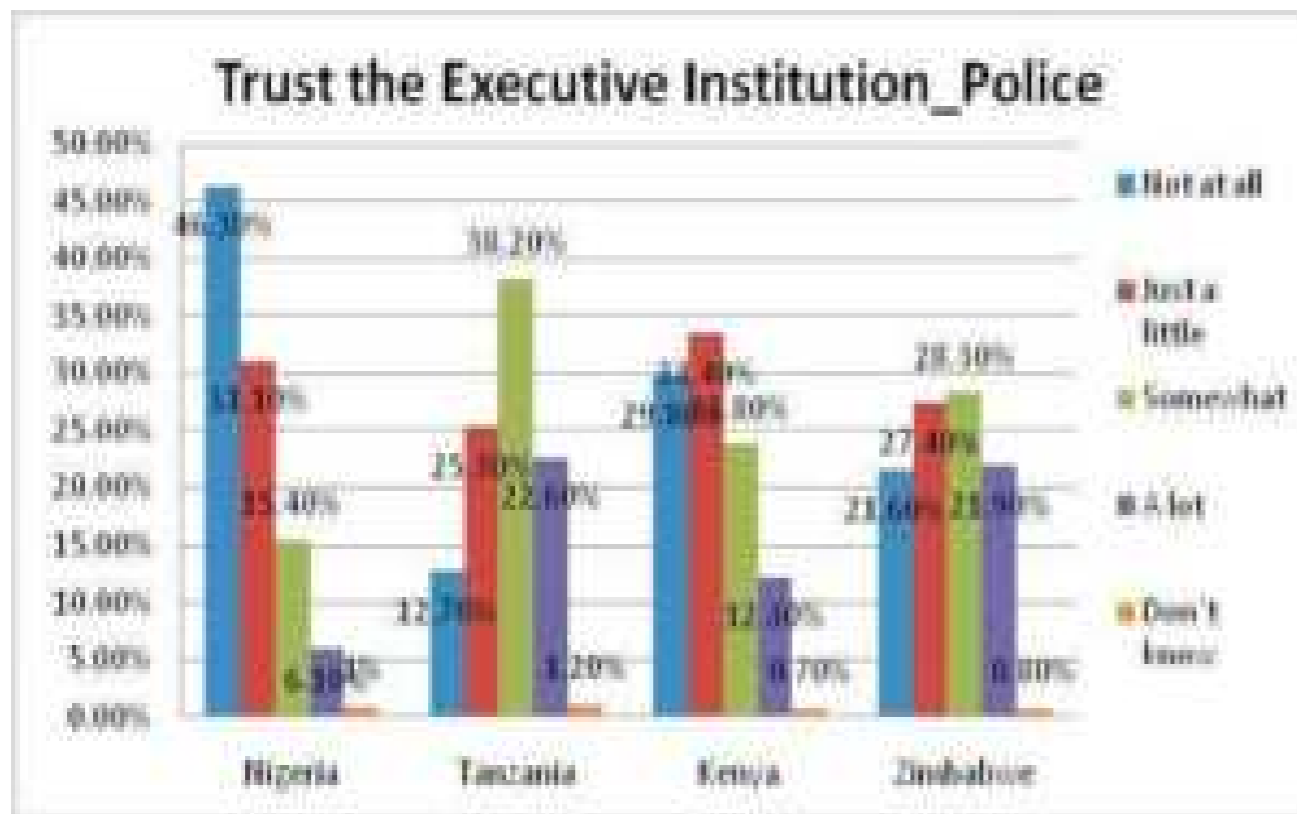
4. Trust in the Executive Institution: Police

Table IV

	Nigeria	Tanzania	Kenya	Zimbabwe
Not at all	46.30%	12.70%	29.80%	21.60%
Just a little	31.10%	25.30%	33.40%	27.40%
Somewhat	15.40%	38.20%	23.80%	28.30%
A lot	6.10%	22.60%	12.30%	21.90%
Missing				
Don't know	1%	1.20%	0.70%	0.80%

Sources: Afrobarometer Round Six 2015

Figure IV



The level of institutionalization of democracy in the executive and security institutions of administration seen in the level of the trust in the police in Nigeria is quite satisfactorily moderate to the level of democracy in the polity. The total (a lot, somewhat and just a little) level of good trust is fifty-three (53%). The level of bad trust is forty-six percent (46%). This situation is not totally different for Tanzania and Kenya. The level of institutionalization of democracy in the executive and security institutions of administration seen in the level of the trust in the police in both Tanzania and Kenya is quite satisfactorily high in relation to the level of democracy in the polities respectively.

The total (a lot, somewhat and just a little) level of good trust is eighty-six percent (86%) and sixty-nine percent (69%) respectively. The level of bad trust is thirteen percent (13%) and thirty percent (30%) respectively.

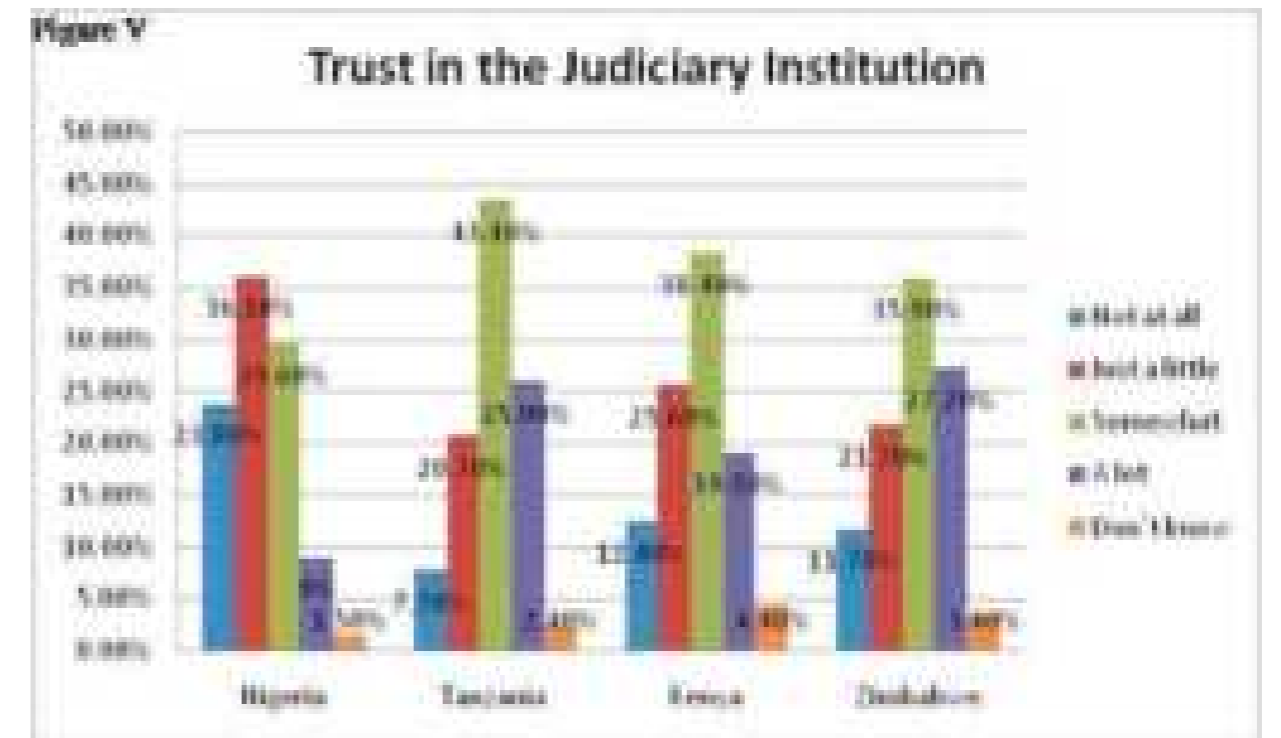
The level of institutionalization of democracy in the executive and security institutions of administration seen in the level of the trust in the police in Zimbabwe is quite satisfactorily high to the level of democracy in the polity. The total (a lot, somewhat and just a little) level of good trust is seventy-seven percent (77%). The level of bad trust is twenty-two percent (22%).

5. Trust in the Judiciary Institution: The Court of Law

Table V

	Nigeria	Tanzania	Kenya	Zimbabwe
Not at all	23.80%	7.70%	12.40%	11.70%
Just a little	36.10%	20.70%	25.60%	21.70%
Somewhat	29.60%	43.40%	38.40%	35.90%
A lot	9%	25.90%	19.10%	27.20%
Missing			0.1	
Don't know	1.50%	2.40%	4.40%	3.40%

Sources: Afrobarometer Round Six 2015



The level of institutionalization of democracy in the judiciary institution of administration seen in the level of the trust in the judiciary in both Nigeria and Tanzania is quite satisfactorily high in relations to the level of democracy in the polities respectively. The total (a lot, somewhat and just a little) level of good trust is sixty-five percent (65%) and eighty-nine percent (89%) respectively. The level of bad trust (not at all satisfied) is twenty-four percent (24%) and eight percent (8%) respectively.

This situation is not totally different for Kenya and Zimbabwe. The level of institutionalization of democracy in the judiciary institution of administration seen in the level of the trust in the judiciary in both Kenya and Zimbabwe is quite satisfactorily high in relations to the level of democracy in the polities respectively. The total (a lot, somewhat and just a little) level of good trust is eighty-three percent (83%) respectively. The level

of bad trust (not at all satisfied) is also twelve percent (12%) respectively.

CONCLUSION

There are evidences of failed institutions in Africa due to the readjusted democracy which the western countries reintroduced to Africa. Democracy had been in Africa before the scrambling and partition of Africa by the Western countries. This distorted the original looks of the traditional system of government (TSG) in Africa. African Democracy was embedded with the principles of collectivism, rule of law, principles of check and balance and adequate representations. However, these principles were wiped off by the advent of colonialism and left a footprint aftermath of totalitarian regimes, military rule, failed institutions and failed states in Africa. The ripple effects of this on the polities in the western states such as

genocide, human trafficking, trans-boarder crimes, regional violence, civil war, illegal entry into Europe among other, make the ex-colonial masters to reintroduce the old order of governance back to Africa with a new name and modifications but with the old principles.

This paper interrogated democracy in Africa and the existing institutions in the face of governance failure. The questions marshalled to this effect include; what is the present understanding of democracy in Africa, its level of satisfaction and to what extent is it institutionalised in the various countries considering the executive (police) and the judiciary (court) institutions?

It revealed that there are weak institutions in Africa states which bred failed democracy in most Africa polity. The extent of the level of **Understanding what Democracy is in modern Africa is adequate and better. The level of Satisfaction with Democracy by Africans is in a satisfactory mode and the extent of Institutionalized Democracy mostly in principles and not in practice in Africa are also in satisfactory level. However, the inadequate practice of democratic principles within the institutions of democracy in Africa such as the trust in the Judiciary Institution: The Court of Law and the trust in the Executive Institution: Police, makes the written codes of democratic principles to be weak in practice. This to a large extent had given some polity in Africa a failed or pariah state acronym, while others have a weak and fragile state acronym while the best is the stable state.**

The remedy to this that –all stakeholders in Africa which include the governments of each country, the Africa Union (AU) and the whole citizenry should revert back to the traditional system of government (TSG) principles – the original shaped African original democracy which is embedded with the complete principle of transparency, equity, rule of law and tranquillity are inevitable.

The Way Forward

The level of failed institutions in Africa is a major determinant of the level of democratic success. The following recommendations are posited to the following stakeholders; the governments of each country, the Africa Union and the whole citizenry.

The government of each country should ensure that the collectiveness of purpose as seen in the traditional Africa society should be re-institutionalised in the administration of the country. This will make the old African democracy

principles (traditional system of government) to come back to life and the new flesh of the western democracy will be evicted.

The Africa Union on its part should solicit for true African institution in member states by discouraging the elite structure and rule in the polity. This will be effective if the collective principles in the ancient Africa democracy (traditional system of government) are encouraged. This implies that the leaders will not see themselves as totalitarian and self sufficient in the control of the economic means of production, distribution, networking and political spaces.

The whole citizenry as well should disregard the second class status in the global politics by re adopting the principles of check and balance and participatory governance which is conspicuously present in the ancient Africa democracy (traditional system of government). This will eventually treat the new look of democracy which the western countries reshaped and reintroduced back to Africa to an original homeland idea. It will as well treat the weak or failed institutions in Africa.

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WOMEN EDUCATIONAL EMPOWERMENT AS PANACEA FOR NATION-BUILDING

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Abstract

Over the years, the issue of women empowerment has been attracting discussions in both spheres of academia and governance as to why women have been left under empowered and been labelled as illiterates when compared to men. Nigerian women constitute almost 50% of the country's population, but contribute very little in the nation-building. Despite the current wave of globalisation, Nigerian women, especially northern women, remain at disadvantaged in education. This paper gives an overview of the current educational status of women in Nigeria, revealing that Nigerian women, especially in the north are still lagging behind in education because of poverty, religious and socio-cultural beliefs. The study uses documentary analysis to arrive at conclusion that the education of women is not only necessary but compulsory in the nation-building. The study therefore recommends more involvement of women in political and administrative system, as well as giving them more priority to education.

Keywords: Gender, Empowerment, Education, Nation-building

INTRODUCTION

Attention and actions have increased over the years as per the concern of women globally. The issues of consciousness raising, skills acquisition, poverty reduction, politics and education are some areas of concern by scholars, government and non-governmental organisations about women empowerment. The underlying assumption is that if women understood their conditions, knew their rights and learned various skills traditionally denied to them, empowerment would follow. Many years have passed now and the issue is still attracting concerns because it is not changing the way it ought to. Reasonable numbers of women are still suffering from illiteracy and poverty. Fapohunda (2012) observed that the 2006 National Census puts Nigeria's population at about 150 million, about 50% of which are females. Many of them largely living in poverty.

The current wave of globalization has greatly

improved the living standard of women worldwide, particularly the lives of women in the developing world. Nevertheless, women remain disadvantaged in many areas of life, including education, employment, health, and civil rights. According to the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the World Bank, 57 percent of the 72 million primary school aged children who do not attend school are females. Additionally, girls are four percent less likely than boys to complete primary schools (Gender statistics, 2010). Gender inequality in education is high. Girls are less likely to access school, to remain in school or to achieve in education.

Despite almost 30 years of the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), and 20 years of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), today girls make up around 56 per cent of the 77 million children not in school, and women make up two thirds of the adults who are illiterate. Even girls who do enroll in school may have irregular attendance due to other demands on them, and the fact that their education may not be

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prioritized (Aja-Okorie, 2013).

Girl Child has been suffering discrimination from secular education right from ancient days due to culture and tradition especially in the northern part of Nigeria. The issue is yet unresolved and continued to obtain attention in the academics and governance. Girl Children have not been enjoying the cherish, love and protection by parents and the society at large compared to male child due to certain traditional, cultural, religious and stereotypical beliefs that are still not completely eradicated. As such, they lagged behind in the developmental processes of the country despite their population explosion. The world has witness a number of developments instigated and accomplished by women. The population explosion of women worldwide necessitates their contribution in the nation-building.

Literature Review

Education is the process of providing information to an inexperienced person to help him/her develop physically, mentally, socially, emotionally, spiritually, politically and economically (Offorma (2008). It is an important means through which the society reproduces itself, passes its main characteristics to the next generation as well as a dynamic instrument of change and development (World Bank, 1994). It is therefore not for the purpose of white-collar jobs alone, but for the individual and societal development, hence it is desirable that everyone should have it including the female (Abbagana, 2013).

Considering the trend of the world today where female gender's population is increasing rapidly, it becomes so obvious and convincing that female child education is paramount to nation-building. UNESCO (1991) in Abdul (2003) says that the education of a girl is vital for the effective preparation of today's girls into tomorrow's responsible adult women. The female child, just like the male child is entitled to all the citizenship rights, one of which is access to compulsory basic education and opportunity for higher education depending on her ability. The World Declaration on Education For All (1990) report emphasizes that learning opportunity shall be expanded for all so that every individual will participate in the process of national building. To include, everybody in the process of education therefore, suitable programmes should be provided according to the needs of the people in the curriculum. Nigerian women constitute a diverse group which despite differences in culture and class are bound together by a commonality of issues and experiences that are rooted in the discrimination they

face at all levels and stages of their lives (UNDP, 2000).

Education is the instrument through which every nation's development can be quantified. Development of all sectors of every economy necessitates for enough application of knowledge, by implication, education. Nigerian society is not an exception. With the prevailing differences in child education, the situation will only persist.

Need for Women Educational Empowerment in Nigeria

In 2000, 189 countries including Nigeria adopted **Education For All** (EFA) first launched in 1990 and led by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) with the aim of meeting the learning needs of all children, youth and adults globally by 2015 (Oweh, n.d). The EFA has seriously given a greater concern on the educational empowerment of women. The following are the goals of EFA.

- Expand and improve comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
- Ensure that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, those in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free, and compulsory primary education of good quality.
- Ensure that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programs.
- Achieve a 50 per cent improvement in adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.
- Eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2015, and achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.
- Improve all aspects of the quality of education and ensure the excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

The EFA goals also contribute to the global pursuit of

the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), especially Goal 2 on Universal Primary Education and Goal 3 on Gender Equality in Education, by 2015. However, despite the financial support Nigeria got from international partners like the World Bank to help her achieve this goal and the country's strong economy, it is saddening that as at 2015 which is the EFA deadline approaches, Nigeria is far from reaching the Education for All goal (Oweh, n.d). This

is the same with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) that failed to meet up with its first target, 2015.

The Nigeria's population according to UNFPA (2014), which equals the figure of CIA's World Factbook (2015), reveals Nigeria's 2014 estimated population to be **177,155,754** at the population growth rate of 2.47% as tabulated below:

Table 1: Nigeria's Estimated Population

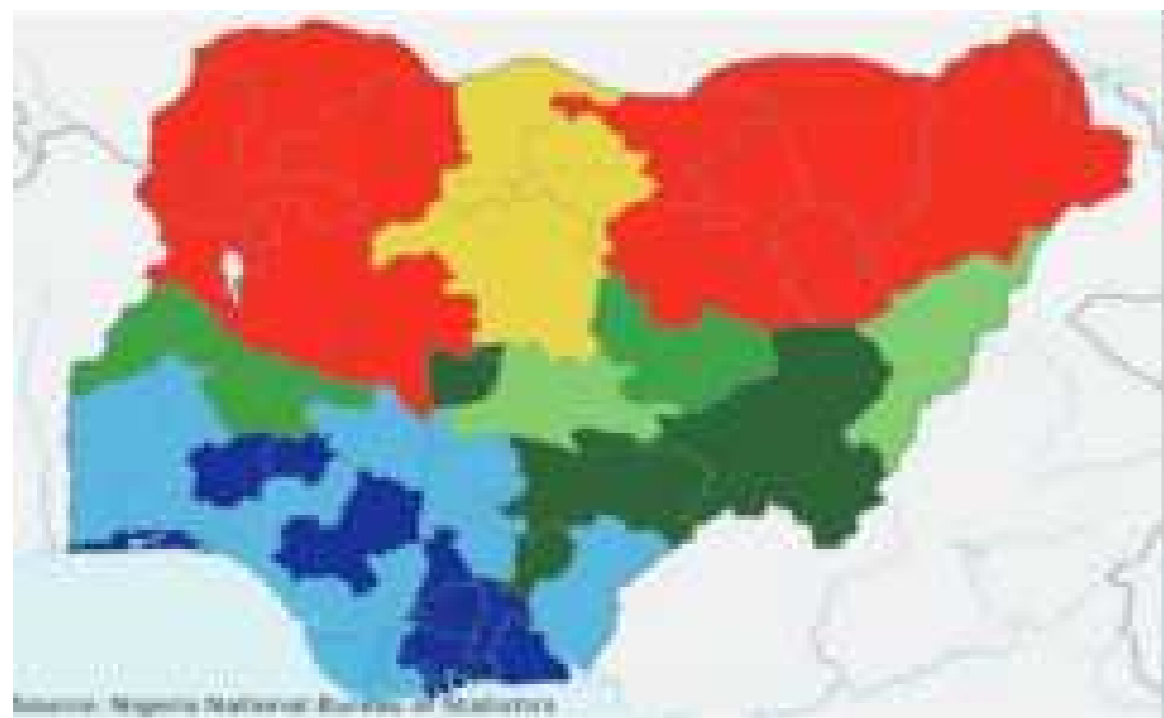
Age (years)	Percentage (%)	Male	Female
0-14	43.2%	39,151,304	37,353,737
15-24	19.3%	17,486,117	16,732,533
25-54	30.5%	27,697,644	26,285,816
55-64	3.9%	3,393,631	3,571,301
65 years and over	3%	2,621,845	2,861,826
Total	100%	90,350,541 (51.1%)	86,805,213 (48.9%)
Whole Total		177,155,754	

Source: CIA, (2014 estimate)

From the above statistics, it is obvious that female population in the country is so high almost equals the population of men. The figure also indicates that female population is increasing with a very high

number and the number of youngsters is the highest. This is an indication that the country has an option of catching-them-young so as to avert all other ills brought about by inadequate education.

