

Good Governance and Local Government Administration for Development: Multiple Perspectives

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Abstract

This paper examines the relationship between good governance and local government administration. It begins with a review of the concepts of the good governance, local government administration their importance for development at the local government level. It argues that both good governance and local government administration need to coexist if any meaningful development is to take place at local level. The paper further identifies some problems that hinder good governance at the local level and suggests ways of solving them.

Key Words: *Good Governance, Local Government Administration*

Introduction

Development from below (bottom-up approach) is a term that has been with us for a long period of time. It is a view that recognizes local government as a veritable tool development at the grassroots. Unfortunately, most countries depend to a larger extent on superior levels of government: by this I mean central government in a unitary system of government and state and federal governments in a federal system of government. The reasons for this are not farfetched. The

general belief is that the provision of services is becoming more expensive, and to achieve general developmental objectives, managing them at the center should be the right alternative. The consequence of this is that even those services that were earlier decentralized either by constitutional provisions or by convention, are gradually being recentralized. Whether decentralization or recentralization or even democratization, the consensus now is that with good governance, the objectives of local governance can better be achieved. And the citizens at the grassroots can be better served.

This paper therefore is an attempt to examine the impact that good governance can have on development at the local government level in Nigeria. It is worthy of note that in this part of the world, what constitutes governance or even its variance good governance remains elusive.

The paper begins by defining the concepts good governance and local government administration. It then goes on to discuss how the practice of good governance at the local government level can enhance development, given the fact that of the eight Millennium Development Goals MDGs, five of them are better implemented at the local government level.

Definition of Good Governance

There is no general agreement as to the definition of governance. While what constitutes governance remains contestable, there is sufficient literature on what is poor governance and its impact on public sector management in general. Poor governance, according to African Development Bank, manifests itself through the following: (i) failure to make a clear separation between public and private resources; (ii) failure to establish a predictable framework of law and government behaviour conducive to development; (iii) excessive rules and regulations, which impede the functioning of markets and encourage rent-seeking; (iv) priorities inconsistent with development, resulting in a misallocation of resources; (v) and narrowly based or non-transparent decision-making (ADB, 1999).

We will take a look at some of the existing definitions of governance. The Oxford Dictionary, defines governance as “the act or manner of governing, of exercising control or authority over the actions of subjects; a system of regulations”. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Africa and the Pacific (UNESCAP) defines it as “the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented)”. Governance according to the UNDP is “...the exercise of economic, political and administrative authority to manage a country’s affairs at all levels. It comprises the mechanisms, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interest, exercise their legal rights, meet their obligations and mediate their differences.”

The World Bank (1989) while defining governance as “the exercise of political power to manage a nation’s affairs” identified three distinct aspects of governance to include: the form of political regime; the process by which authority is exercised for managing a country’s economic and social resources for development; and the capacity of governance to design, formulate and implement policies and discharge functions.

The myriad of definitions given above may have prompted Olowu (2000) to excise two popular groups of definitions of governance. The first group which aligns with the views of the World Bank and many other United Nations institutions, sees governance in terms of “leadership—the manner in which (state) political leaders manage, use (or misuse) power —whether to promote social and economic development or to pursue agendas that undermine such goals.” The other group of definitions see governance as more of “sharing of authority for public management between state and non-state organizations ... (and so governance is seen) as forms of multi-organizational action rather than involving only state institutions.”

Good governance without doubt is a prerequisite to social and economic development. However, what constitutes good governance also varies from one international organization to the other. What is clear is that donor organizations see good governance as the means by which better practices in development practices could be instituted. It was the belief

in many donor communities that the failure of most economic reforms occurred as the result of absence of accountability, transparency, rule of law, participation and strong enabling institutions (Robinson, 2001).

According to UNDP (1997), good governance is "... participatory, transparent and accountable, effective and equitable, and it promotes the rule of law. It ensures that political, social and economic priorities are based on broad consensus in society and that the voices of the poorest and the most vulnerable are heard in decision-making over the allocation of development resources." In this definition, UNDP identified and explained the core characteristics of good governance as listed below:

Core Characteristics of Good Governance (UNDP, 1997)

- 1) Participation -All men and women should have a voice in decision-making, either directly or through legitimate intermediate institutions that represent their interests. Such broad participation is built on freedom of association and speech, as well as capacities to participate constructively
- 2) Rule of law - Legal frameworks should be fair and enforced impartially, particularly the laws on human rights
- 3) Transparency - Transparency is built on the free flow of information. Processes, institutions and information are directly accessible to those concerned with them, and enough information is provided to understand and monitor them
- 4) Responsiveness - Institutions and processes try to serve all stakeholders
- 5) Consensus orientation - Good governance mediates differing interests to reach a broad consensus on what is in the best interest of the group and, where possible, on policies and procedures
- 6) Equity - All men and women have opportunities to improve or maintain their wellbeing
- 7) Effectiveness and efficiency - Processes and institutions produce results that meet needs while making the best use of resources
- 8) Accountability - Decision-makers in government, the private sector and civil society organisations are accountable to the public, as well as to institutional stakeholders. This accountability differs depending

on the organisation and whether the decision is internal or external to an organisation

- 9) Strategic vision - Leaders and the public have a broad and long-term perspective on good governance and human development, along with a sense of what is needed for such development. There is also an understanding of the historical, cultural and social complexities in which that perspective is grounded.

Good governance from the above therefore promotes gender equality, sustains the environment, enables citizens to exercise personal freedoms, and provides tools to reduce poverty, deprivation, fear, and violence.

Local Administration Defined

The term local government, just like any other term, has been defined in different ways. Awa (1981) sees local government as “a political authority set up by a nation or state as a subordinate authority for the purpose of dispersing or decentralising political power”. In the same vein, Wraith (1984) defines local government as “the act of decentralizing power, which may take the form of deconcentration or devolution. Deconcentration involves delegation of authority to field units of the same department and devolution on the other hand refers to a transfer of authority to local government units or special statutory bodies such as school boards for instance. From this perspective, one can see local government as a lesser power in the national polity. It is an administrative agency through which control and authority relates to the people at the grassroots or periphery.”

Akpan (1972) sees local government as the breaking down of a country into small units or localities for the purpose of administration on which the inhabitants of the different units or localities concerned play a direct and full part through their elected representatives who exercise power or undertake functions under the general authority of the national government.”

The 1976 local government reform defines local government as:
“government at local level exercised through representative council established by law to exercise specific powers within defined areas. These powers should give the council substantial control over local affairs as well

as the staff and institutional and financial powers to initiate and direct the provision of services and to determine and implement projects so as to complement the activities of the State and federal governments in their areas, and to ensure, through devolution of these functions to these councils and through the active participation of the people and their traditional institutions, that local initiative and response to local needs and conditions are maximized.”

The definitions above provide certain intrinsic characteristics of local government as:

- Local government officials are elected.
- The local government unit must have a legal personality distinct from the State and Federal Governments.
- The local government must have specified powers to perform a range of functions and finally,
- It must enjoy substantial autonomy. i.e. ability to make its own laws, rules and regulations; formulate, execute and evaluate its own plans and the right to recruit, promote, develop and discipline its own staff.

It is based on the views above that Gboyega (1987) proposes two basic classes of theories of local government. The first class attempts to justify the existence or need for local government on the basis of its being essential to a democratic regime or for practical administrative purposes like responsiveness, accountability and control. The other one opines that an effective local government system contradicts the purpose of a democratic regime. This is based on the fact that local government institutions are neither democratic in their internal operations nor admit responsiveness, accountability and control (Adeyemo, 2005).

In explaining reasons why local government exists for example, Ola (1984) provided these schools of thought: Democratic Participatory School, The Efficient-Service School and The Developmental School. These three schools are relevant in this discussion. The democratic school for example argues that the major function of local government is to bring about democracy and to provide citizens the opportunities for political socialization and participation. The efficiency school believes

that what should be more important to local government is not more participation but rather how to coordinate the delivery of national services at local level, minimize consumer deficit, minimize transaction costs that occur as a result of the bigness of government. J.S. Mill explained that : “It is but a small portion of the public business ...which can be done well, or safely attempted, by the central authorities.” The last school, the developmental school is more concerned about how local government in the developing world can be an effective change agent where the citizens will live a better life, socially and economically.

For UNDP (2009), local governance is defined as covering the range of governance issues that exist at the local level, including decentralisation of policies and processes, the roles and inter-relationships of different actors and institutions, local democracy and local government performance

The above definitions presuppose that any local government worthy of the name should be able to meet certain objectives. The 1976 Local Government reform captured this principle when it listed the primary objectives of the local government as follows:

- (a) To make appropriate services and development activities responsive to local wishes and initiatives by devolving or delegating them to local representatives body;
- (b) To facilitate the exercise of democratic self government close to the local government levels of our society, and to encourage initiatives and leadership potential;
- (c) To mobilize human and material resources through the involvement of members of the public in their local development;
- (d) To provide a two way channel of communication between local communities and government (both state and federal).

These objectives if carefully looked at are aligned to the core principle of good governance (Adeyemo, 2005).

What Is Development?

Development as a term means different things to different people. According to Joseph Stiglitz (1999:1) development is “a transformation of society, a movement from traditional relations, traditional ways of

thinking, traditional methods of production, to more modern ways”. Korten (in De Beer and Swanepoel, 1998:8) views development as “a process by which the members of a society increase their personal and institutional capacities to mobilize and manage resources to produce sustainable and justly distributed improvements in their quality of life consistent with their own aspirations”. For development to occur, it must transform the lives of the citizens through the provision of better quality of life (Chambers, 1997).

It is in consonance with this that UNDP (1998) sees development in terms of transformation (sustainability). That is a holistic developmental paradigm that sees human beings as both the means and end of development. It seeks to expand choices for all people-women, men and children, current and future generations-while protecting the natural systems on which all life depends.

Todaro and Smith (2003:792) define development as “The process of improving the quality of all human lives”. They refer to three important aspects of development: [1] raising people’s living levels – their incomes and consumption levels of food, medical services, education etc., through relevant economic growth processes; [2] creating conditions conducive to the growth of people’s self-esteem through the establishment of social, and economic systems and institutions that promote human dignity and respect; and [3] increasing people’s freedom by enlarging the range of their choice variables, as by increasing varieties of consumer goods and services”.