Fig. 1: Female Literacy Rate in Nigeria by States



Source: Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics, 2013

Key:
■ -90% ■ -80-90% ■ -70-80% ■ -60-70%
■ -50-60% ■ -35-50%

Fig 1.1 above indicates that 90% of the learned females in the country based in the southern part of the country. They occupy Osun, Ekiti, Lagos, Edo, Anambra, Imo, Rivers, Abia and Akwa-Ibom states. 80-90% of them still occupy more southern states viz; Oyo, Ogun, Ondo, Cross River, Enugu, Delta, Bayelsa and Kogi States. 70-80% are more of north central states, viz; Abuja, Benue, Ebonyi, Taraba, Plateau and Kwara States. 50-60% occupied Adamawa and Nasarawa states, 35-50% occupied Katsina, Kano and Kaduna states of the north and only 35% occupied the typical northern states, viz; Sokoto, Kebbi, Zamfara, Niger, Bauchi, Gombe, Yobe and Borno states.

The statistics also indicates that the illiteracy rate of female population in the country is more pronounced in the northern part of the country, particularly the Hausa/Fulani speaking states of the northeast, northwest and the north central states.

UNICEF's research (2015) revealed thus: Forty percent (40%) of Nigerian children aged 6-11 do not attend any primary school with the northern region recording the lowest school attendance rate in the country particularly girls. Despite a significant increase in recent years, it is estimated that about 4.7 million children of primary school age are still not in school. In the north particularly, the gender gap between remains particularly wide and the proportion of girls to boys in school ranges from 1 girl to 2 boys to 1 to 3 in some states. Many of these girls do not attend school because their labour is needed to either help at home or to bring additional income into the family. Most parents do not send their children, especially girls, to school and prefer to send them to Qur'anic schools rather than formal schools. Even when children enroll in schools, many do not complete the primary cycle. According to current data, 30% of pupils drop out of primary school and 54% transit to Junior Secondary Schools. Reason for this low completion rate include child labour, economic hardship and early marriage.

Recent decades have seen a greater awareness of the importance of women's empowerment, but much remains to be done. For example, despite significant progress toward universal primary education, only 87 out of 100 children in developing countries complete primary school and more than half of those not in schools are girls. More than a half-billion women joined the global labor force between 1980 and 2008; now four in ten of the world's workers are women. But, on average, women still earn one-third less than men. Women are disproportionately affected by environmental impacts such as climate

change-induced drought, sea-level rise or severe storm damage. Yet they are severely under-represented in debating, negotiating and environmental decision-making at all levels. At past meetings on the global environment, women led only 10% of delegations, and some 40% of delegations were comprised of men only, a number which has actually risen in recent years. More women have access to family planning and reproductive health services: contraceptive use in the developing countries has grown from less than 10% in the 1960s to 60% today. But too many still lack access: around the world, 215 million women want to prevent pregnancy but are not using an effective method of contraception (CEP, n.d).

Education is regarded as the key factor in overcoming the barriers that women face and the basic tool for empowering women and bringing them into the mainstream of development. Education not only provides knowledge and skills to improve health and livelihoods, but it empowers women to take their right place in society and the development process. Education gives status and confidence in decision making (Murtaza, 2012). *One of our greatest needs is to spread education among our women. As a matter of fact there is room for the extension of education even among men. The condition of women's education is, however, such that any attempt as its spread deserves help and encouragement from all quarters* (Sharma and Sharma, 2004).

Empowerment of women in education is a fundamental tool that will strengthen their rights and enable them have control over their lives, exerts influence in the society and contribute their quota in the nation building. This proves that the situation of women as opined by Bill Clinton (2009) can be changed. He says in an address that:

Women perform 66 percent of the world's work, and produce 50 percent of the food, yet earn only 10 percent of the income and own 1 percent of the property. Whether the issue is improving education in the developing world, or fighting global climate change, or addressing nearly any other challenge we face, empowering women is a critical part of the equation.

Barriers to Female Education in Nigeria
UNICEF observed the following as barriers to female education in Nigeria:

- i) **Poverty and economic issues:** With 70% of the population living below the poverty line, girls are often sent to generate income for families by selling wares in the market or on

the street.

ii) Early Marriage and Teenage

Pregnancy: These have also militated against girls' attendance, retention and achievement in schools. About 30% of school-age girls drop out of school having already begun childbearing before the age of 18.

iii) Inadequate School Infrastructure:

Classroom space, furniture, and equipment are lacking; many schools are in a rugged and unsafe physical condition; water, health and sanitation facilities are inadequate; and pupil teacher ratios are high, with as many as 100 students in one class, especially in schools in urban slums.

iv) Cultural and Religious Biases: Many Nigerian parents, especially in large families with limited resources, enroll boys in school instead of or before girls. Some parents also keep their daughters out of school due to misinterpretation of the tenets of Islamic religion.

v) Gender Bias in Content and Teaching and Learning Processes. Boys are given more opportunities to ask and answer questions, to use learning materials, and to lead groups. Girls are given less time on task than boys in primary and secondary school science classes. Teachers' use corporal punishment and create an intimidating classroom environment.

Women Education and Nation Building

The general awareness created on the condition of women as the result of the International Women's Year (1975) and the decade that followed (The United Nations Decade for Women, 1975-1985) (Aina, 1993:1) as well as subsequent UN Conferences like the 1992 Rio Conference on Environment and Development, the 1993 Vienna Human Rights Conference, the 1995 Copenhagen Summit on Social Development and the Beijing World Conference (which Nigeria effectively participated and signed its legal instruments) did not only set new priorities, but also produced a blueprint for a sustainable role of women in development. Thus, in the last three decades, the role of women in national development has assumed a centre stage in public debates in Nigeria (Luka, 2012).

The role women can play towards the educational development in this country cannot be

overemphasized. Aja-Okorie (2013) observed that improving access to and the quality of education is the most rewarding investment a country can make. Investing in female education will accelerate Nigeria's economic and social development by enhancing human capital, slowing population growth, and alleviating poverty.

Prominent women played leading roles in national building dating back to the pre-colonial era. The likes of Gambo Sawaba who waged a fierce battle for the political and cultural emancipation of women in the North, the exploit of Iyalode (women leader) of the old Oyo Empire has remained the reference point on how political involvement women can engender a free society, among others. In the modern setting, we see the likes of Genevieve Nnaji, Funke Akindele, Zainab Indo Mie, etc (Entertainment); Prof. Maimuna Waziri, Prof. Francisca Okeke, Dr. Akindele (Education); Nadu Denloye, Adenike 'Nike' Oshinowo-Soleye (Business); Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie, Zulu Sofola (Literature); Deola Sagoe (Fashion) Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala, Aisha Alhassan (Politics), etc. These are examples of women who contributed towards the nation-building. Therefore, the steady educational advancement of women will undoubtedly contribute to the socio-economic development of Nigeria.

Boliva (2010) states that investing in women's literacy carries very high returns; it improves livelihood, leads to better child and maternal health, and favours girls' access to education. He further emphasized that when women are literate, it is the society that gains. Education is seen as a powerful agent of socialization in that it plays a tremendous role in preparing an individual to render active and useful service both to the family and society in general (Okemakinde, 2014).

Women can also help government to achieve its laudable goals and objectives through public enlightenment and national mobilization campaigns. In general, education wipes away ignorance, political apathy and encourages mutual understanding and cooperation among the various strata of society.

Ogungbemi, (2013) observed that if women are given the task of the developing the country, they will surprise us and definitely perform wonder. He believes that an average woman is more dedicated, more hardworking, more prudent, more God fearing, more sincere, more devoted, less tribalistic and more focused.

Conclusion

It is obvious that education is key to nation-building. Nigeria despite having documented National Gender

Policy and adopted Education For All 2015 and Sustainable Development Goals (SDG), there is no much improvement in female child education. Nigerian women, northern Nigeria specifically, need to be educated to be able to contribute like women in the developed world. The days of leaving women idle, at home or in labour is already gone.

Decades of empirical evidence and practical experience support the strong associations between women's educational attainment and positive development outcomes. It is now conventional wisdom in development discourse that where education levels are higher among women, there is low infant and maternal mortalities, reduced family size and women's health and economic status are stronger. There is even evidence to suggest that in settings where education is more gender equitable, economic growth is more robust. It is the healthier, safer transition of adolescent girls to adulthood and their empowerment during this process that are, in fact, the linchpins between education and improved outcomes at the individual, community and societal levels.

Nation-building cannot be attained without education. It requires educated and enlightened populace. Today, it is so clear that the difference between the developed and underdeveloped countries of the world is related to the level of literacy among the populace, especially the female populace. The clamour of globalisation has informed the world, third world countries specifically that girl child is paramount to nation building. Women empowerment is thus, a necessity. More so, educational empowerment is the best form of empowerment that can ease all other forms of empowerments. The turn of the new millennium has altered the focus, nation-building, to include women and this can only be attained if such women are literate enough.

Recommendations

This paper recommends the following ways which will in the short run pave way for more educational empowerment of women:

- Nigerian government should ensure a reasonable percentage towards the attainment of Education For All (EFA) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which gives reasonable emphasis to women educational empowerment.
- More women should be involved in decision making though policy formulation, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This could be through occupying more

political and administrative offices, and other regular appointments.

- The womenfolk should form a formidable group to motivate and create interest and awareness among females to improve female education for women (Ogungbemi, 2013).
- Educated women should work hard to ensure that they raise social awareness of large number of women in the rural area, through effective educative programmes, and mass communication as these will help to improve their self-confidence (Ekemakinde, 2014).
- More priority in access to education should be given to female child. This could be in seeking for an admission into schools, when giving scholarship grants, etc.
- Parents should give equal priority to education for both male and female child.
- Religious leaders, especially Islamic clerics in the northern Nigeria should educate their followers and clarify the misinterpretations of Islam about gender education to the larger society.
- Traditional leaders who are regarded as fathers and mentors should be part of this campaign by enforcing it on parents to allow their girl children to study and seek for the support of the wealthy people, government and NGOs to assist in the cause.

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COMMUNICATION MANAGEMENT FOR EFFECTIVE LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Local government is an administrative device aimed at bringing the government nearer to the people. It is an administrative unit operating as a government in its own right at local level. Its proper management and development can lead to national development. However, local government administration in Nigeria has not been efficient enough to contribute meaningfully to national development. Among the problems of this level of government are: poor funding, corruption, lack of autonomy, lack of competent personnel among others. Aside these age-long problems, this paper submits that a major factor influencing the efficiency and effectiveness of local governments in Nigeria is organizational communication which, if effectively carried out, will ensure greater efficiency and development in local government administration.

Keywords: Local Government Administration; Effective communication; Communication Barriers; Communication Process; Information.

Introduction

Local government is that part of the government which deals mainly with local affairs, administered by authorities subordinate to the state government but elected independently of the state authority by the qualified residents (Rao, 1965). Local government operates at the lowest level of the society. It works at the grassroot level close to the people, touching their everyday life. No other government, whether state or national, is as near the people as this. Historically, too it is older than the other levels of government because governance began with the organization of people into small communities in a limited area (Sharma, Sadana & Kaur, 2012).

In view of the importance of local government to rural and national development, it must ensure good communication in order to be effective in the performance of duties of bringing the government nearer to the people. It must do so by transmitting or exchanging information that involves the transfer of meaning also known as effective communication. This is because communication has come to be recognized as an important principle of administration. For the successful achievement of agency objectives, effective communication is really of vital importance (Bhagwan, Bhushan & Mohla,

2012). Over the years, in Nigeria, most of the discussions in the literature on the problems of local governments have focused on poor funding, lack of autonomy, corruption, lack of competent personnel with managerial skills etc. Not much attention has been devoted to the communication problem at the local government (Davies, 1997). The need to devote more attention to the development of communication skills in local government administration in Nigeria has become inevitable under the present civil rule than ever before in order to develop and strengthen the principles and practice of democracy at the level of government.

This paper takes the position that poor communication system at the local government level is capable of paralyzing operations at the local level just like any other problems usually associated with local government administration in Nigeria. The paper is divided into four parts to achieve this purpose. The first part examines the concept of organizational communication. The second part stresses the importance of effective communication in local government administration while the third part focuses on the barriers to effective communication and the concluding remarks forms the fourth part.

Conceptual Clarifications

In grasping the thrust of this paper, it is imperative to conceptualise such terms as Organization,

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Administration and Management.

Organization

Generally, the word, organization assumes two perspectives. First, as a process or an act. Second, a formal framework and setting whether public or private, involving persons with assigned and defined authority, tasks and resources working together to achieve explicit goals and objectives. Accordingly, the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, 2000 (as cited in Mclean, 2005:1) defines an organization as: “a structure through which individuals cooperate systematically to conduct business”. Importantly, organization is the most significant and integral part of administration, preceding every administrative action and forming the machinery and platform for all administrative activities and guidelines (Eghe, 2002). Explaining further, Spiers (cited in Eghe, Ibid) puts forward five characteristics of an organization namely; formal structure, corporate status, conscious purpose, value system or ideology and membership.

Administration

Several scholarly attempts have been made to offer explanations on the widening concept of Administration. According to NOUN (2009: 1), “Administration consists of getting the work of government done by coordinating the efforts of the peoples so that they can work together to accomplish their set tasks.” In a similar vein, the Integral School of Administration posits that the term is “the sum total or the whole complex of activities, manual, clerical, technical and managerial, which are undertaken to realize the objective in view, i.e., the implementation of the policy or policies in a given field.”

Management

The term, management is largely employed in both government and business concerns. More so, it is assuming great relevance and application under the frontier of the emerging New Public Management School of Thought. Defining management, Adeleke (2001) opines that it is the basic integrating process of the work activities that surround the work environment for the achievement of the goals. It is concerned with the process of planning, organizing, leading, staffing, coordinating and controlling the efforts of organizational members, and utilizing available resources to achieve stated organizational goals. He further notes that management is used in a work setting where there are: corporate goals to be achieved through individual contribution; resources to be utilized; groups of people with assigned specific tasks and responsibilities; and limited

available resources.

In an advanced and enriching manner, Hudson in NOUN (2009: 122) distinguishes between organization as a process and management thus: “organization refers to the division and unification of effort towards some goal or policy while management is conceived as the collective utilization of human resources and material in an effort to reach the known goal”. In essence, management connotes the means of ensuring performance of any undertaking. It aims at utilizing limited resources to accomplish maximum output with speed and efficiency.

From the foregoing, suffice it to say, therefore, that the local government as an entity is properly located within these conceptual contexts.

The Concept of Organizational Communication Modern Technology

Recent years have witnessed the rapid development of new technologies and techniques in administration. These are the physical devices which are now of great significance for administration in both public and private organizations today. These physical devices include a range of machines, mostly electronic computer in its various forms which perform certain functions such as the storage, retrieval and manipulation of data and the making of complex calculations with high speed and accuracy. The effect of these developments is that it has opened a new range of human experience and potentialities. They have also opened new and enlarged opportunities for increasing administrative efficiency. Organizational communication has greatly benefitted from these new technologies and techniques as they have made communication within and outside an organization easier and effective.

Organizational communication has been variously described by scholars of administration. Millett (1954) simply defines communication as shared understanding of a shared purpose. A comprehensive definition of communication is offered by Vardaman and Halterman (1968) thus: By communication we mean the flow of material, information, perception, and understandings between various parts and members of an organization... all the methods, means and media of communication (communication technology), all the channels, networks, and systems of communication (organizational structure), all the person-to-person interchange (interpersonal communication)... It

includes all aspects of communication: up, down, lateral, speaking, writing, listening, reading; methods, media, channels, networks, flow, inter-personnel, intra-organizational, and inter-organizational.

Communication, according to Naidu (2013), may be defined as an interactive process by which one person makes his ideas and feelings known to another. In a communication process, the sender of information seeks to establish commonness with the receiver of information. It is the transfer of information and understanding from one person to another person. Therefore, communication is inherently a social process. Whether one communicates face to face with a single person or with a group of people via television, it is still a social activity involving two or more people (Keith, 1981).

Organizational communication is a process in administration. As a process, it involves the elements of sender (the person who intends to make contact), ideas (subject matter of communication), encoding (language or symbols), channel (media agencies like telephone, telegram, circular etc), receiver (person to whom the message is sent), decoding (conversion of symbols received from the sender), and feedback (ensuring that the receiver has got the message and understood it properly) (Bhagwan, Bhushau & Mohla, 2012).

Information is also transmitted through general circulars, hierarchical channels, elaborate procedures, committees and conferences. Thus, communication flow in an organization is an important factor in influencing the decision-making process (Sapru, 2009).

Communication is also regarded as a chain. This is because by analyzing the communication process, one discovers that it is a chain made up of identifiable links. Links in this process include sender, encoding, medium, decoding, receiver and feedback (Clampitt, 1991). And according to Harriet (1999), the essential purpose of this chain-like process is to send an idea from one person to another in a way that will be understood by the receiver.

Importance of Effective Communication in Local Government Administration

According to Luthans (1985), communication is often cited as being at the root of practically all problems of the world. Therefore, communication is a universal phenomenon not only in organization but also in human activity. It makes possible the management process and serves as the

lubricant for its smooth operation. Communication helps managerial planning to be performed effectively, managerial organizing to be carried out effectively, managerial actuating to be followed effectively; and managerial controlling to be applied effectively (Terry & Frankein, 2003). One of the most difficult challenges for management is getting individuals to understand and voluntarily pursue organizational objectives.

Organizational communication takes in a great deal of territory—virtually every management function and activity can be considered as communication in one way or another. Many administrative theorists have recognized communication as the first principle of administration. It is an integral and necessary aspect of the functioning of any organization (Naidu, 2013). This is why Barnard (1938) opines that it is obvious that without communication there can be no organization, for there is no possibility then of the group influencing the behavior of the individual. Only by keeping communication channels open, can the executive could transmit the purpose of the organization to the employees. Communication is also central to exercising of authority. This is because authority is little more than the willingness to communicate. The structure, extensiveness and scope of organizations are almost entirely determined by communication techniques.

Planning and controlling require a lot of communicating, as do organization design and development, decision making and problem solving, leadership, and staffing. Organizational cultures cannot exist without communication. Studies have shown that both organizational and individual performance improve when managerial communication is effective (Young and Post 1993). And as Sapru (2009) noted, communication in an organization is as important as the nervous system is to the human body. To Millett (1954) too, communication is the blood stream of organizations and indeed the heart of management. An important factor influencing the efficiency and effectiveness of a public administration system is communication—the lifeblood of an organization. Without effective communication among different units and participants, the pattern of relationships that we call organizations will serve no purpose at all. Lack of proper communication would result in confusion and friction in the organization (Sapru, 2009).

The globalization of economy and introduction of modern management technology to meet the needs of the society certainly pose a

challenge to manager's communications abilities. It is an opportunity for administrators and managers, and employees to keep working to strengthen their ties at work. Effective communication is important to managers for three main reasons. First, communication provides a common thread for management processes of planning, organizing, leading, controlling and coordinating. Second, effective communication skills take on added meaning when there is challenge of globalization and privatization. Effective communication skills can enable managers to draw on the vast array of talents available in the multicultural world of organizations. Third, effective communication reduces the points of friction and minimizes those that inevitably arise. Good communication improves healthy relations among different units and participants in the organization (Sapru, 2009).

Organizational communication plays the important role of ensuring team spirit and co-operative efforts in an organization. In other words, effective communication is essential for cooperation within organizations. This is because in organizations, information flows back and forth among their members. As a result of this shuttling of messages among the employees of an organization, they can co-operate in the most appropriate fashion toward their common goal. The communication network acts principally as an integrating device for bringing together frequent conflicting elements of an organization in order to secure compromise and co-operative group effort. Communication network achieves co-ordination by holding the different interdependent organizational parts together (Naidu, 2013).