Diejomaoh (2008) is even more specific as to what constitutes development. According to him, the emerging global consensus on development now consists of planning for the following:

- 1) Accelerated economic growth and ‘Wealth Creation’ and not just poverty reduction.
- 2) Macro-economic economic stability, liberalization of markets and prices, and private sector led growth
- 3) On the external economic front, reaping the gains from the irreversible process of globalization, which must be made fair for all.
- 4) Pursuing the implementation of the Millenium Development Goals.

- 5) Implementing the Decent Work Agenda. which emphasizes Workers Rights, decent employment for all, social protection for all, and enhanced social dialogue.
- (6) The prospects for success in achieving the development goals above, depend on the practice of good governance – democracy, respect for human rights; rule of law, transparency and accountability and the fight against corruption in Government, the private sector, and all sectors of human endeavor and society.

The Linkages between Good Governance, Local Government Administration and Development

The question that should concern us at this juncture is whether there are linkages among the three terms above. If there is, which one should come first? While some people believe that development should come before good governance, others argue that it is only good governance that can sustain development.

There are however concrete links between good governance and local administration. In fact all the core characteristics of good governance, viz: Participation, Rule of law, Transparency, Responsiveness, Consensus orientation, Effectiveness and efficiency, Accountability and Strategic vision, are expected to operate in any local government system worthy of that name. What remains to be established is the extent to which the linkage has engendered development.

Some of The Problems Affecting Good Governance and Local Administration in Nigeria

Nigeria like most countries has local governments that exist least on paper. Although the constitution guarantees them some tasks, the enabling environment is not there for them to perform the task. Section 7 (1) of the 1999 Constitution stipulates that: The system of local government by democratically elected local government councils is under this Constitution guaranteed; and accordingly, the Government of every State shall, subject to section 8 of this Constitution, ensure their existence under a Law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils.” The same

constitution in the Fourth Schedule conferred certain functions on local governments.

What results from these are overlapping powers and consequently buck passing. As a result some problems are hardly solved either at state or local government level. The end result is disillusionment with government and its activities. In some states for example, there have been issues concerning land use charge, tenement rate, provision of basic medical services, primary education.

One other problem militating against good governance is the lack of resources. Local governments in Nigeria have constitutional powers to levy local taxes and fees but these resources amount to nothing compared to the enormous responsibilities bestowed on them. Section 162 (3, 5 and 7) of the Constitution states that:

(3) Any amount standing to the credit of the Federation Account shall be distributed among the Federal and State Governments and the local government councils in each state on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

(5) The amount standing to the credit of local government councils in the Federation Account shall also be allocated to the states for the benefit of their local government councils on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

(7) Each state shall pay to local government councils in its area of jurisdiction such proportion of its total revenue on such terms and in such manner as may be prescribed by the National Assembly.

The Revenue Allocation Formula in Nigeria allocates 20% to local governments whereas 48.5% to the Federal Government, 24 % to States, and 7.5 % for “special” or federally determined projects. In addition, LGAs are entitled to a share of certain federation taxes like value added tax (VAT).

From the provision above, local governments are entitled to 10% of internally generated revenue of the State government. Allowing them

to managing these funds on their own has been problematic. Section 162 (6) states that “ Each State shall maintain a special account to be called “State Joint Local Government Account” into which shall be paid all allocations to the local government councils of the state from the Federation Account and from the Government of the state.” This clause has enabled the state governments to manage the accounts of local governments ‘directly’.

One other issue that impairs good governance and development at the local government level is the lack of real democratically elected local government. Although the constitution prescribes a “system of local government by democratically elected local government councils”, some councils in some states (Ondo, Oyo, Edo, Kebbi and Ekiti) have been dissolved and appointed officials (Caretaker Committees) run such councils. Moreover in cases where elections were held, they have been hardly free and fair in most states of the country. State governments by law are to constitute a State Independent Electoral Commission for the purpose of organising elections into local councils. Such elections are won by the party at the state level. We have instances like in Imo State where the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP), out of the twenty political parties that contested the election, won all the 303 councillorship seats in the 27 local government councils. In Lagos State also the Action Congress (AC), the party in power at the center swept all the chairmanship and councillorship positions in the election that was conducted in the state’s 20 Local Government Councils and the 37 Local Council Development Areas. The violence that characterize these elections have discouraged honest and responsible people from participating in local elections (*PM News*, 2010; *Vanguard Online*, 2010)

The issue of equity and women participation is of interest also if good governance is to exist at local government level. Women have never been at the forefront of politics in Nigeria in general. It is even worse at the local level. In the 1990 elections into local governments heralding the Third Republic, very few women emerged as councillors and only one woman, Chief (Mrs) Titilayo Ajanaku, emerged as chairperson of a Local Government Council in the West. As 2003 the total number of councilors in Nigeria stood at 8810 with 8667 male and 143 female

representing a meager 1.6%. This percentage compares poorly with the recommended 30 per cent global affirmative action or with the statistics from other African countries like Rwanda, Uganda, Kenya or South Africa (DFID, not dated)

In one UN (2009) reports one woman in Nigeria shared her experience during a focus group discussion. According to her: “I went for councillorship in my own ward and discovered that in these things women are men’s followers. Whatever music they play, women have to follow and dance to the music. Everything is manipulated, high-jacked, and handled by men.” This should not be allowed to continue.

Another problem is lack of transparency and accountability. Corruption at the local level is very high. The reason for this is that local government accounts are not accessible to the citizens. It is difficult to find a single person who has assisted in the budgetary process of local governments. To many it is believed that local government accounts are shrouded in secrecy. When at a time the revenues that accrue to local governments were being published in National dailies, some government official were not comfortable. The Minister of State for Finance then, Mr Remi Babalola, confirmed that some states were not comfortable with the continued monthly publication of revenue accruing directly to local councils. And that instead, they prefer the stoppage of the publication or at best, the allocation lumped under the states’ share. The reasons for this are not farfetched. Apart from the fact that it enables the citizens to know the amount of money their local governments receive as allocations from the federal government, it also exposed the amount of deduction at source carried out by the State without the knowledge local government chairmen (Guardian Newspaper Thursday, December 03, 2009). It is this lack of accountability that has encouraged corruptible practices at the local government level. The Chairman of The Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) one of the anti-corruption agencies in Nigeria, declared local governments in the country as a “Bastion of Corruption” because according to him, “more than 12 out of 54 criminal cases it has pending in courts were against local government chairmen and its officials.”

One last issue is that of excessive control by other higher tiers of government. This goes from budgetary approval to the establishment of spending limits. The famous saying is that, he that pays the piper dictates the tunes. In most cases, local government cannot embark on any project without the approval of the higher tiers of government. In fact we had cases of imposition of projects and even contractors. Approval have been delayed or even denied because of disagreement with higher authorities. In all this it is good governance and development that suffer.

Strategies for Ensuring Continued Good Governance and Local Government Administration in Nigeria

There are many strategies that could be adopted to ensure good governance and development at the local government level in Nigeria. These include but not limited to:

- A clear legislative distinction between the responsibilities of federal state and local governments which will guarantee each of them its role in the constitution (Section 7).
- Establishment of conditions that will ensure real decentralization—political, administrative and financial not the way we have it now that what is given with the right hand is taken back with the left one.
- Reorganisation of local governments to prepare their capacity to meet modern challenges. This could be legislative, administrative and financial.
- Ensure a viable local political process where free and fair elections are held at regular intervals with everybody having equal opportunity to contest.
- Expansion self generated revenue through the exploration of new forms of financing.
- Encouragement of private sector participation in the economic development of local areas by creating favourable economic and policy environments.
- Ensuring the citizens participate in the taking of decisions that affect their lives and that local government policies are people centered.
- A developed local civil society that will monitor local governments as they tried to develop policy and deliver services.

- Formation of larger municipalities for more benefits, using economies of scale.
- Development of a customer driven local government where citizens will be king.
- Establish the practice of discipline in financial and other aspects of management;

Conclusion

In the words of Bigg and Satterthwaite (2005) measures to meet most of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have to be intensely local or have strong local components – because, to succeed, they have to change outcomes in each particular locality, especially for those with the least income and assets. Good governance and local administration should go hand in hand and they very important to a developing country like Nigeria. This is more so because the urge for better life is still high among the people who keep looking up to all tiers of government. Unfortunately, local government is the closest tier of government to the people and the least developed and least funded.

What this portends is that urgent strategies must be put in place to put peoples destinies into their hands. The more secretive governance becomes the more speculative the people are and this does not augur well for development. That is why good governance should be encouraged not only at the local government level but also in all other tiers of government.

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Addressing The Boko Haram Sect's Nihilism: An Exploration of The Role of Writers

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Abstract

Terrorist attacks in Nigeria were formerly almost exclusively carried out by two separate and distinct militant groups: the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND) and the Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB). Another militant group, Boko Haram, an Islamist sect, has now emerged and is at the moment carrying out deadly attacks on Nigerians, on foreign nationals and on public agencies and institutions like the police, the army, and public and private schools. While the Federal Government has to a large extent successfully used force to curtail the violent activities of MEND and MASSOB, its employment of that strategy in dealing with the Boko Haram sect has largely failed. This position paper briefly discusses the history of terrorism in Nigeria, the advent of Boko Haram, its meaning and origins, its terrorist attacks and their impacts, and the various ways and strategies being suggested to bring the Islamist sect's insurgency to an end. Finally, the paper contends that, in addition to the various suggested strategies, writers too have a role in ending this dreaded sect's murderous activities.

keywords: *attacks, terrorism, militant, movement, emancipation.*

Introduction

Hitherto, only two militant groups in Nigeria-MEND and MASSOB-were making certain demands from the Federal Government, and seeking to achieve their objectives by violent means. While the Government was grappling with the challenges posed by MEND and MASSOB, another and a far more militant group, Boko Haram, emerged on the Nigerian religious and political scene. Whereas the government had almost succeeded in using force to checkmate the menace of MEND and MASSOB, its employment of that approach to deal with the more radically militant Boko Haram has largely failed, as the rising tide of violence of the group has not been curtailed. For the

past two years, the Nigerian state has been constantly witnessing the terrorist attacks of the group against churches, schools, markets, police stations, army barracks, hotels, private homes and so on.