Given today's team-oriented organizations where things need to be accomplished with and through people over whom a manager has no direct authority, communication skills are more important than ever (Prusak & Cohen, 2001). Thanks to modern technology, we can communicate more quickly and less expensively. Three communication skills that remain as important as ever in today's highly recognized world are listening, writing and running meetings. Managers who master these skills usually have relatively few interpersonal relations problems (Kreitner, 2005).

In all organizations, particularly in the public service, senior officials perform a considerable portion of their task through communication in writing. They have to write minutes in files, prepare memoranda and draft speeches for their political chief executives, state commissioners and chairmen

of statutory bodies and agencies. However, they do not have to write all the time. One of the hallmarks of a public administrator is to develop the habit of communication by discussion in addition to communication in writing. This is usually communication by telephone discussion, meetings and conferences, seminars, interviews with members of the public and clients of the department (Adebayo, 2000). This process requires that there is link between decision making and the implementation process.

Failure of communication to link decision-making with implementation process creates difficulties in administration. This is why communication is particularly important to local governments' administration. There are numerous communication processes that take place in local government administration. These include: communication between the federal and local governments; between state and local government; and other private or public agencies with which the local governments have to transact business. Communication also exists within a local government itself. This includes: information from the management to the employees of the local government usually through employee's manual and circular which contains information about policies, rules and regulations, rewards and sanctions relating to the operations of the local government. This is usually regarded as downward communication.

Similarly, communication flows from the employees to the management. This is called the upward communication. It means a process of systematically encouraging employees to share their feelings and ideas with management (Kreitner, 2005). Upward communication has become increasingly important in recent years as employees have demanded and in many cases, received a greater say in their work lives. Upward communication enables local government employees to individually or collectively through their unions, express their dissatisfaction with some decisions of the management. This is usually done through collective bargaining between labour union and the management of the local government.

Barriers to Effective Communication

There are barriers to effective communication in organizations. These barriers must be removed as much as possible because they are detrimental to the smooth operation of any organization including the local government. As noted earlier, communication is a chainlike process and its purpose is to send an idea from one person to another in a way that will be understood by the receiver. However, this process is

often interrupted, leading to failure of information getting to its destination because a wrong method has been used. There can also be distortion by the recipient of what is received as a result of the attitudes of the recipient. Many government establishments have not been effective and efficient because of the use of inappropriate methods by the management to convey messages to the workers or those who will implement public policies and decisions.

For instance, the use of verbal methods of conveying the decision of the management of the local government should be avoided as much as possible. Documentary methods should always be contemplated instead. Instructions given orally can be interpreted in different ways by the recipient; the sender of the instructions can even deny ever giving it just as the recipient can equally deny ever being told. But documentary evidence will exist when decisions or directives are in written form, and if there is going to be a misunderstanding of the meaning of the message, reference can easily be made to the document in order to re-evaluate the message (Nwachukwu, 1988).

Another major barrier to effective communication, particularly in local government administration, is the misinterpretation of information due to information overload. In other words, too many memoranda, reports or contradictory directives on the same subject matter and in quick succession will obviously confuse the recipient of the message. The result is that none of the decisions will be implemented and if implemented at all, the implementation is likely to be unsatisfactory (Davies, 1997). Misinterpretation of information due to language difficulties or ambiguity, distortion by the recipient of what is received, distortion of information by the person transmitting it, failure of the information to get to its destination are among the common barriers to effective communication in local government administration.

An important impediment to effective communication at the local government level is the size and complexity of the local government. Greater size and complexity of the organization with far-flung field offices and departments, and larger number of employees impede effective communication (Naidu, 2013). Moreover, since effective communication usually secure compromise and cooperative group effort, members of an organization must ensure continual cooperation among themselves. When the members of the organization engage in mutual distrust, resentment, gossips or when there is a

feeling of incompetence and insecurity, there is bound to be communication breakdown (Nwachukwu, 1988). The grapevine, that is, the unofficial and informal communication system which sometimes complements the communication system is another major source of disruption to formal communication system.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This paper has highlighted the meaning and importance of effective communication in organizations and especially in local government administration in Nigeria for effective performance. It has been established in the literature too that local government administration in Nigeria has not been efficient and its contribution to national development has been minimal (The Report of the Political Bureau, 1987). This situation is still the case in local government administration today. The paper concludes that lack of effective communication will continue to affect, negatively, the efficient performance of local government even if the other problems of local government in Nigeria such as inadequate funding, lack of autonomy and corruption are minimized.

It is therefore appropriate here to offer the following suggestions that will promote effective communication in local government administration in Nigeria. One of the ways to break barriers to effective communication is for local government authorities to promote upward communication. Upward communication can be stimulated by using formal grievance procedures, employee attitude and opinion surveys, suggestion systems, an open-door policy, informal meetings, internet chat rooms, and interviews (Kreitner, 2005). It should be noted that management at local government level must recognize that grapevine cannot be suppressed among its employees and therefore be able to monitor it constructively. Administration at local government level should also ensure the use of correct means of conveying directives or other forms of messages from the management to the employees, or from one unit or department to another. This is why the local government should ensure that there must be a feedback system built into the communication system. For example, within the local government, there should be a method of evaluating the reaction of the workers to directives or decisions on, say, welfare matters, or changes that will affect the workers (Davies, 1997).

As a result of modern technology, we can now communicate more quickly and less

expensively. However, while telecommuting can reduce travel time and expense and offer employment to non-traditional employees, it severely restricts normal social contact and face-to-face communication in the workplace. Cell phone users need to be discreet and courteous to avoid broadcasting privileged information and or offending others. Active, cooperative listening is to be encouraged. Writing skills are no less important in the computer age. Written messages need to be specific, simply worded and concise. Meetings, an

agenda-driven of time is to be used wisely (Kreitner, 2005).

The federal and state government which constitutes the higher level of government to the local government should also assist the local government by including them in any training programme in communication management in order to improve communication skills for effective local government administration for national development.

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EVALUATION OF PLANNING STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

For any country aspiring development, there must be robust plans that will lead her into the Promised Land. Since Nigeria got her political independence in 1960, efforts have been made by political leaders, both the military and civilian government, to introduce a lot of planning strategies to achieve national development. These include the short-term, medium and long-term planning, such as the five year plans, rolling plans and vision 2010, 2015, 2020, SEEDS, NEEDS and even the Transformation Agenda. The features of these plans were centred on poverty reduction, unemployment, national integration, political and economic self-reliance, rural-urban development and agricultural development; but the problem here is that little or nothing was achieved among these plans. Why? Findings of this study revealed that lack of political will, corruption, and lack of data bank, insufficient machinery and technology to take care of the programmes were responsible for failure. It therefore proffered some solutions to ameliorate the problems encountered in the implementation of the plans. The paper adopted qualitative research method and relied on secondary data from textbooks, journals, and the internet.

Introduction

A government cannot develop a country; it can only help its country develop.

Ackoff, adopted in Arvind (2015)

Everyone is talking about development, but what is it in reality? One thing is certain: it has no simple meaning; development means something different to each one that speaks.

Dickbson adopted in Arvind (2015)

Nigeria as a country has been in existence for about 56 years and up-till today, efforts are still made to strategise on how to depict Nigeria with colour of development. A lot of developmental projects have been embarked upon by the actors in Nigeria since the collapse of the colonial administrations. During Obasanjo's regime in 1975, *Operation Feed the Nation* (OFN) was introduced for the purpose of

promoting national economic self-reliance through agricultural development initiatives. To achieve these aims, there is need for government to come up with plans that will address various obstacles that have been the hindrance to the accomplishment of the programmes.

However, development planning, as a long programme designed to effect some permanent structural changes in the socio-political economy, is needed to be connected to any political economy programmes of the country. This will enable government to set out objectives about the way it wants the economy to develop in the future and then try to achieve those objectives (Ejumudo, 2013). In furtherance to this, every government is expected to draw comprehensive plans periodically through which the welfare of citizens can be enhanced socially, economically and politically among others. Consequently, the goal of these plans could be to facilitate targeted growth of the spheres of life

(Ibietan & Oghator, 2013). More importantly, it is worthwhile to note that although Nigeria has undertaken national development plans in her post-independence history—the first national development plan (1962-68); the second national development plan (1981-85); the third national development plan (1975-80) and the fourth national development plan (1981-85), all these plans did not deliver the dividends of socio-political economy development to Nigeria.

In the final analysis, this work will examine the strategies involved in development administration and the planning process. Arguably, development is the top priority of the national government in virtually all *Third World Countries*. The processes of development are very popular; but the precise nature of particular development problems vary from one country to another, depending on their unique economic, social, political and cultural characteristics such as efforts made by the countries to overcome the limitations of illiteracy, improve health and nutrition, and decrease hunger.

Statement of Problem

In spite of the fact that Nigeria has drawn a lot of plans to cater for the socio-political economy of the country, efforts are still on to redress some common issues, such as poverty, unemployment, insecurity, rural-urban migration, mono-economy and social conflicts. Consequent upon this explanation, this study seeks to identify the following as major problems that affect the national development planning in Nigeria. First, the plan strategy is one of the problems facing the national development plans as it relied on the utilization of the proceeds from oil to establish the productive base of the economy. There was a fall in the oil market shortly after some plans came into effect. Second, adoption of undemocratic planning process as in the case of the transformation Agenda that called for a national conference during Jonathan's administration. Those that represented the people and the government participated in the conference without recourse to the input of the citizens. Third, inaccurate and outdated data for the planning process. Lastly, misplacement of priorities which has resulted setback successful implementation of development plans. Going by the resources at the country's disposal the government must ensure that priority should be given to programmes that will cater for the people as at when necessary rather than mass execution and implementation with no proper arrangements.

Against this backdrop, the study attempts to answer

the critical question of how has planning strategies assisted development administration in Nigeria, and seeks to examine the various strategies adopted by the government since establishment of first national development planning, and how they have assisted the economic development of the country.

Conceptual Clarification Development Administration

A meaningful discussion of development administration can only start after some definition hurdles have been cleared, since social sciences is not Mathematics in which symbols acquire universal applicability. Since, most concepts in Social Sciences take contextual meaning; such have to be explained. The term “development administration” was first used in 1955 by an Indian scholar called Goswami. The concept however was used to differentiate the administrative system needed for developing countries and the traditional administrative system which is usually concerned with the maintenance of law and order to ensure a reasonable degree of security and stability in the community (Abdulhameed, 2008). Rodney (1969) viewed development as a many-sided process; at the level of the individual, it implies increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, creativity, self-discipline, responsibility and material well-being. The implication of this definition is that the term encompasses different facets of the society, such as economic, political and social.

Todaro (2009) explains that development, as a multi-dimensional process involves the reorganizing and reorientation of the entire economic and social system. This entails, in addition to improvement of income and output, radical changes in institutional, social and administrative structures as well as in popular attitudes, customs and beliefs. The explanation of the definition given by the scholar is that development means “system structure”; that is, if the institution is well structured, it will definitely motivate other sectors to function well as expected by the society. To Seers (1969) as cited in Abdulhameed (2008), development is argued in the form of questions. That is, the questions to ask about a country's development are: what has happening to poverty? What is happening to inequality? What is happening to unemployment? If any of these issues have not declined from high levels, then beyond doubt, there is a problem of development in such country.

According to Ohagwu's study in Joseph (2014), development is not the same thing as change,

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growth or modernization, but the nature, content and course of a society. It is the choice about goals for achieving the realization of human potentials. Gboyega (2003) cited in Joseph (2014) described development as an idea that embodies all attempts to improve the conditions of human existence in all ramifications. It implies improvement in material well-being of all citizens, not the most powerful and rich alone, in a sustainable way such that today's consumption does not impede the future. It also demands that poverty and inequality of access to the good things of life be removed or drastically reduced. It seeks to improve personal physical security and livelihoods and expansion of life chances. Meanwhile, Naomi (1995) believes that development is usually taken to involve not only economic growth, but also some notion of equitable distribution, provision of health care, education, housing and other essential services, all with a view of improving the individual and collective quality of life.

Furthermore, Nwanegbo and Odigbo (2013) quoted in Joseph (Ibid) assert that development could be seen as the process of empowering people to maximize their potentials and the ability to exploit nature to meet daily human needs. It can also be seen as a process by which quality of human lives and capacity to surmount daily needs are considerably improved. The term is also a process of societal advancement where improvement in the well-being of people is generated through strong partnership between all sectors, corporate bodies and other groups in the society. It is reasonable to know that development is not only an economic exercise, but also both socio-economic and political issues and it pervades all aspects of societal life (Chrisman, 1984 in Joseph (Ibid)).

Development is not just a matter of getting more money into the hands of the poor, but ensuring that increased production, and its resulting increased income, leads to an improved standard of living (Obadan, 1988). Every meaningful, concrete and lasting development begins and ends in the focus on human resources. Human resources refers to all economic resources that are wholly and directly supplied by human beings, this includes the suppliers of labour services and entrepreneurial function. The size of the human resources depends largely on the population size while the quality is a product of educational, health services and environmental factors (Conducive environment that promotes an investment friendly platform).

Contemporary Theories in Development Administration

Arivind (2015) identified two approaches/theories on development administration. The focus of development according to him has changed over the years; keeping pace with new development theories. Once confined to the deployment of foreign aid, development administration today focuses on planned change to meet a nation's broad political, economic, social, and cultural objectives. Non-government, non-bureaucratic, religious, cultural, voluntary, and community organizations are now increasingly involved in development projects. Localized, decentralized, and participative approaches to development are being encouraged. The following are the theories/ approaches identified:

From Blue-print Approach to Learning-Process Approach

The blue print approach involves designing a specific plan of action in advance for administering a development programme. With all potential benefits, this approach is inflexible and to some extent closed-ended, with its inability to respond to the needs of a changing environment. In contrast, a learning-process approach involves a cybernetics process by which developments and incorporate mid-course corrections are based on existing local conditions. Problems are diagnosed and solutions implemented by people and administrators jointly through a process of mutual learning. This approach emphasizes planning with the people, and doing so during the process of administering a development programme.

Production-Centered Approach to a People-Centered Approach

Another trend in contemporary development administration theorizing is a shift from a production-centered to a people-centered approach to development. The production-centered development approach emphasizes production of goods and services to maximize returns on investment. This approach stresses:

- i. Industry over agriculture;
- ii. Urban development over rural development;
- iii. Utilization of capital resources over human resources;
- iv. Exploiting the environment for short-term gain over sustained harnessing of natural resources; and
- v. Establishing large-scale industries over small-scale industries.

The approach neglects the basic needs of the rural

poor in Third World countries and promotes socio-economic inequality. In the people-centered approach to development, the needs of the people take precedence over the production system. This approach views an individual not as a subject but as an actor, who defines the goals, controls the resources, and directs the processes affecting his/her life. The central themes of people-centered development are: empowerment of people; and development of an administrative process which responds to the needs of the people. The key elements in people-centered development are: Human growth and well-being; Equality; Self-reliance; Participation; and Sustainability.

Invariably, a development programme can be sustained by (a) creating a felt need among beneficiaries about the efficacy of the programme; (b) developing institutions which continually adapt; (c) providing (or self-generation) of resources; and (c) building support among political elites and community groups.

Historical Analysis of Previous National Development Plans

First National Development Plan (1962-1968)

The First National Development Plan was launched in April 1962 and it was to cover a period of six years (1962-68). Under this plan, a total investment expenditure of about N2.132 billion was proposed. Out of this, public-sector investment was expected to be about N1.352 billion, while the remaining investment expenditure of N780 million was to be undertaken by the private sector. The full implementation of this development plan was however interrupted by two major political events, namely, the military intervention in 1966 and the 1967-70 civil war. Consequently, the period of the plan was extended to March 31, 1970. Even with these major interruptions, notwithstanding, both the Federal Government and regional governments recorded a number of landmark achievements during the development plan period.

During the crisis period, the Federal Government alone successfully executed projects like the Oil Refinery in Port Harcourt, the Paper Mill, the Sugar Mill and the Niger Dam (in Jebba and Bacita respectively), the Niger Bridge, and ports' extension; while it also constructed a number of trunks 'A' roads. It is interesting to note that it was also during this period that the first-generation Universities were established in Ibadan and Lagos by the Federal Government, Ahmadu Bello University

by the Northern Nigerian Government, University of Nigeria Nsukka (UNN) by the Eastern Nigerian Government and the University of Ife (now known as the Obafemi Awolowo University) by the Western Nigerian Government. The federal and regional governments were able to achieve this much in spite of the crisis because during the period, the annual capital budgets operated within the development plan framework. They were employed as the main instrument of control and allocation of development resources (Ukertor, 2015). This was in itself made possible by the existence of a development plan which provided guidelines for meaningful and co-ordinated development during the plan period despite two political crises.

Second National Development Plan (1970-1974)

General Yakubu Gowon launched the Second National Development Plan in 1970 on behalf of the Federal Government and the government of the then twelve states of the federation. It was launched shortly after the end of the war and because it was a post-war development plan, its focus was on the reconstruction of a war-battered economy and the promotion of economic and social development in the new Nigeria. What this means, according to Ukertor (2015), is that the philosophy of the plan was consequently influenced by the exigencies of the war, which include the building of a united, strong and self-reliant nation; a great and dynamic economy; a just egalitarian society; a land of bright and full opportunities for all citizens; and a free and democratic society. Like the First National Development Plan, the Second National Development Plan also recorded a number of major projects, which were successfully executed by both the federal and state governments. Such projects include: the successful construction of many federal roads; the successful take-off of the National Youth Service Corps Scheme; the introduction of federal scholarship and loan schemes for Nigerian students, etc.

Third National Development Plan (1975-1980)

The then Military Head of State also launched the Third National Development Plan on behalf of all governments in the country. The plan covered a five-year period from April, 1975 to March, 1980. Ukertor (2015) describes this plan as a watershed in the evolution of economic planning in Nigeria. It was a unique development plan because, apart from its huge initial investment of about N30 billion (which was later revised to N43.3 billion), extensive consultations with the private sector of the economy were made in the course of its preparation.

The cardinal objectives of this plan were also part of its uniqueness. Such objectives include: increase in per capital income during the plan period; more even distribution of income; reduction in the level of unemployment; diversification of the economy; balanced development; and indigenization of economic activities. As laudable as the objectives of this development plan were, the implementation was adversely affected by the change of government in July, 1975, barely three months after the plan was launched. In particular, the change of government led to a reappraisal of some of the cardinal objectives is contained in the plan. Here, more emphasis was placed on those projects which were thought to have direct effects on the living standard of the common man. Sectors that were thus given priority included agriculture, water supply, housing and health (Ibid).

Fourth National Development Plan (1981-1985)

The Fourth National Development Plan (1981-85) was launched by President Shehu Shagari in 1981 on behalf of the Federal Government and the governments of the then nineteen states of the federation. This was the first plan to be formulated by a democratically elected government under a new constitution based on the presidential system of government. As observed by Ukertor (2015), the plan was intended to further the process of establishing solid base for the long-term economic and social development of Nigeria. Unlike the previous development plans, the fourth plan was the first in which the local governments were made to participate at two levels. One, they participated at the level of preparation, and two, they were allowed to have their own separate programmes under the plan. The capital investment target was N82.2 billion shared between the public and private sectors with the former putting in about N70.5 billion, while the latter put in the balance of N11.7 billion. The challenges of this plan were traced to the change of government in 1983 and cum the change in 1985. These two changes seriously disrupted the implementation of the programme of the plan and, consequently, the performance of the economy during the fourth plan period was generally poor. Whatever the case (success or failure), it is interesting to note that between 1945 and 1986; the concept of development planning was a common planning tool for social, economic and sustainable development in Nigeria (Abdulrosheed, 2012). The failure of this plan to maintain economic development led to the introduction of national rolling plans.

The Rolling Plan Era (1990-1998)

By 1986, it had become obvious that the National Development Plans had hit the rocks. The huge deficits of the third and fourth plans exacerbated the country's external debt situation which stood at about \$22 billion. Thus began the introduction of Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), which was basically a 'reform therapy' from the World Bank and International Monetary fund (IMF). SAP was only an economic emergency programme expected to last for two years. SAP underscored a shift from project-based to policy-based planning system and emphasized a private-sector-led economy rather than the prevailing public sector-led philosophy that had inspired previous plans. SAP, therefore, presented an opportunity for reevaluating the country's planning system as the fixed medium term planning system seem to have failed.