The murderous activities of the members of this Islamist sect now terrorize North-Eastern Nigeria. Urban dwellers and even people living in small villages in those volatile areas now live in fear, as no one really knows when he or she will be blown up or bombed, stabbed or slaughtered, kidnapped or killed, abducted or viciously attacked (Faniran, 2012). The Boko Haram Islamist sect members are now on the prowl in parts of Borno, Bauchi, Yobe, Adamawa and Kaduna states, spilling the blood of Nigerians and non-Nigerians alike, bombing and burning their homes as well as their places of work and worship. The sect members have threatened to extend their violent activities in Northern Nigeria to other parts of the country. It is obvious that a number of steps have to be taken, and very quickly too, to end the violence and destruction which Boko Haram has unleashed on the country. Different people have suggested different strategies to end the Boko Haram insurgency. This paper contends that in addition to the strategies being canvassed, writers also have a role in addressing the nihilistic phenomenon of Boko Haram. It is this role that the paper examines. To back our claims and assertions in the paper, we intend to cite not only books and journal articles but also newspaper reports.

A Short History of Terrorism in Nigeria

Oyeniya (2010) and Falola (2012) trace the history of terrorism in Nigeria from as far back as the violent activities of the Sokoto Caliphate at the turn of the nineteenth century. Our own investigation, however, would be restricted to the more recent past, the post-independence and post civil-war Nigeria. Accordingly, we would take the parcel bomb which killed Dele-Giwa, the Editor-in-Chief of *Newswatch*, on Sunday, 6th October 1986, as the first instance of terrorism in Nigeria in recent times.

The fact that this brutal terrorist attack took place during the military era in Nigeria has fuelled the suspicion that the Nigerian military spawned terrorism and violence on the country's national life. No one or group

claimed responsibility for Dele Giwa's gruesome assassination, and up till today, no one knows the person or persons who delivered the deadly letter bomb to the home of the Editor – in – Chief of the news magazine, or the motivation for their action. As Omotoso (2011) has rightly remarked, Dele Giwa's murder remains one of the many unresolved assassination cases in Nigeria.

Terrorism in Nigeria took a new dimension with the advent of MEND and MASSOB. These two militant groups, in addition to bombing and burning oil facilities, also kidnapped important and wealthy persons as well as oil workers, most especially foreigners, for ransom, and claimed responsibility for all their acts of terror.

A series of politically motivated violence and assassinations followed on the heels of MEND and MASSOB insurgency. Omotoso (2011) gives a frighteningly long list of eminent Nigerians, mostly politicians, who have been assassinated in what the researcher has characterized as political terrorism. As in Dele Giwa's case, none of the perpetrators of these wicked acts has been apprehended, and this singular failure of the security agencies has emboldened the harbingers of death to operate with impunity.

The Meaning, Origins and Motives of Boko Haram

"Boko" is an expression in the Hausa Language and means "Western Education". As Abolurin (2011:171) has noted, the term "boko" is derived from the Hausa word "boka" meaning a sorcerer, a person who performs magic by using the power of evil spirits; and "haram" is an Arabic word meaning sin or sacrilege or abomination. Taken together, the Hausa and the Arabic words "boko haram" thus mean "Western education is evil" or "Western education is sacrilege" or "Western education is sin". This explains why the militant sect declares all forms of Western education as evil and, therefore, forbidden.

Tracking the origins of Boko Haram, Cook (2011) avers that the roots of the sect lie in the Islamic history of Northern Nigeria, a predominantly Muslim region which traditionally always promotes and defends the cause

of Islam while suppressing other religions, particularly Christianity. In his own account of the origins of the Boko Haram sect, Abolurin (2011) observes that the group started in 1995 under the leadership of one Abubakar Lawan who later went to the University of Medina to study. Mallam Yusuf Muhammad, a fiery Islamic cleric, became the group's next leader and transformed it into a radical organization, vowing that he would fight the Federal Government and the authorities of the Northern states until he succeeded or died in the process (Abolurin, 2011). Muhammed began to agitate for the adoption of Sharia law in the Northern states as a strategy for reducing the influence of Western education and culture. Eventually, Muhammed was arrested and extra judicially killed by Nigerian security operatives on July 30, 2011.

The motives of Boko Haram would seem to declare Nigeria as an Islamic State, to impose Sharia as the country's legal system, to wipe out all traces of Western education and to ensure that Muslims and the North rule Nigeria most of the time. The radical sect also intends to curtail the influence of Christianity in the entire North and to cause the exodus of Christians, most especially the southern Christians, from the region by ceaselessly attacking them, their churches and other Christian places of worship. In the last one year, hardly any Sunday, the Christian day of religious worship, passed without at least one church being bombed or attacked, resulting in many deaths on each occasion. Any Nigerian daily from July 2012 to July 2013 is replete with reports of these weekly and daily deadly attacks by Boko Haram.

Another motive of some of the more radical members of the sect would seem to cause a religious war between Christians and Muslims in Nigeria. Such a war, if allowed to break out, is bound to be very bloody and protracted, and certain to bring about the disintegration of the country. This is the prospect that the Federal Government and all well-meaning Nigerians fear most; and this is why the Federal Government considers Boko Haram a more dangerous group than either MEND or MASSOB. Moreover, such a war is capable of bringing about a massacre and ethnic cleansing.

Explaining the Rise of Boko Haram in Nigeria

Some prominent Nigerians have tried to identify the reasons for the existence of Boko Haram. Among such prominent Nigerians were the late General Owoye Azazi, the former National Security Adviser (NSA) to President Goodluck Jonathan, Alhaji Bamanga Tukur, the current National Chairman of the ruling Peoples Democratic Party (PDP), and General Muhamadu Buhari, former Nigerian military ruler and now a co-founder of the new opposition party, All Progressives Congress (APC). According to General Azazi, Boko Haram was the result of undemocratic tendencies in the PDP (Tell May 21, 2011 P. 11). Although General Azazi did not explain what he meant by “undemocratic tendencies” in the PDP, anyone who is conversant with Nigeria’s political scene knows that political parties’ undemocratic tendencies include imposition of candidates on the electorate by political parties, election rigging and other activities that are capable of undermining democratic development in Nigeria.

In his own view, Bamanga Tukur attributed the advent of Boko Haram to rampant forms of injustice perpetrated by the PDP (see Femi Fani-Kayode’s article in *Sunday Tribune*, June 24, 2012, p.5); and General Buhari too believed that injustice perpetrated by the ruling PDP was the root cause of the Boko Haram problem (*The Nation*, September 12, 2012 p. 1).

The injustice which Tukur and Buhari and other Northerners seem to be talking about arose from the PDP’s failure to follow the party’s unwritten agreement and disallow President Goodluck Jonathan from contesting the 2011 presidential election. The unwritten agreement among PDP leaders was that the presidency should be rotated between the North and the South. President Yar’adua, a Northerner, died before completing his term, the Northern term, and the North felt that another Northerner and not Vice-President Goodluck Jonathan should succeed him to complete the Northern term. However, the PDP did not only refuse to stop former Vice President Jonathan from contesting the 2011 presidential election, but actually supported his candidature and voted for him to win the election. The North felt it had been denied the

presidency and viewed the PDP's action as a great injustice to it. Expectedly, the opposition political parties in Nigeria are now blaming the PDP-controlled Federal Government for Nigeria's security challenges and its economic, religious and socio-political woes.

It is not only Nigerians that have given reasons for the Boko Haram insurgency. President Barack Obama of the United States has also attributed the insurgency to what he termed "bad governance" (*Sunday Tribune*, 20 June, 2013 P.4) The problem, he said, would disappear the very moment that Nigeria embraced democracy and the rule of law, eliminated official corruption and reduced the level of poverty among Nigerians.

A major reason for the existence of Boko Haram, as far as this researcher is concerned, is illiteracy in Northern Nigeria. The Northern masses, particularly the youths, are denied Western educational opportunities freely available to their counterparts in the South. Unlike in the South, education, whether Western or Quranic, is not made compulsory in the North, and parents in the region are free to send their children to school or to keep them at home or leave them in the streets. It is estimated that there are over ten million such youths in the North. They are called "Almajiris" and roam the streets begging for food or alms or both. Adoo (2010) has stressed the need for quality education in Ghana; we would stress this need even more strongly in Nigeria because members of the Boko Haram Sect recruit uneducated youths, the "almajiris" and send them on suicide bombing missions (Abolurin, 2011).

We are also tempted to see the existence of Boko Haram as a clear indication of the failure of religion and religious leaders in this country. Every Friday and every Sunday, millions of Nigerians, dressed piously, head for mosques and churches to pray. They also pray almost ceaselessly every day. Moreover, every year, the three tiers of government in Nigeria spend millions of naira to sponsor holy pilgrimages to Mecca and Jerusalem. For these reasons, Nigeria ought to be the most peaceful country on the face of the earth. But what we are witnessing in this country today is the exact opposite of what is expected.

Terrorist Attacks by Boko Haram

The February 26 issue of *TELL*, (p44), gives a list of 44 terrorist attacks by members of Boko Haram between July 27, 2009 and January 26, 2012. The number must have more than doubled by now because since February 2012, terrorist attacks by the Islamist sect have escalated. Between January, 2012 and May of the same year, over 254 people have been killed in 20 gunfights and 45 bombings (*Sunday Punch* September 16, 2012 p.2). The number of people already killed by the sect is now over 2000 (*Nigerian Tribune* 24 June 2013 p.12).

A new dimension in the operations of the sect is their attacks on mosques and renewed assaults on Christian churches and schools. The attacks on Christian churches have lent credence to suggestions in Christian circles that religion is the real cause of Boko Haram's insurgency. Nigerian Christians do not seem to be deceived by Boko Haram's occasional attacks on mosques since these attacks are not as devastating and frequent as those carried out on Christian churches. Moreover, it is only the mosques in which Muslim clerics preached against the sect that have been attacked, whereas nobody has denigrated or said anything against Islam in the churches that have been attacked by the members of the sect.

The Effects of the Nihilistic Activities by Boko Haram

The attacks by Boko Haram have taken toll on several aspects of life in Nigeria. First, the attacks have endangered the security of lives and property in the country, as many people have died and property worth millions of naira has been destroyed in the bombings, shootings and kidnappings orchestrated by the Boko Haram sect. Second, many people now live in fear. Important and wealthy people in the North are now afraid to travel to their home towns because of the fear of being attacked by members of the Boko Haram sect. Northern Emirs and the Sultan of Sokoto, the spiritual head of Islam in Nigeria, have been targeted by Boko Haram.

The Boko Haram terrorist attacks have also affected food production in the North and the supply of foodstuffs to the South, threatening to

cause famine and hunger in the country. The effects of these attacks on agriculture and food production will definitely be felt in the near future. Newspaper reports (e.g. *Sunday Punch*, 27 May, 2012 p. 14) have claimed that some farmers in the North have abandoned their farms and others have fled to neighbouring countries like Chad, Cameroun and Benin Republic to escape death from Boko Haram attacks.

Moreover, the terrorist activities of the Islamist group have scared away many foreign investors. This is the most harmful effect of the Boko Haram terrorist attacks. The current Federal Government in Nigeria is determined to transform the economy by creating jobs for the army of unemployed educated Nigerian youths. The Government can do this only by attracting foreign investment. But no foreigners will invest their resources in a socially, politically and economically insecure environment. Even the nationals of such an environment will be reluctant to do business in their own country.

Boko Haram terrorist attacks have also dented Nigeria's image and reduced the country's influence in the international community. This has been confirmed by a statement credited to Chief Emeka Anyaoku, the former Secretary – General of the Commonwealth (*Nigerian Tribune*, July 11, 2012 P.4). Given its large population and its vast natural and mineral resources, Nigeria should be the undisputed leader of Africa, commanding respect even among countries outside Africa. However, this is presently not the case.

Addressing the Insurgency of the Boko Haram Sect

Dialogue with members of the Boko Haram sect has been suggested as one of the ways to address their insurgency and attacks. One of those advocating this is retired General Yakubu Gowon, Nigeria's former military ruler and founder of a popular prayer group, "Nigeria Prays". In an interview by a correspondent of *Sunday Express* of June 5, 2012, Gowon said, "I believe in dialogue (with Boko Haram) as a key to conflict resolution" (p.10).

Although we are not against the use of dialogue being canvassed by

General Gowon, we very much doubt if it can bring any tangible results simply because many of the demands being made by Boko Haram cannot be met. One such impossible demand is that Nigeria should become an Islamic country. We do not think that Nigerians can be persuaded to delete the clause in their country's constitution which declares it as a secular state and guarantees religious freedom of all Nigerians. In fact, the Christian Association of Nigeria (CAN) the umbrella body for all Christians in Nigeria and in the diaspora, will resist any attempt by any person or group of persons to turn Nigeria into an Islamic state. And former President Olusegun Obsanjo has told members of Boko Haram that they are "living in a fool's paradise" if they think they can win their current battle against the Nigerian state. (*Saturday Tribune*, September 15, 2012 p. 6).

Another difficult demand being made by the Boko Haram sect is that Western education should be abandoned in favour of Islamic or Quranic education. As has been noted, "Boko Haram", the very name of the sect, means "Western education is forbidden". It is most unlikely that the Islamic sect can be persuaded to give up this demand just as it is impossible to persuade other Nigerians to abandon Western education. Third, the sect is demanding that President Goodluck Jonathan should convert to Islam for peace to return to Nigeria. This is also impossible. In addition to dialogue and discussion with members of Boko Haram, Gowon also suggested prayer as another way to end attacks by Boko Haram (*Sunday Express*, June 3, 2012 p. 9). It is very difficult to see how the prayer option can stop a group that continues to attack and kill innocent people in their churches and places of prayer and worship. Many Nigerians have also suggested the use of force as an effective way to end the Boko Haram insurgency. Prominent among these is former Minister of Aviation, Chief Femi Fani-Kayode (*Sunday Tribune* July 1, 2012 p.22). But, as has already been pointed out, the police and the other armed personnel deployed to fight the Boko Haram insurgents have not succeeded in curtailing their violent activities.

The Role of Writers in Addressing the Nihilism of the Boko Haram Sect

Writers too have a role in putting an end to terrorist attacks by Boko Haram. By writers in this paper is meant poets, novelists, short story writers, essayists, playwrights, newspaper columnists and feature article writers, as well as writers of non-fictions, such as religious tracts, pamphlets, etc. Individual writers of each of the three literary genres should write stories that teach and encourage moral behaviour. For example, a character in a novel or short story or play or poem can be shown to get killed while attempting to plant a bomb in a busy and densely populated area, to illustrate the moral that evil doers will not go unpunished, and will be destroyed in their evil deeds.

Such story books should be published in attractive colours and widely distributed in primary and secondary schools across the country. Copies of such books should also be in public libraries, mosques and churches. Muslim and Christian preachers should tell worshippers stories in the books and emphasize their moral lessons. Writers of children's literature can also write a short story like the following:

Once upon a time, there was a man. He spent all his life persecuting and killing people who did not follow his faith. He was very happy that he had persecuted and killed many "unbelievers", and he had no doubt in his mind that he would go to "alujana" or heaven if and when he departed this earth.

One day, the man died after a protracted illness. Moments after his death, he met God face to face. "In one sentence", said God, "tell me the most important thing that you did on earth." "I performed my religious duties diligently, serving you and killing all those who did not accept the faith, those who followed other religions," the man replied. "I never asked you, or anyone, to persecute or kill those who practise other religions. I am the Creator of all human beings and all those that you have persecuted or killed were my creatures. You will spend all your miserable new life in hell fire," said God. Hardly had God pronounced his verdict when a hefty angel lifted up the man and hurled him into a fire that was burning like sulfur. "Ye! Ye! Pain! Pain!" the man started to cry in hell fire. If children listen to stories like the one told above, they will refuse to be recruited by Boko Haran or any violent group.

The leaders of Boko Haram claim to be fighting against injustice. Writers should make the leaders of this violent group see the injustice in the methods that they employ in their fight against injustice, methods that cause the death of several innocent people and the destruction of public and private property.

Boko Haram leaders and sponsors should be reminded by writers through their writings that thousands of innocent Nigerians who survived the deadly attacks orchestrated by their dreaded group are now in severe pain in many hospitals.

Short poems and plays that teach moral lessons should also be written and published and distributed freely in schools, colleges and universities. The poems, short stories, novels, plays and religious pamphlets and tracts should be translated into Nigerian languages and both English versions and the versions in the Nigerian languages should be made available in schools, churches, mosques, hospitals, and other public places.

Non-fiction writers can also write books preaching tolerance, forgiveness and peaceful coexistence. The Writers should stress the need to avoid another civil war in Nigeria, which the Boko Haram sect's destructive activities can cause. This country went through a civil war between 1967 and 1971; it has not fully recovered from the pain and destruction which it engendered. It is doubtful if any country in the world can survive two civil wars; so, another civil war in Nigeria is certain to bring about the break-up of the country.

Conclusion

The terrorist attacks and mass killings orchestrated by the Boko Haram sect have caught the Federal Government unaware and greatly embarrassed it and the Nigerian public. The attacks have also threatened to scare away foreign and local investors and frustrate Government effort to transform the economy through job creation, youth employment and provision of physical structures like roads, bridges, rail-lines, water ways, electricity, schools, health centers, pipe-borne water and other social amenities. Thus, the current violence and insecurity have adversely

affected the economic and socio-religious life in the North in particular and in the entire nation in general.

For the first time in 700 years, the Sallah Durbar, a colourful and exciting socio-religious event in the North, usually attended by numerous Nigerians and foreigners from all over the world, was put on hold in 2012 by the Emir of Kano for no other reason than the fear of its being disrupted by members of the Boko Haram sect. By this action, the Emir appeared to have nipped in the bud an event that could have provided an opportunity for the messengers of death to commit mass murder of innocent Nigerians and foreigners.

Among the strategies suggested for ending the Boko Haram insurgency and terrorism are negotiation and dialogue with the members of the sect, prayers for and appeals to them to lay down their improvised explosive devices (IEDs) or bombs and their other offensive weapons. Our article also outlines and discusses the role which writers could play in bringing an end to Boko Haram's dangerous, devastating and destabilizing activities.

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Editing Pictures and other Illustrative Materials in the Art of Book Publishing

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Abstract

The art of book publishing begins with a manuscript – getting it and shaping it towards publication. In a bid to publicize and spread among people the words, pictures and other forms of illustrative materials the imaginative and mind (authors, photographers, illustrators, etc.) have produced, editors and publishers as it were, open and close the ‘gate’ that stands between the information source (authors, photographers, illustrators, etc) and the receiver (reader). Both words and pictures are ‘set in order’ before publication. Pictures and other illustrative materials must bear captions, stating what the pictures cannot say for themselves. This paper stresses the fact that editing as gate keeping process is not restricted to accepting and rejecting of manuscripts for publication. It is the process of building a nexus between text and image (pictures and other forms of illustrative materials) during its transformation from the authors manuscript to the printer’s plate.

Introduction

Grannis (1967) cited in Okwilagwe (2001) defines publishing as To make public – to send forth among the people – the words and pictures that creative minds have produced, that editors have worked over, and the printers have reproduced. Publishing is the co-ordination of the multitudes of activities needed to produce books. It is the process of coordinating the various processes needed to bring a book from the idea in the mind of the author to the printed product available for distribution to the relevant audience (Altbach, 1992).

Book Publishing has also been described by Woll (1999) as the mission to disseminate ideas and promote literacy. It means to publicize and spread among people the words and pictures the imaginative minds have produced, that editors have edited and printers have reproduced. Publishing activities therefore consist of planning, selecting, editing, designing, producing, marketing (promotion and sales) and distribution

of printed materials such as books. Publishing in the general sense involves the manufacturing of all paper-based media through which information is disseminated, (Okwilagwe 2001).

From these definitions, publishing is a process, a transformer and distributor or disseminator of ideas. These definitions also identify different processions in book publishing: creative mind (authors and artists), editors (manuscript analysts, critics, gate-keepers, indexers, judges of other people's judgment, etc) printers (manufacturers and industrialist, who use machinery and raw materials such as paper and ink, to produce the miraculous physical object we call a book) and marketers (researches the readers market, and determines the market need, book sellers/distributors).