A three tier planning system was to succeed SAP. The new proposal consisted of: a 15-20 year Perspective or Long term Plan; and a three-year Rolling Plan. The perspective plan was to identify long term policies upon which the rolling plans and the annual budgets will derive their medium and short term programmes respectively. The Babangida Administration consequently introduced a perspective known as rolling plan. Based on this, the government decided on a 20-year perspective plan for the period of 1989-2008. According to the philosophy of this rolling plan, the first phase of the perspective plan would constitute the Fifth National Development Plan. With this structural change of policy, the five-year planning model was replaced with a three-year rolling plan to be operated along with a 12 to 20 year perspective plan and the normal operational annual budgets. This plan became operational with the 1990 budget and it provided the foundation for the three-year rolling plan (1990-92). In order to effectively execute this programme, some fundamental reforms were the merging of budgetary and planning functions with the sole objective of minimizing conflict between the two.

However, in the same way that the tradition of five-year development plan was jettisoned by the Babangida Administration, the idea of rolling plan was also shelved in 1996 by General Sani Abacha for Vision 2010, which was launched on September 18, 1996. The programme was to herald socio-economic prosperity for the citizens by systematically improving the quality of life of Nigerians in fourteen years (Ukertor, 2015). General Abacha on November 27, 1996, inaugurated a 250-member committee made up of private-sector representatives,

government ministries, academics, journalists, traditional rulers, trade union leaders and foreign businessmen, among others, shoulder the task of Vision 2010 which was similarly intended to move the country forward. The committee submitted its final report to the Head of State on September 30, 1997 recommending "large-scale deregulation of the Nigerian economy" among others. In other words, the medium term plans in Nigeria was suspended between 1985 and 1999.

Assessment of Transformation Agenda

The Transformation Agenda is a medium term development strategy to speed up the actualization of the Nigeria Vision (NV) 20:2020. It is a framework for the actualization of the Federal Government's economic growth agenda during 2011-2015. The Agenda is anchored on the pillars and targets of the NV 20:2020 and it aims to:

- i) create decent jobs in sufficient quantity to resolve the protracted problem of unemployment and reduce poverty;
- ii) lay foundation for robust and inclusive growth within the Nigerian economy; and
- iii) Improve, on a sustainable basis, the well-being of all classes of Nigerians regardless of their circumstances and location.

The four areas of focus of the Transformation Agenda are governance, human capital development, infrastructure and real sector.

First National Implementation Plan

The First National Implementation Plan (1st NIP), with the theme "Accelerating Development, Competitiveness and Wealth Creation", is a medium term plan for the actualization of the long term broad objectives and targets of the NV 20:2020. The 1st NIP is the period 2010-2013 and it aimed to bridge the infrastructural gap in the country, optimize the sources of economic growth to increase productivity and competitiveness, develop a knowledge-based economy to deepen the technology base of the country, improve governance, security law and order, and foster accelerated, sustainable social and economic development in a competitive business environment.

The 1st NIP contains priority projects and programmes of the Federal Government and investment plans for the State Governments. The total investment profile for 1st NIP is N32 trillion, with the Federal Government investing N10 trillion, and the States and Local Governments investing N9

trillion. The private sector was to invest the remaining N13 trillion. A Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) framework has been established to track progress in the implementation of the 1st NIP to ensure high performance and accountability. The M&E framework also includes a Performance Contract between the President and the Ministers/Heads of agencies, which is cascaded down the Ministries and Agencies. A National M&E Report is produced annually.

Nigeria Vision 20:2020

The [Nigeria Vision 20:2020](#) is a perspective plan; an economic business plan intended to make Nigeria one of the top 20 economies by 2020, with a growth target of not less than \$900 billion in GDP and a per capita of not less than \$4,000 per annum. The three pillars of the NV 20:2020 are:

- i) Guaranteeing the well-being and productivity of the people;
- ii) Optimizing the key sources of economic growth; and
- iii) Fostering sustainable social and economic development.

Vision 20:2020 is Nigeria's second attempt at driving the attainment of her national aspirations using long term perspective plan. In addition to the first perspective plan (Vision 2010), several strategic planning efforts have been undertaken by the Federal Government in recent years. These efforts include the Poverty Strategy Reduction Papers (PSRPs), the National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS I & II), Nigeria's Strategy for attaining the Millennium Development Goals, and the Seven Point Agenda (Onyenekenwa, 2011).

National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (NEEDS)

NEEDS is Nigeria's home-grown poverty reduction strategy (PRSP). NEEDS builds on the earlier two-year effort to produce the interim PRSP (I-PRSP), and the wide consultative and participatory processes associated with it. NEEDS is not just a plan on paper, it is a plan on the ground and founded on a clear vision, sound values, and enduring principles. It is a medium term strategy (2003-2007) but which derives from the country's long-term goals of poverty reduction, wealth creation, employment generation and value re-orientation (Onyenekenwa, 2011). NEEDS is a nationally coordinated framework of action in close collaboration with the State and Local governments (with their State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy, SEEDS) and other stakeholders to consolidate on the

achievements of the last four years (1999–2003) and build a solid foundation for the attainment of Nigeria's long-term vision of becoming the largest and strongest African economy and a key player in the world economy.

State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategy (SEEDS)

On the State level, State Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (SEEDS) are being developed to compliment NEEDS. The donor community, made up of IBRD, DFID, EU and UNDP, is taking advantage of this change to align their local programs to improve the quality of assistance to the country. Since states receive over 52% of federal resources, the National Planning Commission (NPC) in collaboration with the donors—decided to develop a system whereby state performance can be monitored using SEEDS and to identify priority areas and states that demonstrate effective use of allocated resources. The SEEDS process was launched in early 2004 and a SEEDS Manual designed by the National Planning Commission (NPC) setting out the required contents and process for an effective SEEDS was disseminated to all state via a national dissemination process involving representatives of government, civil society and the private sector at state level. Subsequently, technical assistance was offered to all state to support the development of their SEEDS by teams of consultants with relevant expertise (Onyenekenwa, 2011).

Policy Strategy

- The Federal Government together with a number of donors are committed to provide project matching grants to those states that perform well in the exercise.
- Possible debt relief is to be made available to states that perform well in the exercise.
- Increase donor presence is also one of the benefits for performing well in the exercise.
- The Federal Government together with donor partners is also committed to giving capacity support to states that perform well in the exercise.

REASONS FOR THE FAILURE OF DEVELOPMENT PLANS IN NIGERIA

Development plans in Nigeria depict western notion of development. Ejumudo (2013: 40) averred that “development plans and development initiatives did not encourage the disengagement of Nigerian economy from the exploitative structural links with western capitalist economies.” More so, these

reasons have been identified for the failure of development plans in Nigeria:

- The pattern of implementation of the development plans in Nigeria encouraged social problems, hunger, mass unemployment and social inequalities.
- Another factor is the idea of conceiving development planning as a 'big push strategy' which attempts to do everything in one plan. This hampers development efforts as resources are overstretched and little or nothing is achieved in the process (Ibiatan & Oghator, 2013).
- Lack of essential inter-ministerial and inter-disciplinary coordinating machinery; lack of proper project monitoring and revision of plans; inadequacy of professional planners due to institutionalized framework for planning; poor or inadequate feasibility studies in planning; lack of comprehensive statistics; erratic and conflicting government policies manifesting in contradictions in areas of planning; lack of proper project monitoring and revision of plans; abuse of office/corruption by public officials; high inflationary rate and geometric growth in population defeating the essence of economic forecasting in plan formulation and implementation; and political instability during military regimes which created uncertainty and retarded various projects articulated in development plans (Ibid).
- Misplacement of priorities—the policies of the post-independent plans also exhibited a basic lack of urgency. A typical example is the iron and steel industry that was in the first and second plans and was initiated for projected completion during the fourth plan. This represented a lag of twenty years; yet this project was repeatedly acclaimed the cornerstone of Nigeria's industrialization. Similar examples include petrochemicals, fertilizers, the petroleum refinery, liquefied petroleum gas and other heavy industries. While this leisurely pace persisted, the country completed such counter-productive projects like the national stadium and trade fair complex in Lagos, the FESTAC durbar hotel at Kaduna and staged the multi-million naira FASTAC itself in 1977 (Ejumudo,

2013).

- Lack of plan discipline—Nigerians seems to lack the political will to keep to our plans. While there are enough rules in the plans to enforce plan discipline, Nigerian leaders simply have a special knack for tracking development plans. Though plan projects acquired priorities since 1962, these are invariably ignored by the bureaucratic bourgeoisie in blatant demonstration of the superiority of its selfish class interests over avowed national objectives. Typical examples could be found in FESTAC which cost hundreds of millions of naira, yet nowhere in any plan document, and the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme which was not in the second plan, yet its implementation began during that plan and its critical phase commenced during the third plan. In fact, the plans of the various governments could be described as competitive in character, problem distortion and aberration in plan execution as well as under spending on directly productive projects and overspending on prestige or white elephant projects not included in the plan (Ibid).
- Lastly, public service inefficiency; lack of self-reliance; technology transfer syndrome; system corruption, inadequate executive capacity; absence of relevant data; domestic–foreign resource generation ratio; public/private sector partnership.

The Negative Effects of National Plans in the Nigerian Political Economy

Most of the national plans were undemocratic and not people-oriented, because the plans always adopted *TOP-DOWN approach* not *BOTTOM-UP approach*. Hence, the plans failed to achieve positive objectives. Undoubtedly, an attempt to evaluate most national programmes right from the political independence till today will show that input from citizens were not considered, see the oil policy removal, changing of cars' number plates, PHCN tariff, privatization of PHCN, constitutional amendment and the nature of constitution of the national conference (that is, the representatives of states, religious groups, trade and labour unions, civil society groups, etc.) as part of transformation agenda of former President, Goodluck Jonathan, neither reflected the position of the masses nor exhaustively

tackled the issues brought to the fore. Consequently, Nigeria continues to grapple with several problems which have setback national development. These include:

Poverty

Despite the fact that Nigeria is one of the countries in the world with high economic growth rates, averaging 7.4% according to the Nigeria economic report released in July 2014 by the World Bank; poverty still remains significant at 33.1% in Africa's biggest economy. For a country with massive wealth and a huge population to support commerce, the level of poverty remains unacceptable. Over the last decade, a well-developed economy in the light of natural resources such as oil should have evolved. In addition, poverty in Nigeria can be also caused by the political instability of the country. However, these programs have largely failed to overcome the three reasons for this persistent poverty: income inequality, ethnic conflict, and political instability.

Income Inequality

Income inequality rate grew from 0.43% to 0.49% between 2004 and 2009. This is correlated with differential access to infrastructure and amenities. In particular, there are more rural poor than urban poor. This results from the composition of Nigeria's economy, especially the energy (oil) and agriculture sectors. Oil exports contribute significantly to government revenues and about 15% of GDP, despite employing only a fraction of the population. Agriculture, however, contributes to about 45% of GDP, and employs close to 90% of the rural population.

This incongruence is compounded by the fact that oil revenue is poorly distributed among the population, with higher government spending in urban areas than rural areas. High unemployment rates render personal incomes even more divergent. Moreover, the process of oil extraction has resulted in significant pollution, which further harms the agricultural sector.

Long-Term Ethnic Conflict and Civil Unrest

Nigeria has historically experienced much ethnic conflict. With the return to civilian rule in 1999, militants from religious and ethnic groups have become markedly more violent. While this unrest has its roots in poverty and economic competition, its economic and human damages further escalate the problems of poverty (such as increasing the mortality rate). For instance, ethnic unrest and the displeasure of local communities with oil companies has contributed to the conflict over oil trade in the Niger Delta which threatens the productivity of oil trade.

Civil unrest might also have contributed to the adoption of populist policy measures which work in the short-run but impede poverty alleviation efforts.

Political Instability and Corruption

Nigeria's large population and historic ethnic instability has led to the adoption of a [federal government](#). The resultant fiscal decentralization provides Nigeria's state and local government's considerable autonomy, including control over 50% of government revenues, as well as responsibility for providing public services. The lack of a stringent regulatory and monitoring system has allowed for [rampant corruption](#). This has hindered past poverty alleviation efforts, and will continue to do so since resources which could pay for public goods or directed towards investment (and so create employment and other opportunities for citizens) are being misappropriated.

Bad Governance

As rightly observed by Ibrahim (2013), a report of the World Bank reveals that bad governance has many features among which are failure to make a clear separation between what is public and what is private, hence, a tendency to divert public resources for private gain; failure to establish a predictable framework for law and government behaviour that is conducive to development or arbitrariness rules, regulations, licensing requirements etc., which impede the functioning of markets and encouragement of rent seeking priorities that are inconsistent with development, thus, resulting in misallocation of resources and excessively narrow base for decision making.

Furthermore, Obadan (1988: 25) maintained that "when these features occur together they create an environment that is hostile to development. In such circumstances, he further argued that the authority of governments over their peoples tends to be progressively eroded and also bad governance by entailing corruption, and lack of accountability and transparency, provides opportunities for the well-connected elites and interest groups in the society to corner for themselves a sizeable proportion of the society's resources at the expense of the masses." Indeed, the above descriptions symbolically represent the nature of Nigerian fourth republic.

Conclusion

Summing this discourse, this paper notes that Development administration in Nigeria embraced various policies and programmes that were designed to promote social welfare by creating employment opportunities, more managerial opportunities, and

provision of necessary infrastructure. All these could be found in the planning agenda of first national development plan. The second national development plan was designed to check the modality for united, strong and self-reliant nation. Instructively, the national development plans have similar features that illuminate development programmes right from colonial administration to the current political system but proper implementation was a major problem due to lack of political will and over-burden of the planning process.

Recommendations

In the light of the foregoing discourse, this paper therefore proffer possible solutions to the problems encountered in the previous national plans in Nigeria. First, concrete and conscious efforts must be made to ensure that for any national plan, government must carefully prioritise and show commitment to the proposed programmes. Second, in planning for development, proper record must be kept for programmes. Here in Nigeria, there should be available accurate and updated data base to show the actual population of people within geographical locations for appropriate plans to be made. Third, the plan should be based on the resources available so that it will not be cumbersome for execution and implementation. Finally, well trained officers should be engaged in the planning process, with zero-tolerance for nepotism.

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MANAGING CHANGES IN ORGANIZATIONAL EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT: THE ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGERS

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Abstract

This paper adopted an analytical and qualitative method in examining the role of human resource managers in managing changes in organizational external environment. Various researches, conference papers, survey reports, current discourses on human resource management were examined against current trends on change management as it affects organizational external environment. Today's organizational external environment is characterized by changes which are complex, uncertain, volatile, and dynamic. To thrive and survive, organizations therefore rely on its talent pipeline; human resources, as it is the human factor that drives and implements change. The response to and management of changes from organizational external environment is a core area requiring business partnering by the human resource management function. Given the fast pace of changes in the external environment facing organizations, human resource managers must keep with the pace if they are to succeed and remain relevant. The paper concluded that changes are inevitable in organizations and the human resource management field is not exempted from such changes. Hence, human resource managers and administrators (both practitioners and professionals) as the stewards and experts in people and change practices in the organization must re-invent themselves so as to stay relevant, valued, and strategic in the organization of the future.

Keywords: Change, Environment, External Environment, Human Resource, Organization

INTRODUCTION

Organizations around the world are experiencing disrupting changes in the external environment as well as the demand for critical skills. The year 2014 saw organizations leaving the recession and positioning themselves aggressively for growth. The 21st century workforce is global, highly connected, technology-driven, and demanding. Critical skills are scarce and their uneven distribution around the globe is forcing organizations to develop innovative ways to find people, develop capabilities and share expertise. According to Global Human Capital Survey (2014), company executives rank building workforce capability as one of the three top challenges facing their organization over the following 18 months.

The Conference Board's 2014 survey of global CEO challenges ranked human capital issues as the number one challenge (Charan, Barton & Carey, 2015). Estimates are that about one-third of the issues discussed at the board level are HR related (e.g., succession planning, talent review, executive compensation, governance, strategy execution, ethics, and culture). One of the ways to assess a company's competitiveness is to understand their human resource and workforce capabilities (Mallon

et al., 2012 as cited in Nkogbu, 2015). Companies that can attract, retain and develop deep, specialized skills are generally well positioned to outperform their peers (GHCS, 2014).

As the environment in which businesses operate become more complex, uncertain, volatile, ambiguous and dynamic-CUVAD, skills evolve and become obsolete rapidly. In the Global Human Capital Survey (2014), 75 % respondents rated workforce capabilities as "urgent" or "important" whereas only 15% of the respondents believe that their organizations are "ready" to address the challenge. This capability gap results from: many organizations believe they can fill their capability gap by the traditional approach, i.e. "hiring the right person" in their current markets; it takes many years to develop deep skills within the workforce and; many organizations have not built development programmes that create capabilities in a continuous way. Robust capabilities are built through continuous education, experience, exposure, and the right environment.

The latest trend is to replace the annual training and development planning cycle with a "supply chain" approach to developing workforce capabilities. This involves a systematic continuous process rather than

a "once and done" annual event. Under a supply chain approach, organizations examine their capabilities at levels and projects gap into the coming years. Once these gaps are visible, organizations can focus on which skills they will need and where they might need them.

Numerous studies have reported that the external environment in which organizations is complex, uncertain, volatile, ambiguous and dynamic (Nkogbu, 2015; Bennet & Lemoine, 2014; CIPD, 2014; Johansen, 2007). Societies continue to evolve with changing values. Factors such as science and technology, economic, social and cultural have significant impact on organizations, individual capabilities, work, and human capital stock. Thus, new organizational strategies need to be fluid and 'co-opetition' (to co-operate and compete at the same time). The impact of these trends and trajectories (external environment) will vary for different organizations. However, all organizations must respond if they are to survive and thrive. Consequently, human resource managers and administrators have a crucial role to play in managing these changes emanating from the external environment of organizations.

Changes in Organizational External Environment: Challenges for the Human Resource Profession

Today's business landscape is characterized by a new "norm" of fast-paced change related to advancing technology, skill shortages, economic flux, competitive pressures, the global competition for talent, and demographic shifts, to name but a few. These changes coupled with technology have enable information to flow rapidly around the world and to dramatically change when, where, and how we live and work. We inhabit global villages where events in any one part of the world quickly become news and actionable everywhere. Global changes affect all aspects of our personal and professional lives. As Jack Welsh noted, "If the rate of change on the outside exceeds the rate of change on the inside, the end is near."

Given this turbulent landscape, leaders of change management as well as an organization's change capability need to be constantly evolving. In fact, the ability to manage unpredictable change demands is commonly cited as the biggest factor separating high and low performing organizations. The human resource profession is thus at a crossroads. Over the last few years, digital and internet technologies have radically changed the way we work, requiring a

tremendous change in all areas of human resources (Ulrich, Schiemann, & Sartain, 2015). The latest global research of HR Certification Institute shows that business and human resource (HR) leaders have three major challenges: building and strengthening the new and changing leadership pipeline; finding ways to reengage employees and build a strong global culture in a world of never-ending work; and reskilling the HR function itself. These changes therefore puts the human resource managers/administrators in a critical position. This is against the background of the following challenges arising from such changes:

i. Transparency of all people data: Almost all human resource or personnel related information is now freely shared on the internet. LinkedIn is an open recruiting tool that enables recruiters find and contact more than 500 million professionals at almost no cost; and a flurry of new tools are now enabling employees to share their salaries, rate their managers, and talk about what it's like to work at their company. Employees expect transparency in HR practices as well as from leadership. The hack of Sony Pictures Entertainment in the United States of America in 2014 reveals a challenge to human resource managers and the need for proactiveness in terms of management of employee data and information.

ii. Accelerated expectations for careers: The expectation of organizations giving employees a lifetime career has all suddenly disappeared. Job security is no longer guaranteed due to globalization and uncertainties characterizing the economies of nations as well as the world of work. In his book *The Alliance*, Reid Hoffman, chairman and founder of LinkedIn, writes that:

...we have entered a world where workers are like professional athletes. They work for a company and contribute for a while, but when needs change, they move to another team, taking their skills and expertise with them. So the concept of "job" has changed and organizations have to manage their teams in a world of a rapidly changing, mobile, contingent working economy. Companies now have to move beyond "succession management" to putting in place what we call programs for "facilitated talent mobility."

iii. Employees are overwhelmed: The barriers between work and life have gone away. A National Journal poll (2014) found that more than 40 percent of all workers today believe it is impossible to get ahead in their career without significantly sacrificing time with their family and personal life.

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In this vein, companies are struggling to deal with this issue.

iv. New Models of Leadership: One of the most important roles HR plays is the development and support of the leadership pipeline. But leadership styles and needs today are radically different from the traditional models pioneered by General Electric (GE) and International Business Machine (IBM) organizations in the last few decades. Leaders must be agile, globally aware, innovative, and highly collaborative. While the top-down hierarchical structure still exists in most companies, more and more research shows that it is empowerment and agility that drive success in today's economy.

v. The Enormous Power of Data and Science: Finally, HR must come to grip with the fact that data and science are going to transform much of what we do. Many of the "gut feel" decisions made by management (and HR) are soon to be replaced by data-driven decisions: who to hire, who to promote, what career paths to facilitate, how much to pay people—and even where to locate a facility, how big an office someone needs, and what type of food we should serve in the cafeteria. All these decisions, many of which were made by HR working with leadership, can now be informed by data and science, making the "datafication of HR" a new and urgent priority (Bersin, 2013). Within this context, the new trend is HR analytics which every human resource manager and administrator must be conversant with if they are to retain their job and be relevant in their organizations.

Organizational External Environment, the Organization's Response, and the Role of Human Resource Managers

The External Environment of Organizations: Today's organizational external environment comprises a kaleidoscope of change. As Peter Drucker (1973) noted, "the only thing we know about the future is that it will be different." The external environment of organizations comprising economic, science and technology, social, political and cultural variables all have impacts on organizations. Globalization has further integrated economies across nations thus making economies of various countries integrated and interdependent on one another. Global economic prosperity and value is redefined by sustainability which in turn impacts upon nation's economic development strategies and economies (Deloitte, 2010). The pace of science and technology is unparalleled. The increasing global

interconnectivity and workplace diversity have necessitated a sophisticated organizational response (EIU, 2014) and puts adaptability at the center of organizational strategies (Davies, Fidler & Gorbis, 2011).

The impacts of change drivers in the external environment are multi-fold and far-reaching. The changes are multi-fold as they may impact both organizations and individuals at the same time, albeit in varied ways. They are far-reaching as they may transform the way work is performed and the skills required.

Characteristics of the External Environment of Organizations: The characteristics of the external environment of organizations is described with the acronym meaning complex, uncertain, volatile, ambiguous, and dynamic. They are explained briefly below.

1. Complexity: The external environment has many interconnected parts that can be overwhelming and confounding. It consists of several systems which have influence on the organization.
2. Uncertainty: The organizational external environment is characterized by unprecedented trends which means that long-term trajectories are more difficult to predict.
3. Volatility: The external environment is unstable and presents challenges that are unexpected at great speed.
4. Ambiguity: The external environment is hazy with many unknown unknowns and cause-and-effects are unclear.
5. Dynamic: It means that external environment is unstable and is in a continuous change which cannot be determined with precision.

The Organization's Response: To meet and respond to the CUVAD challenges in the external environment, organizations must be adaptive, agile and ambidextrous. To be adaptive, organizations need to be attuned to the external environment so as to sense and recognize changes and their various implications. Recognition for the need and type of change should be followed by the ability to internally accommodate and assimilate the change as the first step in adapting to the new environment.

To be completely adaptive to its environment, an organization also needs to be agile. Agility is the dynamic capability of an organization to change strategic direction and organizational competencies. Agility also involves being flexible and fast in integrating new ways of working to operate in the

new landscapes and rules of the game. The ability to both change and manage change is vital, but arguably an effective working environment requires an element of stability.

Alongside the need for agility, organizations need to keep core operations functioning, which are likely to require an element of stability in both people practices and processes. So how does an organization balance the need for stability, while at the same time equipping itself to face a CUVAD environment? The answer is to do both at the same time. Organizations must be ambidextrous in their operations and learning. This is a balancing act that involves concurrently exploiting present capabilities while being explorative in breaking with the past and ready for new opportunities and trajectories of development (CIPD, 2013b).

The Role of Human Resource Managers in Managing Changes From Organizational External Environment:

Human resource management functions and practices can play a decisive role in supporting organizations in becoming adaptive, agile and ambidextrous. Within the premise of human resource management functions, human capital development and management is one among the many ways through which human resource managers responds to changes in the external environment. The CIPD's 2014 Learning and Development survey suggests that closer integration of Learning and Development (L&D) activity and business strategy is anticipated (CIPD, 2014). To do so, learning and development must be commercially and organizationally savvy in affecting and aligning with organizational goals and strategy.

Human resource managers must also be versatile in swiftly responding to organizational changes and by playing different roles, and be ubiquitous through being omnipresent by operating within different parts of organizations (for example divisions, departments, strategic and operational levels). Thus, human resource managers support organizational response to the external environment by being savvy, affecting and aligned, versatile, and ubiquitous.

Savvy: By being savvy, human resource managers will be able to further contribute to the strategic direction of the organization as well as to take the initiative in helping organizations to be adaptive and agile. By being proactive, human resource managers will be able to anticipate the future needs of the organization, thereby enabling the organization to be

swift in taking advantage of opportunities or addressing threats.

The call for HR professionals to be business, organizational and context-savvy extends to Human Resource Management and Human Capital Development (HCD) professionals and practitioners (CIPD, 2012a; Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) 2012; The RBL Group, 2012). They must understand the 'business' model and be commercially discerning. Possessing business acumen is crucial as it informs HRM/HCD professionals and practitioners on how best to position itself within the organization and what practices to adopt in supporting human capital development through learning and development. It is also equally as important for human capital development professionals and practitioners to demonstrate this 'business-savviness' in gaining the confidence of senior management in further elevating its status as a trusted adviser and partner. In addition to being business-savvy, HRM/HCD professionals and practitioners must also be organizationally savvy. They must be able to effectively work with the processes, people, politics and other organizational realities.

It is also imperative that HRM/HCD professionals and practitioners be context-savvy as this helps develop understanding of the general attitudes, expectations and needs of learners. Using technology as an example, being context-savvy helps HRM/HCD professionals and practitioners to better understand and potentially gain more insight to how best to leverage technology in learning, talent and organizational development, and/ or knowledge management. The context for HRM/HCD that underpins the selection and drives the application of technology is equally important. It is not about having the latest and greatest technology, but it is about fitness, which can only be attained if HRM/HCD professionals and practitioners are savvy about the business, the organization and the context. Thus, the rationale for "strategic-fit" of technology in human resource functions is very important.

Affecting and Aligned: A savvy human resource function will also position itself as a highly influential *strategic leader* and as an *effective change agent*. These are two different but complementary roles that HRM must assume. HRM must be able to shape organizational direction. However, once a new strategic direction has been set, it must be able to

change and align its processes and practices with the new direction. Relational capability HRM and HCD professionals and practitioners is a key ability for the future (Centre for Tomorrow's Company, 2014). Relationship management is already a core competency in the HCD functions of some organizations (CIPD, 2013b; SHRM 2012). Thus, human resource managers and human capital development practitioners and professionals must be skilled catalysts in building coalitions and gaining support from diverse stakeholders (CIPD, 2014a).

In terms of alignment, this involves HRM/HCD being extensively connected to the organization's business and strategic direction, including developing the 'right' culture for an organization in order to be adaptive, agile and ambidextrous. It further involves changing behaviours and attitudes relating to knowledge-sharing, creativity and risk-taking (innovation). In addition, alignment helps to reinforce the crucial role that HRM plays, which in turn helps to further elevate its status as a strategic leader and aids its ability in affecting strategic direction.

Versatile: Human resource management must be versatile in adopting different roles across different organizational settings. The roles are those of being a change agent and champion in 'developing' and aligning organizational culture with the organizational strategy. HRM must be versatile in playing other strategic roles, such as boundary-spanners, capacity-builders and integrators. At the divisional or departmental level, HR managers are now expected to play the role of consultants that troubleshoot to enhance business performance.

Boundary-spanning role involves linking and coordinating an organization with external parties and elements. Capacity-building role refers to developing an organization's aptitude to learn, as well as having the time and space to do so. The third strategic role of HR manager is that of an integrator. Supporting organizations through turbulent times requires an all-round response by human resource managers. This is so as the differences amongst learning and development, talent development, organizational development, change management and knowledge management become less distinct. Human resource management may be the orchestrator of relationships and a conduit for learning, knowledge and innovation.

Ubiquitous: The versatility of the human resource management function helps it to effectively operate in various parts of an organization. It is argued that human capital development is only able to fulfil the

previous roles discussed if it is ubiquitous across the organization (Loon, 2014). Human resource management/ human capital development ubiquity is about having a presence in different parts of an organization's landscape. This helps HRM learn about the unique opportunities and challenges faced by various divisions/departments. Such knowledge helps human resource managers to better identify broader performance issues that a business unit may be experiencing.

In addition to developing a deep understanding of each organizational area and having a bird's eye view, the ubiquity of the HRM function is necessitated by the overlap with other organizational support functions such as organizational development. By being ubiquitous, HRM is able to promote its 'offerings and solutions' to different parts of the organization to achieve other goals. HRM interventions and practices can influence employee engagement and retention, leadership development, motivation, and help to enhance social capital (Sheehan, Garavan, & Carbery 2014). In relation to its boundary-spanning role, HRM functions should also increasingly develop a presence external to its respective organization.

In summary, the roles of human resource managers in managing changes in organizational external environment are change champion, change agent, change manager, boundary spanner, capacity builder, an integrator, and an aligner.

Conclusion

The need for organizations to manage change from the external environment cannot be over-emphasized. Many organizations have gradually phased out while others have collapsed due to their inability to respond to and manage change. Within this purview, Senge (2003) as cited in (Gbe, 2011) stated that "organizations should dance for change", so long as the change will make the present good and the future even better. This is why Senge suggested that transforming the organization can only be possible through systems thinking, value appreciation, creativity and innovation, rewarding excellence, sanctioning errors/non-compliance and mastery learning among others.

This paper concludes that changes are inevitable in organizations and the human resource management field is not exempted from such changes. Thus, there is no question that the digital transformation of business will continue to accelerate. How we (HR) work, what we do, and how computers and

datainform and aid our jobs will continue to change over time. Hence, human resource managers and administrators (both practitioners and professionals) as the stewards and experts in people and change practices in the organization must re-invent themselves so as to stay relevant, valued, and strategic in the organization of the future.

The Way Forward

Researches and evidences in global organizations have shown that the external environment of organizations is characterized by lots of changes, many of which are unpredictable and uncertain (Charan, Barton & Carey, 2015; Ulrich, **Schiemann & Sartain; 2015; Loon, 2014**). This is a clarion call to human resource managers to be more proactive and must be strategically thinking ahead. How will human resource managers manage these changes? To manage these changes arising from the external environment of organizations, HR managers should:

1. Educate Themselves and Re-invent Traditional Practices.

HR managers as well as HR teams must become more educated and professionally conversant in the digital world of business. Today's organizations are flooded with new tools and technologies for work, new ways of working, and a deluge of multigenerational work issues. Old-fashioned HR practices, many of which were developed around the turn of the century, simply have to be re-engineered. Performance management, compensation models and traditional succession management methods amongst many others need to be re-invented.

2. Become Facile with Technology, Data, and Research.

The HR organization of today is highly enabled and empowered by technology. This means HR professionals must be familiar with software, data, analytics, mobile tools, and all the vendors building innovative solutions. Today, mobile collaboration tools, mobile recruiting tools, and predictive analytics tools are among the most important parts of the HR ecosystem. People in the HR function must feel comfortable with technology and be willing to learn and look at data. According to some Chief Human Resource Officer (CHRO), "they are no longer hiring anyone into HR who does not have at least a working set of expertise in statistics." We in HR must be

vigilant of new technology and constantly research and study how it impacts the workplace and all our management practices (Charan, Barton & Carey, 2015).

3. Turn Themselves Outward into the Business.

As we re-invent what we do and what we know, we have to re-invent where we spend our time. Technology is now making more and more of the "generalist" function available to people online or through a service centre (e.g., managing my benefits, viewing vacation days, etc.). Self-service cloud-based HR technology is what we call a "system of engagement," meaning it is now designed to let individual employees and managers serve themselves (Bersin, 2013). This means that HR managers/teams must become business advisors, consultants, and expert specialists in their domain. Our job is no longer to be a "generalist" waiting for someone to help, but rather a trusted business advisor, trained with excellent skills and connected to what we call "networks of expertise" (not just centres of expertise). The HR professional of today is more likely to be a talent expert, a technology expert, and a consultant.

4. Today More Than Ever, HR Professionals should focus on three categories of skills: how to recruit, develop, and manage people; how to organize, enable, and improve the organization; and how to manage, leverage, and exploit data and technology. HR is a "craft" and these skills are learned over time, through apprenticeship, and through study and research. If we think about the talent and technologies now impacting HR, these are difficult feats to accomplish, so the bar has been raised for everyone in our profession.

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A PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF GOVERNANCE AND FOOD SECURITY IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

The study examined governance and food security in Nigeria between 1996 and 2014 using Principal Component Analysis and Generalized Method of Moments. The study used market capitalization, profit after tax, sales and constructed production index to capture food security and agricultural production in Nigeria, and ownership concentration as a measure of governance. The result showed that governance has a positive and significant relationship with food security and agricultural production in Nigeria. The study concluded by emphasizing the importance of management and governance in Nigeria in order to achieve food security and high agricultural production. Farmers need not only to be properly equipped, educated, empowered, but also monitored so as to enhance food security and agricultural production on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

Keywords: Food Security, Agricultural Production, Agency Theory, and Governance.

INTRODUCTION

Food is life. Nigeria, though blessed with enormous agricultural resources is now one of the major food importers in Africa. Annually, Nigeria spends over USD3 billion to import food despite the country's excess arable land, enormous sources of irrigation, and suitable climate for food cultivation. For instance, Nigeria requires about 2.5 million metric tons of rice in a year while local rice production is less than half a million metric tons annually. In fact, the Senate of Nigeria is presently deliberating on stoppage of waivers on rice importation and agricultural products (NACCIMA, 2015; Idachaba, 2009; Davies, 2009; Ogunrinade, 2009; Ikpe, 2003; Clover, 2003; Rentlinger, 1983; Atinmo & Adeniran, 1999; Adeoti, 1989).

In 2014, Nigeria emerged the 26th economy of the world and the largest in Africa, having rebased her gross domestic product from 1990 to 2010 figure of USD 509 billion. However the agricultural contribution to GDP has fallen from 35 per cent to 22 per cent (Robert, 2014; Oluwatoba, 2014).

Meanwhile, governance can be defined as key mechanisms that protect the interests of all stakeholders. Charles, Okehahalem and Oludeele (2003), and Akinpelu, (2010) noted that governance focuses on the process, system, practice, procedure as well as formal and informal rules that exist in an institution, the way the rules are managed, the relationships they create and the nature of these relationships. Therefore, the question of what nature

of relationship exists among food security, agricultural production and governance in Nigeria arises.

As a response, the study examines the effect of food security and agricultural production on governance in Nigeria. The remainder of this paper is arranged as follows: Section 2 focuses on the literature review; section 3 specifies and discusses the methodology, the sources of data and measurement of variables. Section 4 discusses the results while section 5 presents the conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Definition of Concepts

Governance: Governance is a key element for improving economic efficiency, growth as well as enhancing investor confidence. It involves a set of relationships between a firm's management, its board, its shareholders and other stakeholders such as employees, customers, communities where they operate (Akinpelu, 2010).

Food Security: Food security can be defined as a situation "when all people at all times have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life" (World Food Summit, 1996). In other words, it can be defined as including both physical and economic access to food that meets people's dietary needs as well as their food preferences (World Food Summit, 1996).

Agency Theory

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Agency theory started with Berleand Means (1932). Many researchers linked it back to Jensen and Meckling (1976) while others to Adam Smith's publication titled *Wealth of Nations* (1976). Adam Smith noted that the agency problem is often present in firms and firm's managers are not likely to be very committed to other people's wealth just like their own. The theory maintains separation of a firm's ownership and control. The theory further explains that shareholders possess the firm, but the managers control it. In the view of Jensen and Meckling, agency relationship is a form of contract between shareholders of the firm and its managers. This is a situation where owner (principal) engages agent (managers) to manage the firm for them. As part of this contractual relationship, the firm's owner delegates decision-making of the firm to the management. However, firm's governance rests on the conflicts of interests between the ownership of the firm and the managers (Jensen & Meckling, 1976).

According to Coyle (2003), the shareholder approach is strengthened by company law in developed countries, and its emphasis is based on the fact that board of directors should govern the firm in the best interest of the owners (shareholders). This implies that the main objective of a firm is the maximization of the shareholders' profits in form of share price, dividend payment, and firm's growth. The board of directors should be responsible to the firm's owners (shareholders), who have power to remove them from their offices in case of poor performance. In addition, the revised edition on corporate governance principle worldwide (the International Corporate Governance Network (ICGN) (2005) noted that the overriding sole objective of the firm is to optimize the return to shareholders and that the corporate governance practices should enforce that boards focus their attention on this sole objective (Akinpelu, 2012).

Stakeholder Theory

An alternative view of the Agency theory is the Stakeholder theory which holds that the objective of the corporate governance is not just to meet the demand of the shareholders, but also to have regard for the interest of other individuals, agents and groups that have a stake in the firm, including the public at large. This is because some researchers argued that the objective of the principal-agent relationship appears to focus mainly on the interest of the shareholders. That is, managers are solely concerned with shareholders who are interested only

in short-term benefit and consequently neglect the long-term benefits. Blair (2005) described this as 'market myopia'.

According to OECD (2004), there is a public policy perspective towards corporate governance as well as a corporate perspective. That is, from a public policy perspective, the corporate governance is about nurturing enterprise while ensuring accountability in the exercise of power and patronage by firms. The role of public policy is to provide firms with the incentives and discipline to minimise the divergence between private and social returns and protect the interests of stakeholders. Stakeholder theory began in the 1970s and one of the management discipline exponents of the stakeholder theory was Freeman who enacted the general theory of firm, and incorporating the corporate accountability to many stakeholders (Freeman, 2001). Since then, the stakeholder theory has received a wide attention across wide disciplines. The importance of firms in the public has received great attention, with their effects on employees, the local environment, the urban communities, and their shareholders. Environmental and social entities that collected information on firms' activities have focused on firms that have treated their stakeholder in unethical ways (Akinpelu, 2012).

According to stakeholder theory, corporate governance can be described as ways of achieving a balance of economic and social objectives and a balance between communal and individual objectives. The theory further emphasizes that corporate governance should recognised the importance of the economic imperative being faced by firms in the competitive environment, and should encourage efficient use and allocation of scarce resources through proper investment strategy. It should also involve proper accountability from board of directors to shareholders, in giving stewardship of their offices regarding the scarce resources entrusted into their hands; and also in the interest of other stakeholders who may be non-financial members of the firm. At large, the major objective of corporate governance according to stakeholder's theory should be to recognise and protect the interest of other people, firms, and society in the day to day decision-making and activities of the firm.

However, the major weakness of the stakeholder theory is that since company law provides certain rights and some legal duties for both shareholder and board of directors toward their firm, there has to be company legislation in support of the theory for it to work. The view of the supporters of

stakeholder theory is called the Pluralist approach. Pluralist approach states that the productive and cooperative relationship in firm will only be optimized if the directors are allowed or obliged to balance the interest of the shareholders with the interest of other stakeholders who are related to the firm. It should be noted that if the stakeholder is well accommodated in the company law, it is likely that in most circumstances, the interest of stakeholders will take precedence over shareholders' interest but the director will equally be allowed to take his stand. Again, it should be taken into cognisance that company law cannot protect all the interest of the shareholders as done by employment law, health safety, and environmental law (Akinpelu, 2012).

METHODOLOGY

Agency cost theory predicts that governance is expected to lower agency costs, reduce inefficiency and thereby lead to improvement in firm's production and performance (Jensen, 1976). In his study, Berger (2002) used a pooling panel data procedure to test the relationship between food security, agricultural production and governance. Panel data involves the pooling of observation on a cross-section of units over several times over a period of time. A panel data approach is better than either time-series or cross-section data alone. This is because panel data controls for individual heterogeneity are due to hidden factor, which if neglected in time-series or cross-section; estimations would lead to biased results (Baltagi, 2005). This study adopts the model used by Onaolapo (2010), Ali (2011), and Nour (2012). The model for this study is therefore given as:

$$Y_{it} = f(X_{it}) \tag{Equ (1)}$$

Where Y_{it} = vector of governance characteristics,
 X_{it} = vector of food security and agricultural production.