The book, the major output of publishing is a primary means of communicating knowledge which is central to the provision of information, entertainment, analysis, and education, to the people. Books remain the most efficient and dominant means of appealing to the individual's intellect to bring about transformation (Ihebuzor, 2006), and are also the major instrument for entrenching national interaction, cooperation and understanding, (Ubahakwe, 1984).

Theoretical Framework

To provide a strong logical basis for this paper within the context of book publishing as mass communication, the following two theories are considered: Social Responsibility Media Theory; and Gate Keeping Theory.

On the authority of Anaeto, Onabajo, and Osifeso (2008), the Social Responsibility Media theory was propounded by Siebert, Peterson, and Schramms in 1963. When applied to communication research in book publishing, Social Responsibility Media theory explains that books carry with them an important part of society's development. We learn from them, we are entertained by them, and we possess them. Illustrated and reading books have helped to lay foundation for an educational progress of an enlightened and free society. This is an important media (book

publishing) social responsibilities are good partner in the society. Book publishing is first and foremost service to humanity. The publisher, the illustrator, and the photographer are affording humanity the opportunity to read an author's expression of thoughts and ideas.

The second theory is the Gate-keeping theory. This gate-keeping media theory was propounded by Kurt Lewin in 1947, (Anaeto, Onabajo, and Osifeso, 2008). The point here is that no book publisher can publish all manuscripts received, hook line, and sinker. Editors, designers and illustrators as it were, open and close the "gate" that stands between the information source (the author) and the receiver (reader). Gate keeping in publishing is not restricted to accepting of manuscripts for publication. It also involves editing of illustrative materials for clarity of expression. Editorial here describes the cutting, revising and reshaping that take place before publication. This relates to gate-keeping which Esimokha (2008) describes as the process of filtering messages from source to receiver. To reach its intended readers, every published message has to pass through many gates (authors/manuscript, editorial, design/typesetting/graphics, pre-press/print-production/finishing, promotion/marketing/sales, and readers). Some of these gates will be wide open, some ajar, and some closed.

Editing: An Overview

The word 'edit' literally, means "give out" or "set in order" or "reconstruct" for publication. The derived word 'editorial' describes the cutting, revising and reshaping that takes place before publication. In other words, editing in this work means preparation of another person's photographs or other illustrative materials for publication, and would consequently entail dealing with picture definition, clarity of artistic expression, composition, visual impact, technical proficiency and colour, decency (ensuring that nothing obscene is allowed), help to set in order to convince the reader of the truth of the claims in the text.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English (1995) gives the meaning of Editing as: Assemble, prepare, modify or condense (written material, especially the work of another or others for publication). The

Collins English Dictionary (2009) gives the meaning as: To prepare (text) for publication, by checking and improving its accuracy or clarity. From these, the emphasis is only on the text. Editing according to Wikipedia (2012) is the process of selecting and preparing written visual, audible and film media used to convey information through the process of correction, condensation, organization and other modifications performed with the intention of producing a correct, consistent, accurate and complete work. Complete with both pictures and text in place. These can come in forms of contents editing; copy editing; and proof-reading.

Editors look over author's manuscript to be sure that it is well written, that the pictures and other illustrations are telling the story better, so that readers can understand it, that the illustrative materials are in good taste, that it leaves no questions unanswered and it is not libelous. Like the manuscript/typescript, photographs and other illustrative materials also require the same careful editing and other preparations that are often taken for granted. Anaeto, Solo-Anaeto, and Tejumaiye, (2009:130) opine:

Pictures, like written copies are also edited. Photographs are edited to tell only what they are supposed to tell, reconstructed to give emphasis where it is needed, and reduced or enlarged to fit space.

Photo Editing

A good and professional editor has the important responsibility of searching for photographs or identifying photographers, illustrators and/or cartographers (map makers) to provide illustrative materials for their titles.

In this regard, the editor, according to Onyema (2005) has to:

- i) Participate in reaching an agreement with the suppliers on their freelance fees and as well delivery schedule;
- ii) Ensure that proper permission is obtained from the owner or holders of authority over the objects before they photographed and used; and

- iii) Liaise with illustration materials suppliers to ensure that the job is completed promptly and to specification.

According to Ihebuzor (2006), the editor also checks that tables, charts, graphs, and illustrations agree with the text, helps to plan or select illustrations and use them for effective communication; makes sure that illustrations are suitable for reproduction; and helps to plan the visuals of the publication.

The meaning of this is that the editor who is the guardian of the book's content, in collaboration with publication's designers (visual planners) and artists and sometimes with the author, generates a list of photographs and illustrations required. All visual art concerns itself with the production of images, which are pictures and other illustrative materials. When these images are used for conveying specific information in book publishing, the art form is generally called illustration (Dalley, 1988).

The photo editing process often begins with the author's idea (or the idea is suggested to him/her as a competent author), the illustration brief, continuing as a collaboration between the author, the editor and the graphic artist/illustrator as the work is created. As such, editing is a practice that includes creative skills, team work, and human relations. A constructive and co-operative relationship between authors and their editors is vital to successful publishing.

During the preparation of briefs for designers and illustrators for the book project as well as copy-editing, the editor is in the position to visualize how the book should be in terms of format, cover, and the illustrations it may have. According to Onyema (2005), the editor's task to prepare the following essential brief (written description) to guide graphic designers and illustrators include:

- i) Design brief - format specification, including chapter headings, running heads, type/image area, bleeds and margins;
- ii) Cover brief and cover copy (text) - creative cover with a text image relationship;

- iii) Illustration brief - indicate very clearly the type of illustration, viz colour, line, wash, etc; and
- iv) Map/diagram sketches (e.g. Geography, Biology, Mathematics texts) usually supplied by the author.

Drawn illustrations are sometimes prepared from copies of those previously published, if suitably amended, or from authors original line work, roughs sketches or ideas. They are edited for sense and consistency before being passed to the designer or illustrator who is adequately briefed. Correction cycles on weak point of the illustration follow. The desired position of the illustrations is indicated in the text (Clark, 1991).

The author may also need to resolve queries on pictures and illustrations if the author cannot supply illustrations, editors sometimes have to undertake picture research or brief a researcher if the publisher is responsible for obtaining copyright holders. Each illustration or table is labeled and compared against the accompanying text and caption for agreement. All pictures should bear captions, stating what the pictures cannot say for themselves (Jefkins, 1977). This collaboration involves the gate keeping function because the editor takes in and takes out, corrects mistakes and also makes sure that the right illustration, photograph, and graphics are used. As the editor reads the text and the graphics, he/she has to understand what the author intends to say without losing track of the author's intention. It may be the intention of the author to use abstract illustration and not realistic pictures, etc. Effective editing is a worthwhile step on the road to publishing. Even a piece of work one considers a masterpiece, can benefit from the attention of the right and experienced editor. Most authors do a poor job editing themselves, even if they are excellent in editing other author's works.

Illustrations speak volumes and are as important a vehicle for communication as the printed words in a book (Ihebuzor, 2006). Aesthetically, illustrations make books, especially children's books more captivating. It is however imperative to note that bad illustrations can tell a thousand lies, and can distort the flow of communication process.

Good illustrations in book publishing should do one or more of the following:

- (i) Capture the attention of the reader;
- (ii) Identify the subject of the message; and
- (iii) Help convince the reader of the truth of the claims made in the text.

The editor working in collaboration with the graphic artist know that illustrative materials have a variety of communication functions in book publishing. Telling the story better or clarification of issues. However, where these functions are not obvious, such illustrative materials should be removed. The functions that qualify illustrations for inclusion include:

- (a) Attraction and getting attention: illustrative materials help to attract the readers' eyes to the cover or page. Book publishers make use of illustrations to attract readers to the written or verbal symbols and by so doing, arouse their attention; and
- (b) Information: illustration, especially photographs help to intensify experience or meaning by complementing the written message.

Spicer (1995) explains that photo editing is to process text and illustrative materials; check illustrative materials for completeness, clarity and relevance to text; check for missing illustration and instigate any missing materials search. Good editors apart from checking illustrative materials for completeness and suitability; protect they publishing houses against copyright infringement; and also help authors communicate clearly through the limited medium of print. Editors know how to clear up ambiguities and confusion; get the artist to improve awkward illustrations and root out the many other visual obstacles that can arise in the way of clear communication. It is important to note that the best publication's illustrators benefit from editorial help and are often the most grateful after all. However, a bad illustration or picture is worse than having no illustration at all in a book, especially in Nursery and Primary School levels. Pictures and other illustrative materials must be indeed needed and functional, and not merely as an ornament in a book. The author may provide the required pictures and they should be clear and sharp; they should also be properly identified. The publisher may assist in obtaining some other needed pictures and make the author pay for them later by deducting the cost from his royalty. Copyright owner of pictures lifted from existing sources must be acknowledged, and merely acknowledging

the source without having secured prior permission may not exonerate an author from the offence of copyright violation (Areo, 2009).

Good and professional editors note the following:

- (i) Careful inspection of each illustration to ensure that it corresponds with the message contents of the text;
- (ii) Check and ensure that the list of the illustrations forwarded with the typescript tally exactly with the captions;
- (iii) Check and ensure that each caption is as concise and as descriptive of the illustration as possible;
- (iv) The illustration should be seen to complement and supplement the text as well. This is creating a text-image relationship and building a nexus between text and illustrative materials; and
- (v) Photographs should be handled with care. Writing on the back for ease of identification must be done in soft pencil, and lightly done to avoid defacing the picture.

The processing steps for illustration are the same as the verbal copy. Illustrations and pictures can, and do contain errors. The errors could be mechanical or qualitative. Mechanical errors could be in the form of stains and other spots. Qualitative errors could be poor tones, faulty backgrounds and poor draughtmanship. Illustrative materials with such errors should be removed or corrected or the work be re-done to get a better quality photograph or illustration. The shape the size and the content have to be appreciated for the message and the layout of the page. Editors and publication's designers do not have to use the whole photograph. The contact print will enable them to decide which part of the picture would be needed. The process of eliminating extraneous details in a photograph is an aspect of photo editing known as cropping, (Ezirim, 2003). In other words, cropping is the elimination of unwanted portions of a picture. This is done to focus on the information worthy aspect of pictures and other illustrative materials.

In some subject areas such as Biology, Geography, and other Science and Technology disciplines, where pictures and other illustrative materials are heavily required for effective learning and communication, the author

is required to clearly indicate and mark up the illustrations. Here illustrations are edited and label tags and captions are inserted. Spellings are checked for consistency and correctness.