Equ (1) can be written as:

$$Gov_{it} = f(FSAP_{it}) \tag{Equ (2)}$$

Where:

Gov_{it} = Governance characteristics
 $FSAP_{it}$ = Food Security and Agricultural Production.

Equ (2) then becomes

$$Y_{it} = \alpha_{it} + \beta_1 X_{it} + \beta_2 Z_{it} + \mu_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{Equ (3)}$$

where:

α_{it} represents constant term and β_1 and β_2 are coefficient of explanatory variables,
 Z_{it} represents control variables
 μ_{it} is the unobserved firm specific effect and

ϵ_{it} is the error term. It has zero mean, constant variance and is non-auto correlated.

Logarithms of both dependent and independent variables are taken because of the possibility of non-linear relationship.

This study used the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) estimators for estimation proposed for the dynamics of adjustment that were developed by Arellano-Bond (1991) and Blundell-Bond (1998). The reason for using this technique is to correct for endogeneity problem in the model. Evaluating equation (1) using Ordinary Least Square could give biased result because of endogeneity problem, where both the dependent and independent variables would influence each other. In order to solve this endogeneity problem, exogenous instrumental variables are needed, but using such exogeneous variable for a two-staged least squares estimation could also produce biased estimates as exogeneous instrumental variable may be weak. To resolve this problem, Arellano and Bond (1991) proposed the use of Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) in order to have more efficient estimates where lagged values of the independent variables serve as instrumental variables. This approach is adopted in this empirical estimation, lagged value of independent variables are used as instrument variable.

Equ 3 can now be written as:

$$Y_{i,t} = \lambda Y_{i,t-1} + \beta_1 \text{Mark.Cap}_{i,t} + \beta_2 \text{Sales}_{it} + \beta_3 \text{PAT}_{it} + \beta_4 \text{PI}_{it} + \beta_5 \text{Size}_{it} + \mu_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \tag{Equ (4)}$$

where:

Mark.Cap = Market Capitalization,
 PAT = Profit After Tax.
 PI = Production Index

Computation of a Production Index Using Principal Components Analysis

The Principal Component Analysis can be defined as a multivariate statistical method that can be used to lower the number of variables without dropping too many data or information. It is good in producing fewer numbers of variables that describe most of the variation in the original variables. The new variables produced are linear combinations of the original variables, and the new variables will exhibit as much variation as possible in the original data (Fukunaga, 1990; Jolliffe, 2002; Miranda, Le Borgne & Bontempi, 2008).

Assuming that R^{th} variables J_1, \dots, J_r are measured in D^{th} firm performance measures. Then the R^{th} principal components G_1, \dots, G_j are uncorrelated linear combinations of the original variables,

X_1, \dots, X_j , given as:

$$Q_1 = \partial_{11}J_1 + \partial_{12}J_2 + \dots + \partial_{1r}J_r$$

Equ 4

$$Q_2 = \partial_{21}J_1 + \partial_{22}J_2 + \dots + \partial_{2r}J_r$$

Equ 5

$$Q_j = \partial_{j1}J_1 + \partial_{j2}J_2 + \dots + \partial_{jr}J_r$$

Equ 6

These equations can be written as $z = Ax$ where $z = G_1, \dots, G_r$, $x = J_1, \dots, J_r$, and A is the matrix of coefficients.

The coefficient of PCA $\partial_{11}, \dots, \partial_{1r}$, are selected in such a manner that the variance of G_1 is maximized subject to the constrained that $\partial_{11}^2 + \dots + \partial_{1r}^2 = \gamma_1$, which represents the variance of the component is equal to γ_1 . γ_1 is the highest eigen value of matrix A . Also, the second principal component is completely uncorrelated with the first component and its variance equals γ_2 . γ_2 is also the highest value of matrix A but this component describes additional but less variation in the original variable than the first component given the same constraint. In addition, other principal components (up to r) are described in the same way. The squares of the coefficients of principal components sum up to one and each is uncorrelated with the other.

Reasons for Constructing a Performance Index through Principal Component Analysis

This study used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) to reduce the number of variables used to measure firm performance without losing too much information. PCA is efficient in generating fewer numbers of variables that explain most of the variations in the original measures of food security and agricultural production, i.e. market capitalisation, sales, and profit after tax. Principal Component Analysis is a way of identifying patterns in data, and expressing the data in such a way as to highlight their similarities and differences (Fukunaga, 1990; Jolliffe, 2002; Miranda, Le Borgne & Bontempi, 2008).

Sources of Data

This study used secondary data from the Nigerian Stock Exchange for the period 1996–2014. A sample of seven non-financial quoted firms was

purposely selected based on data availability. The sampled firms were from Agricultural and Food/Beverage sectors of Nigerian Stock Exchange.

Measurement of Variables

The following indices were used as measures of firm performance:

Gov represents corporate governance measured by ownership concentration.

FSAP represents food security and agricultural production measured by market capitalization, sales, and profit after tax.

PI represents firm production index computed through Principal Component Analysis.

Mrk. Cap. represents Market capitalization of firm on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

Sales represent the total sales of firm on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

PAT represents the Profit after Tax of firm on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

Size represents the Natural logarithm of total assets

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

We first examined the summary statistics of all our variables in Table 1 in the Appendix. Table 2 shows the regression analysis among food security, agricultural production and governance. The coefficient of determination (R^2) reveals that 91.7% of the firm's governance is explained by the variables in the model. The model is statistically significant at 5% level of significance. The table also reveals that the governance measured by ownership concentration has positive significant relationships with market capitalization, sales, profit after tax, size and production index. This shows that one per cent increase in governance measured by ownership concentration will promote 1.27e-8 per cent increase in market capitalization; it will also promote 1.97e-22 per cent increase in sales, 1.34e-20 per cent increase in profit after tax, 0.67 per cent increase in size, and 8 per cent increase in constructed production index. This finding is also consistent with Bitu and Mohammad (2008); Ahamadu and Tukur (2005); Tornyeva and Wereke (2012); Khaliq Ur and Muhammad, (2013); Beiner, Wolfgang, Markus, Schmid and Heinz (2006); Black (2003); La Porta, Lopez-de-Silanes, Shleifer and Vishney (2002); and Drobetz, Schillhofer and Zimmerman (2003). This supports agency theory which states that corporate governance can be used to align the interest of managers (farmers) with shareholders to improve firm performance (agricultural productivity).

Table 2: System GMM of Food Security, Agricultural Production and Governance.

	Independent Variables				
	Mark.Cap	Sales	PAT	P.I	Size
L1	.6112108** (0.001)	.6112108** (0.001)	.6112108** (0.001)	.6112108** (0.001)	.6112108** (0.001)
Gov	1.27e-10** (0.021)	1.97e-24** (0.001)	1.34e-22** (0.021)	.0805283** (0.060)	.0067793 (0.657)
Instrument Rank	61	61	61	61	61
No of observation	112	112	112	112	112
R ²	0.917	0.917	0.917	0.917	0.917
F	5.57**	5.57**	5.57**	5.57**	5.57**

** indicates 5% level of significance. Values in parenthesis are t-statistics.

Sources: Data Analysis.

CONCLUSION

This study examined the relationship between food security and agricultural production on governance in Nigeria between 1996 and 2014. Based on the empirical analysis of this study, the findings showed the corporate governance measured by ownership concentration has a positive and significant relationship with food security and agricultural production. This implies governance aligns the interests of both the farmers and all stakeholders to improve food security and agricultural production. This shows the importance of governance and management of farmers in order to achieve food security and high agricultural production. Farmers need not only to be properly equipped, educated, empowered, but also monitored so as to enhance food security and agricultural production on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are therefore made based on the findings and conclusion of this study.

- a. The Nigerian government through agricultural agencies should strengthen the governance and management of farmers in the country in order to enhance food security.
- b. The government through the Nigerian Stock

Exchange should encourage the ownership of listed agricultural firms in order to promote the profitability of the sector, and to attract more investors.

- c. More so, the government should participate as a farmer listed on the Nigerian stock Exchange, as this will encourage the governance and ownership of the sector, thus promoting food security in the country.
- d. Farmers need not only to be properly equipped, educated, empowered, but monitored so as to enhance food security and agricultural production on the Nigerian Stock Exchange.

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APPENDIX

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics.

Variable	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
gov	152	.4407895	.498123	0	1
pat	152	2067945	3871502	-4665459	1.69e+07
sales	152	7.49e+08	1.26e+09	28144.72	4.56e+09
mark.cap	152	1.48e+08	4.54e+08	55600	3.66e+09
size	133	17.05678	3.712888	10.24512	22.02135

Source: Data Analysis.

E-GOVERNMENT IN NIGERIA: PROGRESS AND PROSPECTS

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Abstract

In the early 2000s, the federal government of Nigeria announced the initiative of the government to go digital to enhance the operation of the government in providing public services in a transparent, effective and efficient means. Sixteen years after the launch of e-government, this paper dwells into investigating the level of Nigeria's e-government progress as well as taking note of the drawbacks that has inhibited its fast development, as well as look into world best practices that Nigeria can adopt and adapt. This is done by carrying out study on the international e-government assessment and research by the United Nations E-government Development Index Survey (EGDI) and web surveys of selected federal government ministries/agencies. The study survey reveals that Nigeria's e-government performance has been a mix of failure and success over the years. From the study, factors responsible for this include reduced budgetary allocation for ICT, power failure, infrastructure challenge, digital divide, etc. To overcome this challenges, this study concludes and recommended that Nigeria needs to adopt and adapt some best practices principles applied in some countries ranked high in e-government.

Keywords: E-Government, Service Delivery, Public Service

Introduction

In the early 2000s the federal government of Nigeria announced the initiative of the government to go digital and serious concerted efforts were been geared towards its realization. This is to enhance the operation of the government in providing public services in a transparent, effective and efficient means. And since its inception, rapid development has been achieved due to its level of progress and achievements over the years. It is worthy of comparing the time of conception of the project and the level of progress over time.

Quite a number of government information and services are now available online and provided for electronically. Presently, access to government information is now easier and faster than the days of paper based bureaucracy and quite a number government officials are now responsive to their duties due to the digitalization of their functions which has made their duties easier. Not only the public officials enjoy the benefit of e-government so the citizens and businesses. The advent of e-

government has now made information for the citizens to retrieve easily and enjoy public services with relative ease. Moreover, that digitalization of government is still an emerging innovative trend in the developing world where paper based excessive bureaucracy was a norm, the achievement of Nigeria among the league of developing countries is recognizable and the government is still striving hard to tackle drawbacks inhibiting its development.

This paper dwells into the level of Nigeria's e-government progress as well as taking note of the drawbacks that has inhibited its fast development, as well as look into world best practices for Nigeria to trail in order to reap the maximum benefits of digital government. This is done by carrying out study on the international e-government assessment and research by the United Nations E-government Development Index Survey (EGDI). Also, web surveys are conducted within selected federal government ministries/agencies to compare in order to draw a logical conclusion.

This study become evidently important in the public

service to determine the true status of e-government in Nigeria and as well help the government in drawing future plans and public policies to strengthen the e-government framework in Nigeria. This will in the long run help the government achieve a reliable, transparent and efficient public service.

Conceptual Clarification E-Government

E-government refers to the use of ICT (Information and Communication Technology) to improve the process of governance (Signore, et al 2005). It is also the use of ICT tools by government agencies to communicate and relate with citizens, businesses and other government arms (World Bank, 2009; Heichlinger, 2004). Likewise, another view of e-government according to the European Union, it is the use of ICT in public administrations combined with organizational change and new skills in order to improve public services (Molner, 2007). From the definitions above, it can be gathered that e-government is the use of information and communications technology in the process of governance, public administration and the provision of public services to the citizens, businesses and other government agencies.

Components of E-Government

E-government is composed of three delivery models namely, Government to Citizens (G2C), Government to Business (G2B) and Government to Government (G2G) (World Bank, 2009). G2C is the interaction between the government and the citizens where information about the government programmes and policies are readily available for the citizens. G2C is the relationship between the government and the businesses where the corporate entities relate with the government in a transparent and efficient means usually in tax remittance and policy review. While G2G is the relationship between the open and confidential relationship between different government agencies, levels and arms.

Rationale for the Adoption of E-Government

The rationale behind the adoption of e-government stems from the idea of globalization and a fast changing political atmosphere where government needs to change its mode of interaction with its stakeholders and provision of essential services to the public. Also, the need for the government to share accurate information within a little space of time irrespective of geographical location (Alhabshi, 2011). More so, to make huge and impossible tasks to be more simple and less tedious to perform within the

space of short time such as downloading of voluminous information, dissemination of national security information within the government circle. From another viewpoint, e-government emerged as an opportunity to employ new technologies in order to transform government to a model best applicable in this 21st century (Pearce, 2004). It is an evolutionary shift away from the defunct public administration system which is highly bureaucratic, costly, ineffective and ineffectual in public service delivery as described in table 1 below (Ndou, 2004). Therefore, e-government as professed by Alhabshi (2011), it is an integral part of New Public Management through its art of reforming operations of the public sector and its service delivery mechanisms.

The activities of the government in this 21st century will almost be impossible to be conducted without ICT. ICT is needed in the communication between government agencies to fast track discussions and policy process. More so, it is needed for communication between different governments of different countries to promote the relations between countries. Also, in the provision of services to the citizens on one hand and the government receiving feedbacks on the other hand. It proves to be a mode of achieving a transparent, effective, efficient and open government which is cost effective to all the stakeholders. Therefore, the overall importance of e-government cannot be overemphasized.

However, in a bid to attain a robust and enjoy the overall benefit of e-government, it is dependent upon a multiple factors. Literatures (such as Basu, 2004; Shahzad and Sandhu, 2007; Eynon and Dutton, 2007) concluded that success factors for e-government are reliant upon standard legal, policy and infrastructural framework, trust building in the system, financial commitment as well as well human capital development. And the absence of any or all of the above factors in the planning and implementation phases could constitute major challenges.

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Table 1: Paradigm shifts in Public Service Delivery

Operation	Bureaucratic Paradigm	E-government Paradigm
Orientation	Production cost–efficiency	User satisfaction and control flexibility
Process organization	Functional rationality, departmentalization, vertical hierarchy of control	Horizontal hierarchy, network organization, information sharing
Management principle	Management by rule and mandate	Flexible management, interdepartmental team work with central coordination
Leadership style	Command and control	Facilitation and coordination, innovative entrepreneurship.
Internal communication	Top down, hierarchical	Multidirectional network with central coordination, direct communication
External communication	Centralized, formal, limited channels	Formal and informal direct and fast feedback, multiple channels
Mode of service delivery	Documentary mode and interpersonal interaction	Electronic exchange, non – face to face interaction
Principles of service delivery	Standardization, impartiality, equity	User customization, personalization

Source: Ndou, (2004:3)

E-Government Progress Ranking

There are various ranking models that explain e-government growth and process of these growths. There are various organizations and institutions involved in this process with distinct models of measuring growth and progress. Some of these organizations include United Nations; World Bank, Centre for Public Policy, Brown University, USA etc. However, the United Nations model would be used in the context of this study due to its comprehensiveness.

United Nations E-Government Growth Model

The United Nations has four stages model developed by United Nations Online Network in Public Administration (United Nations; 2006). The stages include, emerging web presence, enhanced web presence, interactive web presence, transactional web presence, and integrated web presence. This model run down from the ability of a government agency just providing information on their sites to a Joined-Up-Government (JUG) stage where there are no barriers between agencies, ministries, departments and levels of government.

Based on the United Nations e-government model, a year to year rating is done for countries within the United Nations to measure their level of e-government maturity. The assessment covers all the spheres of e-government (G2G, G2C and G2B) including the level of infrastructure development, access to information and knowledge of e-government as well as human capital development to reflect the true picture of e-government development of every country covered(Alhabshi, 2011). The end result of the assessment produce an e-readiness index of countries based on web measures index, infrastructure index and human capital index.

The web measure assessment measures the ability of the government to provide services online. It based its assessments on the quality of decision making, participatory democracy and citizen empowerment criteria. On the individual level, each ministry, department and agencies within the levels government are assessed based on the same questions to ensure consistency and uniformity. Generally, the web measure index is based on a four-stage model.

a) Emerging Presence Stage: this is the first stage which represent the ability of the

ministries or agencies to present information about themselves online and it remains static without option of feedback nor links to other ministries, departments and agencies.

- b) Enhanced Presence Stage: this is the second stage where information about public policy such as bills, budgets, laws and regulations, newsletters are available on the portal and downloadable. Although, it is still a one-way communication where feedbacks are not allowed but the information available are updated from regularly.
- c) Transactional Presence Stage: this is the third stage which gives room for a two-way channel of communication between the government agency and the citizens and vice versa (G2C and C2G). At this stage transactions are carries out through online payment platform such as the use of debit and credit card. Payments for renewal of licenses, road tax and summons are easily payable online without citizens making physical presence. Also, it covers the G2B segment where businesses are able to bid via an e-procurement portal.
- d) Connected Presence Stage: this is the final and the most advanced stage of the United Nations model. It serves as a point of integration between the government, citizens and businesses (G2G, G2C and G2B) and in inverse manner as well. It entails a two-way channel of communication where e-participation is also a common feature of this stage. Relevant stakeholders on a decision are given the opportunity to contribute their quota in public policy, law and decision making.

The level of infrastructure is the second mode of assessment for the United Nations e-government maturity assessment. The level on infrastructure is based on six indices for every country. These indices express the level of infrastructure development of every country. The indices are PC's/1,000 persons; Internet users/1,000 persons; Telephone Lines/1,000 persons; Online population/1,000 persons; Mobile phones/1000 persons; and TV's/1000 persons. Data for the UN Member States was drawn from the UN International Telecommunication Union (ITU) and the UN Statistics Division, supplemented by the World Bank data.

The third mode of assessment is the Human Capital Index based primarily on education index. This index posits that there is a link between the level of

education and skill in ICT. Therefore, in measuring this index, all forms of formal education are taken into consideration such as adult education, distance learning, primary, secondary and tertiary education.

3.0 E-GOVERNMENT IN NIGERIA

The implementation of E-government in Nigerian was made possible with ICT revolution which started in the early 2001. The objective was to place government services online to enable efficiency, effectiveness, transparency and accountability. Also, the government proposed e-government as the major driver for the vision 20–2020. It is the hope that e-government will achieve public sector efficiency, productivity growth, economic growth and national competitiveness.

To realize the above objectives, two key actors were involved. The establishment of National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) in 2003 and National e-government Strategy Limited (NeGST) in 2004. NITDA was established under the Ministry of Communication Technology (formerly Ministry of Science and Technology) to champion e-government implementation under NITDA Act 2007 through a Public Private Partnership (PPP) with the National e-government Strategy Limited (NeGST) which is a private entity.

The Nigerian PPP model for implementing e-Government leverages on Government's economic and civil service reform processes which include deliberate programme to nurture and inculcate the private sector in the e-government development process. The rationale for using a PPP model was to use the private sector as the driving force for infrastructural development and investment creation in the e-government system. Moreover, the collaboration of the two sectors will sustain the e-government system due to the woeful performance of the public sectors in managing public own enterprises in the past. The three players in this model includes the Government, Private Sector (business) and the Citizens with each player having different roles to play as mentioned earlier that e-government operates on three layers. The government's role is to carry out policies, programmes and reforms to provide better services and good governance. The private sector team up with the government to help implement the policies and programmes through infrastructural development, private investment and capacity building. While the citizens demand from the government the types of services they wish to enjoy from the private sector.

On the rationale to implement e-government in Nigeria, Obasanjo (2004) said “it [public service]

will no longer be **business as usual** (emphasis mine)” indicating a shift from the old public administration to the new e-government style. He further stressed that his administration has been centered on reorientation and reorganization of the civil service and public officials by changing the business as usual (highly bureaucratic) default system to a transparent, efficient, productive and participatory one. Moreover, he continued that his administration has taken a bold step to reengineer the backroom engine to institutionalize an “effective system through computer assisted modern processes known as e-government” (Obasanjo 2004). A similar view was shared by the former Minister of Science and Technology (Pauline Tallen) who stressed the need for e-government as a change element in the Nigerian public service (Ifinedo 2006). Since its inception several initiatives have been geared at fast tracking its development. The e-Nigeria project was the first project taken up to connect communities, vital agencies, government institutions as well as educational institutions. The e-Nigeria initiative gave rise to the National Rural Telephony projects which to give opportunities to the rural areas with no GSM service to connect with the urban areas (Vanguard, 2013). Other laudable initiatives like the Nigerian Telemedicine Initiative, Public Service Network Initiative, Internet Exchange point initiatives, State and local Government ICT

facilities loan scheme initiative and wire Nigeria initiative. According to Ekeh (2007), these initiatives are aimed at enabling the rapid development of the Nigerian nation. In addition, and as a matter of necessity, the only skill and tool a nation needs to actualize them (the initiatives) is by making computers affordable and flexible for Nigerians to acquire. Currently, there is a single portal that can be regarded as a One-Stop Centre (OSC) which links the federal government MDAs together and also serve a guide for citizens to access various e-services. In this portal, information about the government agencies in Nigeria and the missions abroad are readily available. The portal is divided into three categories—Government to Citizen, Government to Business and Government to Foreigner. The advantages of e-government has brought to Nigeria far outweighs the disadvantages. One of the key advantage e-government stands to improve is the level of efficiency through the reduction of time and cost consumed to carry out services. The manual system is heavily paper based and requires lots of manpower (staffs) to carry out. However, with the introduction of the online system, it required less manpower to handle. Table 2 below shows a comparative analysis of e-services that were previously done manually.

Table 2: Comparison between Manual and Electronic Mode of Government Service Delivery

Government Service	Manually	Electronically
International Passport Application	Minimum processing time is 90 days and some could last 9 months	Minimum processing time is 1 day and maximum of 3 days.
Trade Clearance	Requires 7 working days to clear	1 day to clear
National exam registration (WAEC, NECO and JAMB)	Minimum of 7 days	Minimum of 1 hour
Recruitment	2 months	1 hour of online form completion and instant acknowledgement
Land Allocation	3 to 4 months	1 day with GIS
Tax remittance	7 working days	Minimum of 20 minutes
Voters Registration	5 days to register and get voters card	5 minutes and instant voters card
National Identity Registration	Minimum of 13 to 14 months of processing	Minimum of 90 days.

Mohammed Et.al (2010)

NIGERIA E - GOVERNMENT PEROFORMANCE

United Nations E-Government Survey (2004-2014)
Nigeria's e-government performance has been dwindling over the years having been classified among the countries with middle E-government Development Index (EGDI) with the likes of Angola and Ghana. In 2004, Nigeria was ranked 141 having scored an index of 0.2485. An upward improvement was recorded one years after in 2005 having moved 2

places upward with a rank of 139 having an index of 0.2758. Similar upward trend occurred in 2008 having moved three places higher than 2005 with a rank of 136 and score of 0.3063. However, in 2012 Nigeria dropped to the lowest in her history in the e-government survey having been ranked as low as 162. By 2014, a substantive improvement was recorded with Nigeria ranking as high as 141 and an index of 0.290.

Table 3. Nigeria Year to Year EGDI rating (2004-2014)

Year	Index	Position	Remark
2004	0.2485	141	—
2005	0.2758	139	
2008	0.3063	136	↑
2012	0.1996	162	↓
2014	0.2900	141	↑

Source: United Nations E-Government Survey, 2004-2014

Despite been the largest exporter of crude oil in Africa, and the biggest GDP (rebase) in Africa, the country is still ranked below the like of Namibia, Mauritius and Ghana as shown in Table 4. This is to show that the level of income is not translated in the level of e-government development. Egypt and Morocco for example also belong to the lower middle income groups as Nigeria but with a high EGDI of 0.5129 and 0.5060 respectively. The national budgetary allocation for the ICT industry has been declining for over three years partly responsible for the low performance of the country's

e-government development. In 2012, the budgetary allocation was N19.6 Billion, 2013 it reduced to N15.6 Billion and N14.6 Billion in 2014. It is pertinent to look into the specific areas that build up to form the United Nations EGDI i.e. the infrastructure index, online presence index and human capital index. Nigeria has been progressing in infrastructural development for ICT and online presence over the years but retrogressing in human capital development which is the primary driver for e-government growth as shown in table 4 below

Table 4. Specific Key Indices in E-government Development Survey

Year/ Indices	Infrastructure	Online Presence	Human Capital Development
2004	0.013	0.14	0.59
2008	0.049	0.22	0.64
2012	0.127	0.20	0.8
2014	0.19	0.30	0.38

Source: United Nations E-Government Survey, 2004-2014

Web Survey

Table 5. Selected Ministries Web Presence Status in Accordance with the United Nations web presence measurement model.

S/N	Ministry/Agency	Emerging Presence	Enhanced Presence	Transactional Presence	Connected Presence
1.	Presidency		√	X	X
2.	Ministry of Finance	√	√	√	√
3.	Ministry of Health	√	X	X	X
4.	National Identity Management Commission	√	√	√	X
5.	Nigeria Immigration Service	√	√	√	X

Source: Author Survey, 2015

DISCUSSION

This study sets out to evaluate the present stage of e-government development in Nigeria most especially as regards the federal public service which is the most advanced in e-service delivery within the three levels of government. The main objective of doing this is to assist the public policy makers and implementers in areas necessary and worthy of putting attention to fast track the development of e-government in Nigeria. This will in the long run enable the country to attain a public service that is transparent, effective and efficient in terms of service delivery to the citizens and public policy making.

Having evaluated the present stage of e-government in the country through the United Nations E-Government Development Index (EGDI) and the assessment of the online presence of selected ministries within the federal parastatals. It can be said that Nigeria is yet to attain her best in the drive for a viable, transparent, efficient and effective public service. Only three out of the five agencies surveyed can boast of having reached transactional presence stage where online transactions can take place. And just one of the five have reached the peak which is connected presence stage, a seamless stage where it has links to multi agencies and organizations within and outside its domain.

This lag can be attributed to some factors such as:

a) *Epileptic Power Supply*

The major technical challenge disrupting the full success of e-government implementation in Nigeria is epileptic power supply. Power blackout is a regular phenomenon in most Nigerian cities, towns and villages with negative impacts on the robustness of ICT. Most base stations are equipped with power generating plants as an alternative source for these

equipment. The cost of procuring these generating plants, maintaining and fueling them have added to the operation cost of these companies and as such the final burden will be borne by the final citizens.

b) *Infrastructural Challenge*

Infrastructure problem is another hindrance to the progress of e-government in Nigeria. The problem of infrastructure are multiple which includes: multiple regulations on the same infrastructure, Lack of standard guideline for the procurement of right of way, theft and vandalization of ICT equipment, infrastructural deficit etc.

c) *Privacy and Security challenges*

Internet privacy and security is important for a successful implementation of e-government (Pedro, 2012). Internet fraud (popularly known as 419) has been a problem that has been troubling the country for a long time due to the lack of cyber security laws which has tainted the country's image at home and abroad. Most e-payment providers in Nigeria have been clamouring for the quick passage of the much awaited cyber security law to clamp down on the activities of the fraudsters (Daily Independent, 2013).

d) *Organizational Challenges*

Effective communication and organizational skills are sine qua non to an effective e-government implementation. One of the organizational problem that can be contributed to the low progress level of e-government in Nigeria is the lack of cooperation and understanding among the government agencies. Each agency has its own website and just only few have links of other agencies on their sites. Even though, there is a single unified portal.

e) *Digital Divide*

Digital divide is the difference in ICT access and

usage between different regions that shares similar characteristics. In Nigeria, it can be perceived as the difference in the accessibility and usage of ICT services between the rural population and the urban population. Digital divide in Nigeria is caused by different factors namely: disparity in literacy level between the rural and the urban areas, infrastructural gap in what is obtainable in the urban and rural areas, poverty and high cost of internet connectivity etc.

BEST PRACTICES NIGERIA CAN ADOPT

Despite hurdles which affects successful implementation of e-government across the world, some countries have achieved significant progress which countries lagging behind like Nigeria can adopt their success strategies.

a) *Singapore Whole of Government Approach to E-government*

Singapore was quick to adopt a Whole of Government Enterprise Architecture approach in implementing and reforming its e-government. Singapore adopted the Whole of Government Enterprise Architecture (WOG EA) approach in 2002 to e-government in a bid to enable the government to enhance its ICT assets by thoroughly analysing and identifying strategic opportunities from its various stakeholders. By virtue of implementing this model, the broad aim was to improve efficiency of government by aligning government investment goal with performance. Moreover, Singapore seeks to achieve an end to end service integration for a seamless government which will lead to creating a synergy between all government agencies with greater efficiency. Also, to enable government agencies utilize a common platform for operation to avoid duplication of efforts (eGov Singapore, 2013).

Through the adoption of this kind of model in Nigeria, it will help overcome the issue of multiple infrastructure for telecom operators, erase duplication of services by government agencies. It will also ensure a seamless integration among the government agencies which will enable all of them to communicate freely and effectively.

b) *M-Government Initiative in Australia and South Africa*

E-government is a tool that can be accessible by multiple technologies such as PCs, Kiosks, mobile phones and smart TVs. Accessibility through various mediums will enable a fast and efficient approach to e-government. For example countries like Australia, United Kingdom and South Africa have recognised the need to develop m-government which is a means

further simplifying e-government. In Australia, the federal government developed 10 mobile applications in 2011 that can be used during emergency cases. These apps can be used in all kinds of emergencies such as epidemics cyclones, terrorist attacks, heat waves and smog (Proxima 2011).

In the case of South Africa, the government has launched a number of mobile projects through m-government that will help the government to spread the benefits of e-government across the country. The government is taking advantage of the high teledensity level to reach out to citizens and businesses through mobile health clinics, mobile enquiry of government agency activity, e-participation in decision making (e-democracy) and e-justice where court cases can be filed without going to the court.

c) *Malaysia Shared Infrastructural Services*

To curb the lack of integration and sharing information deficiency between systems and between government agencies, stemming from the agencies' isolated efforts in ICT thus, placing further barrier to their abilities to collaborate and improve on service delivery. Malaysian government identified the need for common and shared ICT infrastructures at the beginning of the e-government programme in the Administrative Centre of Putra Jaya with the launch of Putra Jaya Campus Network (PCN). PCN is the core infrastructure that connects all the government departments and ministries in the various parcels in Putra Jaya. PCN is to save cost of duplicating infrastructure and enable a greater level of coordination, cooperation and sharing of information between the various government agencies (Abdul Karim and Khalid 2003).

Conclusion

This main objective of this paper is to understand the progress of e-government in Nigeria. In the course of implementing e-government in Nigeria, certain obstacles have hindered a full fledge e-government in Nigeria. Therefore, in the course of understanding the present, obstacles inhibiting its growth, we are likely to contend with how to synchronize both to produce a vibrant e-government achievement for the future. Through, this we are able to bring some best practices from countries excelling in e-government as a model for Nigeria to adopt and adapt to further reengineer its e-government potentials.

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ELECTION MANAGEMENT AND DEMOCRATISATION PROCESS IN NIGERIA'S FOURTH REPUBLIC

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ABSTRACT

Every democracy is usually validated by periodic elections. Election is a key element which makes a polity to be devoid of totalitarian system. The fourth republic elections in Nigeria had showed to a large extent a sustained improvement in the managerial and execution aspects. There are instances of post election violence in Nigeria but none had destroyed the polity. To what extent had the polity suppress post electoral violence in Nigeria? This paper uses the system and decision making theory to analyse the extent of stability in the polity at post election years. Recommendations are focused on peaceful coexistence among the populace regardless of the political party affiliations. Conclusions are premised on good governance and the use of constitutional provisions to resolve electoral disputes.

Keywords: Democracy, Election, Violence, Rule of Law and Election Management

INTRODUCTION

Within the context of a complete break away from one-party and military dictatorships, African countries dived into competitive multi-party elections since the 1990s. Thus, as Ake puts it 'Issues of democratization and human rights are increasingly the world's interest in Africa overcoming a legacy of indifference to the fate of democracy on the continent' (Ake, 1991:32). Many of these African states that allowed elections to be held in them made a mockery of their transition programmes. In fact, Naomi Chazan pointed out the loss of legitimacy that has now characterised African elections when she pointed out that: 'Elections in Africa, after the initial euphoria associated with political stability during decolonization quickly came to be viewed as meaningless political rites...'(Chazan, 1979:136).

While not doubting the increasing nature of democratic transitions in African countries, Lemarchand concluded that, 'there are compelling reasons to fear that the movement towards democracy may contain within itself the seed of its own undoing' (Lemarchand, 1992:98). Celestin Monga identified eight problems with African politics which according to him are: the weakness of political parties, manipulation of the electoral

process, a narrow political field, a constrained civil society, a controlled press, the absence of civility, privatised violence and politicised armies, and international support for dictatorship (Monga, 1997:156). However, Richard Joseph seemed to have captured African politics when he stated that 'of the many factors impeding constitutional democracy in Africa, none appears more significant than the upsurge of political violence (Richard, 1997:3). It seems to us therefore that a proper understanding of political renewal in Africa should pay more attention to the role of political violence.

Thus in Kenya, President Daniel Arap Moi resorted to political violence as a means of retaining power. Similarly Kibaki who succeeded him was guilty of 'daylight robbery and a civilian coup' (Bamgbose, 2008:54). In Zimbabwe, Tsvangirai withdrew from the run-off of 2008 in protest over political violence that killed over 120 people and displaced thousands (Bracking, 2010:1). The April 24, 2005 Togo presidential election triggered off political violence resulting to the outflow of Togolese refugees to the neighbouring countries of Ghana and Benin (Bamgbose, 2009:109). In October 2008, two Belgian demographers, Andre Lambert and Louis Lohle-Tart, were invited by the European

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Commission to assess the 2005–2006 voter registration process in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC). After their consultancy was done, they wrote a devastating critique of the International Rescue Committee (IRC). Initially, the IRC had put the death toll at 5.4 million even though the original figure was not up to 5.4 million. These Belgian demographers put it at 200,000 deaths. Pertinent to note is that many lives were lost (Mamdani, 2010:15).

In Nigeria, just like most of the countries in Africa, elections especially its freeness and fairness constitute the central factor in ensuring democratic survival. This is because the lack of free and fair elections often tends to threaten the democratic process as a result of legitimacy question. This factor, no doubt, has characterised the democratic experiment of the Nigerian Fourth Republic in that there have been persistent crisis of legitimacy in governance arising from poor electoral system (Omodia, 2008).

However, in the present democratic dispensation of the Nigerian Fourth Republic, events have shown that the electoral body is not independent of the party in power. This has been defined in relation to the manner of which the electoral body had conducted elections in a way that advantaged the party in power through poor planning, the device of excluding electorates from voting in places considered to be the strongholds of opposition, through the inadequate supply of voting materials, or late arrival of electoral officers to polling stations (Abdullahi, 2008).

As regard the judiciary under the present democratic dispensation, unlike what was obtainable in the aborted Third Republic where the Judiciary served as a tool for creating political topsy-turvy that undermined the democratic process, the judiciary in the present dispensation could be said to be a major improvement from what was obtainable in the past. While in some cases the judiciary has served as a tool for upholding democratic decisions with such cases as the judicial pronouncement of Peter Obi of All Progressive Grand Alliance (APGA) as the duly elected Governor of Anambra State rather than Dr. Chris Ngige of PDP, and the further judgment that the tenure of the administration would end in 2010 rather than 2007. This is coupled with several judicial judgments that led to the re-run of elections in States like Kogi, Adamawa, Sokoto among others.

Conversely, it must however be stated that in the cases of re-run elections, such elections became cosmetic as the party in power utilised government

machinery to the advantage of its candidate. In addition, there were cases in which adjudication were said to be based on political considerations. For instance, political consideration played a major part in the ease between Muhammadu Buhari of ANPP and Chief Olusegun Obasanjo of the PDP as a result of the fall out of the 2003 Presidential elections in which the ease was decided in favour of the PDP Presidential Candidate by the Nigerian Supreme Court (Isa & Zakari, 2008).

The implication of the above therefore is that elections are so central to the practice of democracy, and the degree of elitist manipulations for the purpose of power acquisition vis-à-vis the degree of system capability in terms of symbolic, regulation and distribution capabilities for political support to a great extent constitute the basis through which State's democracy could be classified. Elections are not a day activity; rather, they are complex set of activities with different variables that act and feed them.

In representative democracy, it is regarded as the only acceptable means of either enthroning persons into positions of government. Like other concepts in the social sciences, this term has been defined in different ways by various scholars. "Election means recruitment of representatives by the choice of the voters" (Johari, 2010: 358). Commenting on elections, Joseph (2009: 76) writes that election is a periodical process by which candidates seek political power using the platform of political parties. He goes on to emphasise that the struggle to achieve political power is usually demanding, with the parties and candidates alike putting all resources to work with the purpose of getting their desires realised.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The paper adopts Systems theory and Decision making approach as its theoretical construct.

System Theory

System theory was first developed in the 1920s by Ludwig von Bertalanffy, a biologist. Its first introduction in the analysis of politics was by David Easton in his famous book Political Systems in 1953. Easton put forward his eight major characteristics: regularities, verification, techniques, quantification, values, systemization, pure sciences and integration; also referred to as the 'intellectual foundation stones' of behaviouralism (Varma, 2004: 223).

The political system, in the words of Easton: takes inputs from the society consisting of demands for particular policies and expressions of support for the regime and converts them into outputs—

authoritative policies and decisions. Feedback mechanisms put outputs back into the systems as inputs, thus completing a complex cyclical operation (Olaniyi, 2005: 71).

Decision Making Approach

An approach bringing the decision making process into the focus of political analysis was developed by Richard C. Synder and his colleagues (Fumiss, E. S., H. W. Bruck, Burton Spain, etc) after the Second World War (Varma, 1982: 277 cited in Olaniyi 2005: 112). The decision-making approach to the study of politics focuses on explaining political actions (decisions) from the angle of decisions made by the political executive and other policy makers (including administrators, legislators and the judiciary). The structures involved in decision making, as well as the factors that influence the outcomes of the process, the economic/political costs of decision and the selection of actors for decision making process also fall within the purview of the decision-making approach (Robert & Edward, 1991: 35 cited in Olaniyi, 2005: 111).

Nigeria, being a multi-ethnic, multi-religious plural state makes it necessary for decision makers on matters of national importance to consider several factors in their decision making process to avoid being seen as discriminatory of other interests outside their primary constituency. The management of elections which has been a sore point in Nigeria's political development over the years is one of those areas that need utmost care.

The Management of Election Disputes in the Fourth Republic: An Appraisal

Aiyede (2007) posited that section laws form the foundation of an electoral system. The 1999 constitution and the Electoral Act 2006 outline laws that guide the conduct elections in this Fourth Republic and these contain processes, procedures for conduct and supervision of elections, role of individual, groups/agencies, etc. The electoral laws deal with issues such as registration of voters and compilation of electoral register, roles of political parties, electoral disputes, etc.

The 1999 constitution and Electoral Act, 2006 contain the necessary procedures in the settlement of election disputes. Part IX of the Electoral Act 2006 deals with the mode or means to be adopted in the resolution of election disputes. Thus:

No election and no return a an election under this Act shall be questioned in any manner other than

by a petition complaining of undue return presented to the competent Tribunal/court in accordance with the provisions of the constitution or this Act, and in which the person elected or returned is joined as party.

Sections 239 and 285 of The 199 constitution state that the Court of Appeal shall have original jurisdiction to determine petitions arising from presidential election, where appeals lie with the Supreme Court. The Governorship and Legislative Houses Election Tribunals have jurisdiction to hear and determine petitions from Governorship and Houses of Assembly elections. Appeals shall lie with the Court of Appeal. The National Assembly Election Tribunal has jurisdiction to entertain petitions from National Assembly elections. Appeals in respect of decision of National Assembly Election Petition Tribunal lie with the Court of Appeal. The constitution also states that a party that loses at the tribunal has 21 days from the day of the decision to appeal. However, the 1999 constitution did not provide for Tribunal for Local Government election. The Area Council in the Federal Capital Territory where the Electoral Acts, 2006 provides with Election Tribunal dubbed Area Council Election Tribunal is the only exception.