Cropping of Pictures and Illustrative Materials as Editing

Picture research, photography and illustrations are usually commissioned by the editor but also in close association with the designer. Here, the editor writes the captions, cuts and extends the text to make it fit in. Cropping is the figurative cutting by the editor or graphic artist of the original picture and illustration to eliminate the faulty or unwanted parts. It is figurative because portions of the picture are rarely cut away manually or electronically through the use of computer.

Cropping is done for the following reasons:

- a) **Design Principles:** Good book design depends on the arrangement of each element with relationship to every other element in the design. These elements include Balance, Contrast and Unity. They must function as communication, not merely as art. If it does both, so much the better, but art for arts sake has no room in book publishing. The page layout that transmits the message. For the reader to absorb the information, the editor should ensure that the type are organized in blocks and columns, and to keep the page layout free from unnecessary visuals that only add clutter. A book designer is like a good editor. The layout may have many elements in it, but it should 'read' as one unit.

- b) **Cropping for Content:** Check and consider the relevance of suggested illustrative materials by the author, in terms of appropriateness, whether sufficient or too many, and where labeling and appropriate captions are needed, whether specimens have been adequately provided by the author.

Photographs from photographers and illustrations from artists often contain shortcomings that should be corrected. Unnecessary and disturbing 'details' should be removed. Good cropping can eliminate weak points and emphasize strong points. Communicating some themes and suppressing others, (Folarin, 1998).

According to Well, (1981) and cited in Areo (2009: 219), the illustrations should be:

Simple and uncluttered —too much detail can confuse the reader; Well-labelled but not excessively: clear there should be no doubt about the illustrations purpose; Large enough to use most of the available space to the full.

- c) Cropping for Space: A photograph or illustration is really used in its original dimension. Enlargement and reduction is done for effective communication, so that the essence of the message can be delivered. It goes through pre-press with the lithographer, or for colour pictures for colour separation. Printing plates are then made from the films.
- d) Cropping for shape and economy of shape: The choice of a picture/ illustration shape has a particular relevance to the content. The ideal format/shape, according to international standard, is one that conforms to the ration of three to five, and even when this ideal cannot be attained, the editor should at least, make sure that the image area is approximately three-fifths of the text image area, both as to width and depth, (Ihebuzor, 2006). Illustration formats are either in portrait or in Landscape. For books targeted at the general audience, the editor with the assistance of a creative photographer or illustrator, can go portrait, landscape, elongated, or even experimental bizarre formats. Publishers in America are more at liberty to showcase creativity.

Conclusion

This work has highlighted the imperativeness of the gate-keeping process of editing pictures and other illustrative materials in the art of book publishing. A good and professional editing is a worthwhile step on the road to good publishing. Even a piece of picture or illustrative material one considers a masterpiece, can benefit from the attention of the editor.

A constructive and co-operative relationship between the publisher (editor) and the author is vital to successful publishing. The level of benefit the author derives from the publisher's provision of pictures and other

illustrative materials, from the queries raised on authors pictures and illustrations are geared towards improving communication, particularly visual communication. The principal reason for these actions is to help authors communicate clearly through the effective use of text and image. This paper also notes the fact that editors are indeed the soul of the publishing enterprise. The diversity of their responsibilities make the editing job quite challenging but important in the art of book publishing, from conception to consumption.

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Education, Moral Values and Human Society: A Constructive Reflection

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Abstract

The paper that follows is an exercise and reflection in philosophy and education, using the methodologies of conceptual clarification, analysis, exposition and argumentation. The paper examines and interrogates the position and the role of education and moral values in the pursuit of the common good of society. This paper states that education needs to prepare individuals to seek for the common good of society, most especially in whatever situating they find themselves in life. Education as a moving train has been and continues to be fundamental to the development of citizens. Moral values, on the other hand, bring to play the value of education and how individuals should apply such values in their daily activities within a given society. This paper therefore submits that education and morality have the same foundation inherent in human nature and this can be realised in a conducive human society. From the foregoing, it is clear that there is a distinct relationship between these three terminologies, (education, moral values and human society) and that they complement one another.

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Introduction

Every human culture has provided some form of education by which it has transmitted a cultural heritage from one generation to the other and as well as preparing them as members of society. Besides, education also provides the ground for societal well-being and also prepares some modalities which may help such society in the future, specifically the younger generation. However, this can be done through a well structured form of education, by which the norms, values, cultural heritage, learning of new things, and skill acquisition can assist in the development of man and society. On the other hand, since education plays an important role

for the development of every human being, it therefore follows that a society where a large percentage of her members are uneducated, such cannot but be filled with immoral actions, chaos and anarchy.

This paper therefore focuses on education, moral values and the human society. It attempts to draw a link among these three concepts. It argues that for us to enjoy the beauty of any human society, attention must be given to education and moral values. These are the key ingredients for a sound and harmonious human society.

The Idea of Education

The concept of education appears difficult to define. Education, like any other concepts has been defined by many persons in many and diversified ways. The definition a person gives to education comes mainly from how he views education. Educationists define education in a very different way, philosophers have their own different way of also defining the concept, and a lay man also has his own definition. Before we consider these definitions, it is expedient to first consider the etymology of the concept *education*. This will help enhance better understanding of what education is all about. We shall critically consider two opposing schools of thought and how they view the etymology of education.

Idealism and realism are two schools of thought that have different views on how and where knowledge should come or go to (Ojih, 1995: 22). The idealist, led by Plato, said that the word “education” is derived from the Latin word *educare* which is “to lead forth”, “drag out” or “pull out” ideas which are innate in man right from the moment of childhood. They were opposed by the realist led by John Locke. To the latter the word “to educate” comes from the same Latin word *educare*, but it involves “sending in” or “putting in” ideas into the mind of a child which is believed to be blank at the moment of birth (Ibid: 23). We can see that what differentiates the two schools is that the idealists believe that in educating we bring out what is already innate in us, while the realist asserts that in educating, we put in that which is not innate from birth. For them, nothing is innate from the moment of birth, education helps put in or send in ideas.

According to Daniel Sifuna (1994: 1), some educationist defines education as:

The entire process of developing human abilities, potentialities and behaviour. Education is an organised and sustained instruction meant to transmit a variety of knowledge, skills, understanding and attitudes necessary for the daily activities of life. Education is also a process in which an individual attain social competence and growth within a selected chosen and controlled institutionalised setting.

The above defines education in three diverse ways. Its last sentence considers an institutionalised setting which one can call a school. The other sentences look at education as a necessity for living a good and balanced life. The definition of education is not limited to what we have above. John Dewey was one of the educationists who sought to define education in his own way. For the American philosopher and educationist, education is termed reconstruction or reorganisation of experience. These experience adds to the meaning of experience and also increases the ability to direct the cause of subsequent experience. In short, he defined education as a continuing process of reconstructing experience (Ibid: 141). His educational method is what is currently employed in the United States of America.

The idea Dewey holds on education is that education should be more of experience and not just to be packed with too much of curriculum with no time for experience by the pupils themselves. He further held that, "education is a process of living and not a preparation for future living" (Ibid: 144). People have confused education to be a preparation for future living thereby neglecting the present. Education helps us to live life daily and not about waiting for the future. It is true that education helps us to prepare for tomorrow, but that does not mean that the present should be neglected, because it is even the present that helps us to live a better tomorrow. It is first a process of living which will definitely prepare one for the future. What the statement is against, is that when one view education as just a preparation for future living, he no longer

sees education from the holistic point of view. Education is holistic and should be viewed as such. Through our definitions so far, we have seen how difficult it is to separate man from education. Man continues to be the subject of education. It is man that receives and transmits education to his fellow man.

Furthermore, education can be thought of as the transmission of the values the accumulated knowledge of a society (The New Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1). To educate means to help someone understand the elements of reality in life. A good education is to be able to transform individuals and reach their heart. Therefore, education becomes communicable and capable of moving others to the affection of each other. An educated person is someone who is sensitive to things and personally looks for solutions to his human needs and the needs of others. Therefore, anyone who has received education has the possibility of thinking logically and can communicate them by analysing critically his reasons and arguments.

According to Nunn, (1998) education is the complete development of the individuality so that he can make an original contribution to human life to his best capacity (Laxmi Devi, 1998:29). Every individual is a unique one who needs to think normally as a process which leads to the formation of a character. Education brings changes in behaviour, and its main functions include being a transmission or enrichment to our individual society. As already said, the subject matter of education is the development of the personality into a society. To understand very well the personality of an individual is a complex one. The aim of education should be the development to the full potentialities of every individual in accordance with the general good of the community of which he or she is a member and the world at large. Education is an infinite process in our lives. This is because education rightly begins from our birth till death. Therefore, education is in reality of all our lives because there is no aspect of our living where there is no effort to learn, train and develop ourselves (Ibid: 30).

Education which is based on teaching and learning specific skills are more

recognised to be a means of imparting positive knowledge and well developed wisdom in an individual. Education means a lot to every individual, because it is what influences and highlights the life of a person. For education to be very effective, the self needs to be well focused and that is where true knowledge comes from. Every individual has wisdom and it is in potency, but this can be proven by the learner's possibility of learning by himself and also truly learning it well with the help of a teacher. The wisdom transmitted by the teacher is the same wisdom by which the individual can arrive with his own cognitive system, but teaching still takes first place because it presupposes a higher level of wisdom to attain and the presence of a teacher who has already achieved this higher level. Every student is like clay waiting for the potter who is the teacher to mould (Ibid). Basically, education begins from birth, but the term has come to be used only for formal system of education. For instance, John Milton says that "education is that which enables a man to perform justly, skilfully and with satisfaction, the offices both private and public which have been assigned to him" (Gyesi-Appiah, 2003:4). The implication is that the individual gets what will aid him/her in their life through education.

Fundamentally, the idea of education from the above analysis is that process of acquiring skills, information, development of individual capacity, imparting knowledge, and the transmission of individual capacity for independent thinking. Education is important and fundamental to every rational society. It has been with man since the beginning of reality (creation of man) and has contributed greatly to the development of human society. The system of education each society practice and adopts, goes a long way to affect the overall human behaviours, ways of life and level of development in that society.

Morality: Meaning and Nature

Morality refers to the normative code of a group of people, a set of principles employed by a people to determine the forms of behaviour that are to be referred to as right or good as opposed to those to be rejected as bad or wrong. As an enterprise, morality provides a guide of conduct for human beings as they engaged in social interaction

determining the conduct, the personality traits and the social institutions or practices that should be accepted by the society. This why it is acceptable to simply describe morality as a venture committed to the specification of the types of conduct people should embrace, the kind of character traits and social institutions/practices that should be accepted as against the contrary.

Morality is that set of convictions whose function is to promote human flourishing, to enable us to live together on terms of mutually beneficial cooperation - or whatever one's doctrine as to its function may be (Routledge Encyclopaedia of Philosophy). Indeed, the object of morality is primarily to order human behaviour and the activities in the society in a way that will enhance social stability, the well - being of all in the society and also to provide an adequate context within which all members of the society can effectively pursue their interests in ways that will be mutually beneficial. Morality bases its judgment on the rational nature of man and his final destiny which make his actions morally right or wrong. In summary, we can say that morality is a system of justification or condemnation of human actions as right or wrong, good or bad, etc (Routledge Encyclopaedia of Philosophy, *ibid*). Therefore, it is in the attempt to achieve the above objective that standards of actions evolve to specify those actions and character traits that are acceptable as good or bad, right or wrong, in the society. This standard in turn provides the basis for specific human conducts. Summarily, morality is concerned with the setting of normative standards for evaluating which ones are good or right, justified or unjustified bad or wrong. Again, a group of authors have defined morality as this, "the rules and codes that we live our lives by - morality tells us how we should live and act and develop as humans" (Jones, 2006: 7). This means morality serves a guide or a norm which humans "act" ought to follow if they want to promote unity and the good of other.

Wherever and in whatever human beings do in their social interactions, there must be a standard of action which is morality. There are basically two types of morality the ordinary morality and the occupational morality. The ordinary morality, as the name implies, entails those codes of conduct

that guide everybody in the society. They are general principles of action that guide human conduct without the exclusion of anybody in that society. The occupational morality in its sense means those codes of action that guide specific works or roles in the society. We should also bear in mind the essence or purpose behind morality; and this why *Blackwell Dictionary of Western Philosophy* states that "...but the overriding purpose of all moralities is to preserve social harmony" (2004, 228). This aim is fully found in the extract above. According to Gonslaves (1986: 50), "morality is the quality or value human act have by which we call them right or wrong, good or evil. It is a general term covering the goodness or badness of human act without specifying which of the two moral values is meant". With this, we can see that morality does not present to us the good deeds required but also the bad ones to be avoided. It also implies that morality covers the whole acts of human being. It must be noted that morality does not only serve as a guide or code but can be used in a descriptive form. Apart from this, morality can be influenced by some factors. This means that if we use morality to describe some actions, it is quite possible to have been influenced by some things to act in that manner. In this, we can say that morality can be subjective and objective (Gonslaves, 1986: *ibid*). It is subjective when morality is influenced or when one acts according to knowledge, consent, background, training, prejudice, emotional maturity, stability, and personal traits. It is objective when it is judged from the rational and realistic point of view excluding emotion and ignorance.

Significantly, morality is something everybody looks up to and works towards, in the sense that it is the measure of good conducts of all inhabitants of a particular society and that means in effect that one can individualize morality. No society takes the issue of morality with levity and because of that, every member of the society tries to live up to expectation. For instance, if a particular society frowns at immoral act like theft, people of such community become very conscious of it. People tend to behave according to the socially acceptable norms of society. Morality helps individuals living in a particular society to behave in a certain situation and places. This is because certain behaviours do not correspond to certain places. The popular saying, "do the right things at the right

time and at the right place”, codifies this. This ensures good conduct among individuals.

The Nature of Society

This concept is one of the concepts that can be defined in a broad sense and in a narrow sense. In a broad sense, the concept society means a large group of people who live together in an organized way, making decisions about how to do things and sharing tasks that need to be done in order. Society is considered as a unique and the highest stage for the development of every living being. It manifests itself in the functioning and growth of social organizations. But in its narrow sense, society means an organization in which people share similar interest (Ogundowole, 2004: 28). *The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*(2000: 119) defined society as people in general, living together in communities; a particular community of people who share the same customs, laws, etc. Multon Gonslaves (1986: 228) also defined society “enduring union of a number of persons morally bound under authority to cooperate for a common good”. In all these definitions and analyses, there is a common trend and it is that the society is an organisation of human beings, sharing some common culture and pursuing a common good. But it is worthy of note that society is not a physical thing. The only thing physical about it is the members and their actions. Thus, society is a kind of relation, not a single but a number of relations unified and systematized into an order (Ibid).

From the above, man is observed as an important element in the society; that is the society makes no meaning devoid of the person. Thus, man is conceived as a social being in the history of philosophy. Put simply, the human nature is social and as a social being, he/she must dwell within a society for full realization of his/her potentials. It is the view of many scholars that from conception of man to the end of his life, the society defines part of human nature. Therefore man cannot but live in a society, because it is in the society that humans can develop and become fully human. Every human beings is born into a particular society in which he (man) learns how to live and associate with others. In this society, man learns how to be human and learns a particular behaviour, attitude,

custom, tradition, the good or bad. In others, man learns and acquires some characteristics to enable him lead a meaningful life if he chooses. It is all these that a human being learns that make up his individuality. Following from this, it necessary to state that events of social life do not just come like that unless in a society, so man has to live in a particular society in order to form a good society (Naji, 2006: 102).

Man creates society, and society also forms man to be what he is as a social being. As a social animal, human beings need human interrelations, organizations and relationship for their full or best existence and fulfilment. Thus, for there to be social beings, social arrangements, laws, and other institutions must be put in place; such would assist individuals to make choices either to be good citizens or bad ones of a society(Ibid).

Education, Moral Values and Human Society: A Synthesis

Having examined and the discussed the nature and trend of education, moral values and society, it is imperative to show at this stage how education and moral values can help build a sound and viable human society. It simply means that a peaceful society must consider the relevance of good education in conjunction with moral probity, for it to thrive and achieve its full potentiality. First, there is a great relationship among education, morality and the society. One cannot do without the other, because it is the synergy of individuals' intellectual capabilities that build the society. It is the individual that set in motion, morals, custom, traditions, aimed towards the realization of a better society. Put simply, education and morality have the same foundation which is in human nature. They are centred on human nature which inseparable from each other. We should note that human beings cannot grow to be human without these three concepts(education, morals and values). It is these three things that make up a human and a good society. Education is important for the growth of the society and for the growth and development of individuals. It cannot be separated from man and also from our life. Education and moral values ensure stability in a society. It is through education systems that young members of the society are taught the expected behaviour of the society (Dubey et al, 1982: 1). Most members of a society grows up with its values ingrained. This

means that the internationalization of expected behaviour ensures harmony among the members, and education is therefore viewed as a social control mechanism. A society cannot exist or will exist in chaos and anarchy where there is no social order.

From another perspective, we cannot deny the importance of education and morality in character building. Moral upbringing, or character training, has been a strong principle of education. In clear terms, we cannot talk about character formation in any human society without mentioning morality. This is because education and morality in different forms helps one to cultivate a certain habit which later becomes one's character. Education and morality inculcate in people the ability to coordinate whatever is learnt towards social and useful purpose against destructive ones (Onyeaghalaji, 2009: 100). This makes individuals to get a habit or a way of thinking that will engrave the good of the society in the heart. Therefore, when we have a lot of people who have positive thinking trend, development is facilitated in that particular society and this in turn affects those around them. In addition, there is no education without discipline and discipline helps to instil moral probity and good character. Discipline allows morality especially within the context of education to question the behavioural attitude of educators and learners. Morality and education bring about good conduct that should guide the process of learning. It is true that education is basically to teach someone, (that which begins from the cradle) to pass knowledge or to impart good attitude in recipients. It is to instruct, to give information and, needed knowledge to others through the process of teaching. When this process is on-going, education is serving reformative purpose that helps to change or shift certain human behaviour. It can be changing from good to bad or bad to good. Thus, education thus restructures or reconstructs someone's personality model. It makes a new whole of person, a better person for oneself and for the society in which one lives and operates (Fagothey,2000: 35). When all these takes place, the society is at the receiving end.

Society is rooted in morality, that is, it is sustained by moral principles. To enjoy harmonious living in a society, these moral principles have to be respected. One who does not respect or act in accordance with

these principles, is seen as an anti-social being because he/she distorts what the society stands for (Omogbe, 2003: 382). This fact explains that it is through education that we can build character that would stand the test of time, such that the very nature and peaceful society we all want can be achieved. Besides, this fact also further emphasizes that the idea of morality is inseparable from education and by extension, the society. There is a wall of distinction between education and related concepts such as training and indoctrination. These related concepts deal with the intellectual formation without involving without much of moral principles. However, within the context of education, it implies the transmission of intellectual knowledge as well as moral values and judgement. In the absence of morality, we cannot make reference to education because education necessarily implies morality. For instance, “one can be trained to be a nurse, carpenter, driver, a doctor and this has to do with the intellect without involving will or morality; whereas education involves both the intellectual and moral formation” (Omogbe, *ibid*: 384). Education thus means transforming the person’s character from bad to good. As R.S. Peters as cited by Omogbe (2003) said, it would be a logical contradiction to say that a person is educated but he is in no way changed for better”. Rousseau (2007), however, is of the view that the objective of education is not to prepare one for a particular job or function in the society but to form a man. By forming a man, Rousseau means a person who will be balanced in life both intellectually and morally. In scales of values, education belongs to the values that are regarded as intrinsic in man’s nature such as good health, happiness and so forth; it is different from extrinsic values, like any acquired skills. Above all, the importance of education and moral values touches the behaviour of the individual and maintains a social relationship among others. Such social relationships helps in the reduction of vices like corruption, examination malpractice, violence and conflict, human right abuses, injustice and to mention but a few. These can be attained if only the majority understands that education and moral values are necessary tools for justice, development, and peace. This is what everybody desires, but it is unattainable except societies around the world improve the fundamental tenets of education and moral values.