Section (141) of the Electoral Act states thus "an election petition shall be presented within 30 days from the day the result of the election is declared". This is the reason for a long period of hearing to the extent that the office tenures are almost completed before judgment is passed. However, the constitution is silent on time frame within which Tribunals/Courts should complete election petitions brought before them. This is a radical departure from the Electoral Act of 1982 and 1977 which gave 30 days for completion of proceedings in respect of presidential election and 60 days for other election petitions. This is more reasonable than the Electoral Act of 2006.

Section (144) states that persons entitled to file election petition are candidates in an election and political parties in the election. Section (145) contains the ground for presenting election petition thus:

- (a) That a person whose election is questioned was, at the time of the election not qualified to contest the election
- (b) Corrupt practice or non compliance with the provision of the 2006 Electoral Act

- (c) Inability of the respondent to have majority of lawful votes cast at the election
- (d) The exclusion from election candidates that were validly nominated by their parties

Section 146 explains certain defects that will not invalidate election:

- i. Non compliance with the provision of the laws except if it substantially affected the result of the election.
- ii. Defect in the title, or want of title of the person conducting the election or acting in the office provided such a person has the right or authority of the commission to conduct the election.

Section (147) deals with nullification of results. The Electoral Act 2006 failed to give time limit within which to complete petitions and gave room for petitioners and their counsels to seek for unnecessary adjournments which delayed hearing of petitions. Another major loop hole in the Act is the provision that allows public officers whose elections have been nullified to remain in office pending the determination of appeal. The stay-put provision by the Electoral Act 2006 gives the office holders undue advantage over the petitioner as these office holders use public funds to fight legal battles (The Nation, Nov. 12, 2009: 3)

Various electoral malpractices that attended series of elections held in this democratic dispensation (Fourth Republic) point to the fact that the country has not been able to achieve the feat of conducting a free and fair election. Consequently, Election Tribunals are always inundated with election petitions. Justice Umaru Abdullahi, the then president of the Court of Appeal pointed to the fact that a total of 1,475 petitions were received in 2007 as against the 570 received in 2003. This is unprecedented and this development arose because of the fair confidence reposed in this judiciary. Thus, a resort to violence was fairly prevented.

Presidential Elections (1999-2007): An Overview

This republic had three presidential elections that were plagued with controversies leading to court actions. The February 28 1999 election between Chief Olusegun Obasanjo of the people's Democratic Party and Chief Olu-Falae of the Alliance for

democracy (AD). All Nigeria Peoples Party (APP) became a subject of litigation at the Presidential Election petition Tribunal, i.e. the Court of Appeal. Presidential flag bearer of AD/APP, Chief Falae, the Petitioner prayed the Court to invalidate the presidential poll in which Obasanjo of PDP, the respondent was declared winner.

Issues in Disputes in the 1999 Presidential Election include the following:

- a. Breaching of electoral laws and NEC guidelines. The respondent was said to have contravened electoral laws and INEC guidelines by placing campaign advertisements in some national Newspapers.
- b. The respondent was not qualified for the election having been adjudged guilty of treasonable felony for his alleged role in the 1995 coup plot against the Federal Military Government of Nigeria.
- c. The respondent was not qualified to contest the election as his status as a former head of state automatically confers on him membership of National Council of State, from which he did not resign 30 days to the election.
- d. Respondent's membership of secret society called Ogboni and as such was not qualified to contest the election (ThisDay, 2004) on the day of election. Section 14 of decree 6 of 1999 prohibited the conduct of campaign by any candidate 12 hours before the day of election.
- e. Engaging in corrupt acts through distribution of money and foodstuff gratis to the people and the inscription of "vote Obasanjo for president" on the food items. This was seen as an attempt to induce electorates to vote for the respondent.

On 5th December 1999, the Court of Appeal, viewed the issues in contention and ruled that the petition lacked merit. The Court ruled on each of the issues in the petition. On the issue of treasonable felony, the Court held that the respondent had been

granted full pardon.

The allegation of membership of secret society (Ogboni), also failed as the Court ruled that the petitioner could not prove the allegation. According to the court, "he who avers must prove the allegation by credible evidence". The claim that the respondent breached electoral laws and (NEC guidelines) by placing campaign advertisements in some newspaper on the day of election equally failed. The Court ruled that there was no evidence that the respondent "authorised" or "ratified" the publication and hence, was not liable.

On the distribution of food items to the electorates, the Court ruled that there was no of evidence linking the respondent with the distribution of food. The issue of membership of National Council of State as reason for disqualification from contesting the election was not also accepted by the Court. The Court held that decree 107 of 1993 exempted him from membership of National Council of State and was therefore qualified to run for the office of the president.

On April 5 1999, the Court of Appeal led by its Chairman, Justice Mustapha dismissed Falae's petition against Obasanjo's election. In a unanimous judgment, the Court held that the petition lacked merit because the petitioner could not prove the allegation beyond reasonable doubt (The Punch, April 6, 1999:1). The justices who heard the case are; Mustapha, Gorge Oguntade, Thompson Akpabio, Mariam Aloma and Dennis Edozie. The verdict of the court of Appeal was hailed by PDP and its supporters. Atiku asserted that the judgment was a triumph of democracy (The Punch, April 6, 1999:6), while Chief Olu Falae, Aihaji Umaru Shinkafi and others in AD/APP condemned the verdict. Chief Falae did not appeal at the Supreme Court.

Presidential Election 2003

The outcome of the election was highly disputed on the ground of alleged gross irregularities. The presidential candidate of the All Nigeria people's Party (ANPP), General Muhammadu Buhari (Rtd.) challenged the declaration of Obasanjo of PDP as winner of the election by INEC at the Court of Appeal on the 20th of May, 2003. Through his counsel, Mike Anamba, he sought the declaration of the presidential poll null and void.

Issues in the Disputes include the following:

- a. NEC's failure to comply with its guideline on thumb printing. According to the petitioner, the guideline issued by INEC was that only the thumb will be used in thumb printing but the electoral body later allowed voters to thumbprint with any of their hands.
- b. Failure of INEC to administer on all its officers, an oath of loyalty to the country. The petitioner opined that failure to administer oath on INEC officers deprived them of fundamental competence to conduct the election and prayed the court to declare the election conducted by these officers null and void.
- c. Bias of INEC in favour of the respondent. The petitioner alleged that loyalists to the party of the respondent were appointed as electoral officers as exemplified with the Resident Electoral Commissioner for Katsina State, Mr. Ogbeh who was the brother of the then Chairman of PDP, Chief Audu Ogbeh.
- d. Non certification of material used for election. The petitioners said this made it difficult to know which the authentic items came from NEC and prayed the court to declare all uncertified materials used for the election invalid.
- e. Wrong allocation of votes to candidates. The petitioner alleged that votes given to the candidates were product of deliberate wrong entry made by NEC.

The Court ruled on each of these issues as follows: Four justices heard case Justice Frances Tabai who read the leading judgment upheld the results of the presidential elections as released by INEC. He held that the failure of NEC officers to take oath before conducting the election did not invalidate the election. They also argued that the petitioner could not prove beyond reasonable doubt that non-certification of election materials compromised the election. The same argument was made for bias of NEC officers in favour of the respondent. However, they unanimously nullified the election in Ogun State on ground of irregularities but the cancellation of Ogun state election was not enough to invalidate the poll in general. Justice Tabia said, "I do not agree that because the election in one state is nullified, the election in the whole country should be nullified" (The Punch, Dec. 21, 2004: 2). However, one of the

four justices, Justice Nsofor gave the dissenting minority judgment which granted the prayer of the petitioner by nullifying the whole election. The learned judge argued that the refusal of INEC to produce the certified true copy of election result showed that the results were falsified.

Consequently, he therefore nullified the election, based on non compliance by NEC 6n sections 63 and 67 of the Electoral Act which give parties the opportunity to verify election materials. The judge said this negligence rendered the election a farce, pure and simple. It means there was no election (ThisDay, December 21, 2004: 4). The chairman of the Presidential Election Tribunal, Justice Ogebe was absent on the day of Judgment. Meanwhile, the then chairman of PDP, Chief Audu Ogbeh described the verdict as victory for democracy (ThisDay, Dec, 21, 2004:4) while General Buhari condemned the verdict. Alhaji Lirnoru Shinkafi said the minority judgment given by one of the justices was a moral victory for ANPP.

Presidential Election Disputes - April 17, 2007

Both the presidential candidates of Action Congress (AC) and All Nigeria Peoples Party (ANPP) filed petitions at the Presidential Election Petition Tribunal challenging the return of Yar Adua of PDP as the winner of the election. The petitions filed by the duo of Atiku and Buhari were taken by the court as consolidated petitions since the petitions were in relation to the same election or return, the provision for this is contained in Section (164 (46) of the first schedule of the Electoral Act 2006 which states that “where two or more petitions are presented in relation to the same election or return, all the petitions shall be consolidated, considered and dealt with as one petition unless the Tribunal or Court otherwise direct in order to do justice.”

Issues in 2007 Presidential Election Disputes:

- a. The respondent was not qualified to contest the election due to his indictment by an Administrative panel of enquiry set up by Abia State government.
- b. Unlawful exclusion of one of the petitioners (Atiku) from the poll.
- c. INEC did not substantially comply with the evectional Act, 2006.
- d. Non serialization of ballot papers.
- e. Failure to administer oath of neutrality on INEC staff.
- f. INEC's failure to register millions of voters

disenfranchised many supporters of the petitioner from voting.

- g. Elections were held at different times in many polling units contrary to electoral laws.
- h. The Inspector General of Police engaged in corrupt practices that affected the results of the election to the disadvantage of the petitioner.

The Court ruled on each of these issues as follows: On the non compliance to electoral laws by NEC, the petitioners did not prove that there was substantial non-compliance with Electoral Law 2006 by INEC to substantially affect the result of the election to their disadvantage. The court said “the onus of proof of substantiality of noncompliance with the electoral laws rests on the petitioners and they did not discharge that responsibly” (Nigerian Tribune, Feb. 27, 2008). On the failure of NEC to administer the oath of neutrality on its officers, the Court ruled that, that was not weighty enough to void the election of the respondent since he could not be blamed for the lapses of INEC. Thus, the allegation was dismissed.

The unlawfully exclusion from the election was also rejected by the Court. The Court said the petitioner had once admitted the presence of his party agents at various polling centres and such agents were there to represent the petitioners. The non serialization of ballot papers also suffered a setback as the Court held that there was no evidence before it to show that the ballot papers were not serialized.

The allegation that the acts of the Inspector General of police affected the results of the election could not be proved and consequently, the court dismissed it. The non-registration of millions of voters was also dismissed by the Court. The court ruled that nobody instituted litigation that he or she was denied registration by INEC.

On the claim by the petitioners that the respondent was not qualified to contest the election as a result of an indictment by an Administrative Panel of inquiry, the Court submitted that the petitioners “failed to show in clear terms the basis for the purported indictment of the respondent.” The court held that it was an “indictment on ground of fraud that could disqualify a person from contesting election and that such indictment must be made by the Court.” The Court therefore dismissed the allegation.

As regards the electoral irregularities, the

Court said the claim was a non-issue as it was not pleaded before the tribunal. The allegation on claim of varied times for conducting elections at different polling centres also failed the Court ruled that the petitioners failed to show, how holding elections at different times conferred undue advantage on the respondent to warrant the nullification of the election. The Court of Appeal in its final judgment dismissed the consolidated petitions filed by Buhari and Atiku against Yar Adua's election. The panel of five judges that heard the petition was Justices James Ogebe, John Fabiyi, Abubakar Jega Abdulkadir, Uwani Abba-Aji and Raphael Chikwe Agbo.

The PDP members obviated the verdict while Atiku, Buhari and their supporters condemned the verdict. Reacting to the judgment, Atiku Abubakar said:

The Presidential Election Tribunal has in its own wisdom decided that the charade called 11 elections held in April 1 of last year was a fair representation of the free will of the Nigerian people. The future of constitutional democracy in Nigeria remains imperilled (Nigerian Tribune, Feb 2 2008:4).

In a similar vein, the opposition parties in Nigeria, under the umbrella of the Conference of Nigerian Political Parties (CNNP) described the judgment as a betrayal of democracy (The Guardian, Feb. 22, 2008: 5).

To address the irregularities, Buhari and Atiku Abubakar appealed against the judgment at the Supreme Court, and the Supreme Court also upheld the election of Yar' Adua. The remarks made by the aggrieved revealed the fact that their confidence in the Judiciary declined as the courts had exhibited some degree of inefficiency in handling election petitions. Some of the judges of Tribunals have engaged in actions that are detrimental to the integrity of the judiciary due to corrupt acts. For instance, the Akwa-Ibom Election Tribunal was dissolved because the Chairman, Justice Adamus was alleged to have collected money from Governor Victor Attah, who was a respondent to the petition before the Tribunal. Again, Justice Thomas Narom of Osun State Governorship Election Tribunal was alleged to have romanced with Chief Kalejiaye, the counsel to Governor Oyinlola, a respondent to the petition before the Tribunal. This incident also undermined the integrity of the Tribunal.

The elevation of some members of the Court of Appeal to Supreme Court on the eve of the Tribunal Judgment showed the antics of PDP government. The chairman of the Court of Appeal that heard the 2007 presidential election petition, Justice Ogebe was elevated to the Supreme Court by President Umar Yar'Adua, a respondent to the petition before the Tribunal. This generated a lot of controversy and this adversely affected the integrity of the Tribunal. To Femi Okurounmi, the elevation has compromised the integrity 01 the Tribunal and of the Supreme Court itself (Nigerian Tribune, Feb. 27, 2008: 15). The elevation was seen as a means of inducing Justice Ogebe to uphold Yar'Adua's elections.

In 2003, Obasanjo also adopted the same strategy as Justices George Oguntade and Francis Tabai were promoted to Supreme Court. Chief Awolowo also criticised the appointment of Justice Atanda Williams as the Chief Justice of Nigeria before his appeal to the Supreme Court was heard. The foretasted experience pointed to the fact that these individuals are appointed to execute specific agenda in compensation for their elevations.

Opinions are divided over the efficiency of the courts/Tribunal resolving election disputes in this Fourth Republic. Some analysts have given the judiciary pass mark while some saw the judiciary as having failed with respect to resolving election disputes in Nigeria. While applauding the verdicts of the Courts in recent election dispute in this democratic era, an AC stalwart, Alake, E. said the recent verdicts which cancelled the victory of some State Governors in the 2007 elections illustrate the judiciary's redemptive role in Nigeria's democracy (The Guardian, Nov. 14, 2009: 16). It is becoming obvious that the judiciary in Nigeria is gradually becoming the proverbial Rock of Gibraltar of Nigerian democracy (The Nation, June 18, 2009: 10). Some decisions and actions of the courts have also come under caustic attacks from individuals and organisations in the country.

Preparation for 2011 General Election

Preparation for the 2011 general election began far back as August 3-4, 2009 with a strategic retreat by the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) in Abuja. This came against the backdrop of a number of challenges that confronted the Commission. One of these was the credibility problem, especially those that arose from the conduct of 2003 and 2007 general elections (ThisDay, 2010). To overcome these challenges, the first step taken by the Federal Government was to build public interest

on the credibility of the 2011 election through the appointment of Professor Attahiru Jega as the new INEC chairman to replace Professor Maurice Iwu who conducted the controversial 2007. The preparations for the 2011 general elections in Nigeria, on the part of both INEC and the different political parties fell below expectation in some respects. Among the shortcomings that were not in accordance with democratic ideals were: non-adherence to Electoral Act 2010 and lack of internal democracy in the parties, especially in terms selection of party candidates; lack of sufficient credible candidates; adjustments of the timetable and postponement of election days; inadequate logistics by INEC; amongst others.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE 2011 ELECTION ON NIGERIAN FEDERALISM

The 2011 presidential election that retained Goodluck Jonathan of the People's Democratic Party was generally peaceful and fair. However, as remarked by the international observers, the results may still prove dangerous for the future. The victory of Goodluck Jonathan (a Christian from a Southeast minority ethnic group) who represented the dominant party (PDP) was expected by most people. He garnered nearly 60% of the popular votes cast, winning 24 states and the Federal Capital Territory out rightly. Meanwhile, his principal opponent, Muhammadu Buhari (a Muslim Hausa-Fulani from Katsina) swept the 12 most northern states, but failed to carry any states outside that group (including those that in past elections have tended to associate with the "far north"). The results of the presidential election seemed to expose some undercurrent realities of increasing regional, ethnic, and religious separation, the magnitude of which had not been seen before (Beckett, 2011).

A Nigerian commentator however, observed that, it was a reality that had been in existence before the 2011 elections, as the middle belt had always been the determinant of where the pendulum of power would swing in the country. According to him, some Nigerian experts think we are once again at the verge of a major national crisis and that the signs are in the electoral map of Nigeria drawn from the election which seems to have highlighted the North-South divide of Nigerian politics.

One should mention first that this electoral map is neither strange nor unexpected. It remains the accurate reflection of Nigeria's true political demography and it is the surprise of it mostly that has confounded many CPC voters in the North. Nigeria's

electoral map drawn from the voting pattern in the presidential elections point very clearly to the truth that the North Central region has become far more than ever the power bellwether states in any tightly run elections in Nigeria. Whoever wins the middle-belt wins the election in the country. This analysis is borne out of the fact that this buffer region contains perhaps, the quintessential character of multi-ethnic Nigeria, being diverse, both ethnically and religiously, and having affiliations to the north and south of that divide (Nwakanma, 2011)

Of the thirteen men who have headed the Nigerian government (military or civilian) since 1960, Beckett (2011) observes that, eight have been northern Muslims (only one was a northern Christian). Six of the northern Muslims have been from the core Hausa-Fulani or Kanuri states of the far north. All four of the southern Christian leaders owed their original ascension to accidental factors (Goodluck Jonathan became President unexpectedly in May 2010 after Umaru Yar'Adua, an Hausa-Fulani from Katsina) developed a serious illness and finally died in office.

Thus, the landslide election of Jonathan may mark a watershed event in the evolution of Nigerian politics. The historic pattern of at least mild hegemony exerted from the far north may have largely run its course. This assumes that Nigeria continues its "slouching" progress toward institutionalizing electoral democracy. The costs and dangers of enthroning true federalism via an enduring democracy remain great. With the country's complex ethnic makeup, and the now bitter relations between many Christian and Muslim communities, Nigerians know that they live over a political sea of magma that could, at almost any time erupt (Beckett, 2011).

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper has undertaken a linkage between management of election disputes, violent and democratic consolidation in Nigeria. The paper concludes that credible and effective machinery for solving disputes emanating from elections is a sine qua non to deepening democracy and its ideals in Nigeria. The view of majority of Nigerians is that unbiased adjudication of election disagreements by the Courts will no doubt contribute in no small measure to consolidating democracy in Nigeria. However, many Nigerians fear that the development of our democracy handling of election disputes by the Courts.

At this juncture, it is necessary to recommend how the Courts can improve on its vital role of managing disputes arising from elections in Nigeria. The 1999 constitution and the electoral Act of 2006 should be reviewed, to accommodate a specific time frame to complete petitions arising from elections. The government should implement the recommendation of Uwais Panel on electoral reform which advocated 180 days for resolution of election disputes and violence. Alternative means of resolving election disputes should be established so as to reduce the burden on conventional courts.

The independence of the Courts should be maintained. This will make them to carry out their duties in a fearless manner. The National Judicial Council should not hesitate to sanction judges of Election Tribunals that compromise their integrity through corrupt acts. More so, the conditions of services of minister in the temple of justice (Judges) should be improved upon. They should be well remunerated so as not to make them fall prey to the manipulating tendencies of rich politicians.

Finally, one of the greatest shortcomings of the 2011 general election was in the area of security. Security is an aspect of the electoral process that is largely overlooked but eventually ends up being very critical as was witnessed in the post election violence in the northern part of the country, particularly Bauchi, Kaduna Plateau and Kano States. Rather than wait to simply put reports of woes together in this regard after the elections, there should be concerted effort toward ensuring that better preparations are put in place by the security agencies just the same way it was on INEC.

The Nigerian security agencies, especially the Police must inculcate the values of democratic policing in the operations to effectively ensure that there are no breaches of the law before, during and after elections. This will involve partnering with the citizens to proactively work to prevent all forms electoral violence in subsequent elections (Akpan, 2008).

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