Conclusion

This paper has been able to discuss the idea of education, with emphasis on the fact that education is as old as man and that education is the *alter ego* of other activities of man. All the activities of man directly or indirectly are geared towards educating man for the development of his capacity and his environment and for the well being of his existence. And these are realisable when appreciate that moral values must guide every of our actions. The paper also emphasised the fact that the role of education and moral values in the society assists man to live in the society as a social animal. This is because a society without education is like a rudderless ship and such society cannot progress beyond a certain level. Following from this, we can say that education and moral values are necessary to the society as what nutrition and reproduction are to physiological life. It (education) consists primarily in the transmission of values, culture and norms of the society. Education in all forms is set out to develop the person for life. Thus, based on this preparation of the individuals, that moral aspect also comes in towards assisting the person or individual to think rightly about whatever he or she does and is held responsible for it. From the foregoing, it is clear that there is a distinct relationship between these three terminologies, and that they complement one another. It is also important at this point to know that without education and moral values, the society is irrelevant and without the society, education and morality are also irrelevant.

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Old Words, New Meanings: A Survey of Semantic Change Amongst Yoruba-English Bilingual Undergraduates

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Abstract

Language functions best when it serves the communicative intent of its users, even if such is achieved by adding, removing or modifying the existing meanings of words. This development and change of the semantic structure of a word usually brings about qualitative and quantitative development of the vocabulary. The focus of this paper is to review semantic change that has occurred with some Yoruba words, its types and the motivations of such especially amongst undergraduates using Blank Andreas's principles and motive for semantic change as theoretical framework.

The tool used for the study is a self-constructed questionnaire administered to Yoruba-English Bilingual and a corpus of words that have undergone semantic change frequently used by them. The findings reveals that using words that have undergone meaning change is a frequent occurrence amongst Yoruba-English Bilingual undergraduates, a habit motivated by linguistic, psychological, sociocultural and cultural/encyclopedic forces. Also, it was found that the principles similarity, contiguity and contrast. as highlighted by Blank underlie all the types of semantic changes identified.

Keywords: Semantic Change, Extended Meaning, Language, Blank's Theoretical Principles for Semantic Change

Introduction

Creativity in language makes its existence and use versatile, capable of serving use across domains, functions, generations and as a matter of fact, social groups. Language does not in any instance maintain status quo; rather, it metamorphoses graphologically, morphologically, phonologically and semantically. The semantic domain of language change occurs either to accommodate a new meaning or an outright shift in meaning of words. As observed by Thomas and Wareing 1999, 'human

beings use language creatively and make up new words which can nevertheless be understood by others who are familiar with the culture in which the new word was developed'. In the words of Sapir Whorf (1949), as quoted in Weinz (2011) "Nothing is perfectly static. Every word, every grammatical element, every locution, every sound and accent is a slowly changing configuration, moulded by the invisible and impersonal drift that is the life of language." (Sapir 1949: 171).

In other words, the meaning of a word is in a constant process of alteration. The alteration of meaning occurs because words are constantly used and what is intended by speakers is not exactly the same each time. If a different intention for a word is shared by the speech community and becomes established in usage, then a semantic change or extended meaning (used interchangeably in this study) has occurred. Irrespective of the motivations of semantic change, a unifying factor for all semantic change is the intent to make language capture the intended meaning which can be direct or implied. Earlier studies have looked at semantic change classifying them into types, the motivating factors and generating theories for semantic change.

The first major works of modern times are Karl Reisig (1829/1839), Arsène Darmesteter (1887), Michel Bréal (1899), Hermann Paul (1880), Gustaf Stern (1931), Leonard Bloomfield (1933) and Stephen Ullmann (1957 & 1962). Studies beyond the analysis of single words have been started with Jost Trier's word-field analyses (1931), who claimed that every semantic change of a word would also affect all other words in a lexical field, an approach that was later refined by Eugenio Coseriu (1964). Generative semantics has been introduced by Gerd Fritz (1964). More recent works including pragmatic and cognitive theories are those by Beatrice Warren (1992), Geeraerts (1983, 1997), Elizabeth Traugott (e.g. 1990) and Andreas Blank (1997).

The theoretical framework for this study however is Blanks' theory and Motive (1997, 1999a) for semantic change. First is Blanks theory which proposes a metaphorical bridge linking semantic change, according to this theory, there are three basic principles underlining semantic change. These are principles of similarity, contiguity and contrast.

To explain this, the principle of similarity or metaphor means the transfer of the name of one object to another (and different one) based on association of similarity. This can also be referred to as **metaphorisation** - shift in meaning based on an analogy or likeness between things, e.g. 'crane', the name of a bird, has come to mean a piece of device for lifting things. Meanings of words can be changed based on metaphoric similarities as shown below:

Similarity of behaviour: *a fox* (a cunning person).

Similarity of shape: *a head* of a cabbage.

Similarity of function: *the key* to the mystery.

Similarity of position: *foot* of a mountain.

Transfer from the concrete to abstract: *to catch* an idea.

On the principle of contiguity which is derived from metonymy or **metonimisation**. If the transfer is based upon the association of contiguity it is called metonymy. It is a shift of names between things that are known to be in some way or other connected in reality. The transfer may be conditioned by spatial, temporal, causal, symbolic, instrumental, functional and other relations. According to Blank, sometimes this change is as a result of nearness of items. He described it as the semantic process of associating two referents one of which makes part of the other or is closely connected with it in space or time.

Jaw "cheek": "mandible".

Symbol for thing symbolized: *the crown* (monarchy)

Using the material for an article to denote it: *glass, iron, copper*

Horn "animal horn": "musical instrument"

Bar: lawyers, pulpit- priest

On the principle of contrast or antiphrasis, a word or phrase is used in a sense contrary to its normal meaning for ironic or humorous effect. This can also be seen as change based on a contrastive aspect of the concepts, e.g., perfect lady in the sense of "prostitute", as in a mere babe of 40 years.

To illustrate the theoretical process of meaning change in simple terms, Blank uses the metaphor bridge. Starting on the left hand side there is the motivation for the concrete innovation. The bridge itself is constituted

by the associative principles. This is according to Blank the cognitive psychological basis of the corresponding type of semantic change. However the associative principle is both the force triggering a certain type of semantic change and it is its necessary basis. On the right-hand side then comes finally the concrete type of semantic change. Underlying this whole process are the general communicative principles of success and efficiency.

In order to clarify this theoretical framework, we will take a look at the examples *torpedo* and *ose*

Originally it meant only 'electric ray' but then also gained the additional meaning 'underwater weapon system'. If we look at the left-hand side of the bridge, we will see that the motivation in this concrete case was the 'need for a new name'. This was the force, which made the speaker use metaphor as the type of semantic change with similarity as the underlying associative principle. The general motivation was efficient and successful communication. In our example, the scientists considered the presentation of the underwater weapon system as an electric ray; whose contact can lead to death, as especially successful and efficient. Afterwards the lexicalization of *torpedo* bears this consideration out. (cf. Blank 1997: 347;374).

A Yoruba example will be the word *ose* which originally meant soap. At the left side of the bridge is the social motivation which in the concrete sense is 'need for a characteristic meaning or based on an analogy'. This force made speakers use the word in the metaphorical sense. In this example, the undergraduates use the word *ose* in the sense of the slippery intrusive characteristic of soap and hence the new meanings insult or implicate. In other words, the motivation was linguistic, underlined by the principle of metarphorisation and the innovation is a semantic extension of the word.

Secondly, Blank (1997, 1999a) has tried to set up a complete list of motives of semantic change. This list has been revised and slightly enlarged by Grzegą (2004). They can be summarized as:

- linguistic forces

- psychological forces
- sociocultural forces
- cultural/encyclopedic forces

It is premised upon this theory and motives for semantic change that this study springboards. This study hopes to answer the following research questions:

1. Is semantic change a common phenomenon amongst Yoruba-English Bilingual undergraduates?
2. What is the frequency of the use of words with extended meanings?
3. What are the motivations/ rationale for such semantic change?
4. What types of semantic change frequently occur amongst them?

Language, its characteristics and Semantic Change

Shall we begin by taking an overview of the raw material on which this study is based? According to Algeo and Pyles (2004), language is “a system of conventional vocal signs by means of which human beings communicate.” Hence language is conventional, is a system, is habitual, is a vocal behaviour and language is a means of communication. A basic tool of communication therefore is the language by which communication takes place. Effective communication also is reinforced when communicators or better still, language users have a shared meaning which as Whorf established, transcends the literal meaning of words. Language, or more specifically words, can then be adjusted to incorporate extra linguistic features in order to enhance its communicative effectiveness. This sometimes leads to a change in the meaning of the word. Keller (1994) reinforces this with his definition of natural languages as a product of social interaction created through a series of invisible processes whose main purpose is to get something. Before we go on, we shall have a quick overview at some of the characteristics of language in an attempt to relate it to how it both accommodates and encourages meaning change.

Language is Arbitrary: Language is arbitrary in the sense that there is no inherent relation between the words of a language and their meanings or the ideas conveyed by them. The choice of a word selected to mean

a particular thing or idea is purely arbitrary but once a word is selected for a particular referent, it comes to stay as such. An arbitrary allocation of a new meaning to an old word may also occur without questionings on the direct relationship the new meaning has with the word as long as it conveys the intended idea.

Language is Social: Language is a set of conventional communicative signals used by humans for communication. In this sense it is a possession of a social group, comprising an indispensable set of rules which permits its members to relate to each other, to interact with one another. These signs allocated to the signified may in this wise change to bear a social resemblance to a new, social or cultural reality of the community in which Language exists. Semantic change in this wise achieves two things: it strengthens the language and as it enlarges its vocabulary. Also, makes communication more effective within the community of use.

Language is Symbolic: Language consists of various sound symbols and their graphological counterparts that are employed to denote some objects, occurrences or meaning. These symbols are arbitrarily chosen and conventionally accepted and employed. Words in a language are not mere signs or figures, but a symbol of meaning whose intelligibility depends on a correct interpretation of these symbols. Change in meaning could develop from symbolic occurrences which once mutually intelligible becomes conventionally accepted and employed.

Language is Systematic: Although language is symbolic, yet its symbols are arranged in a particular system. All languages have their system of arrangements. Every language is a system of systems. All languages have phonological and grammatical systems, and within a system there are several sub-systems. For example, within the grammatical system we have morphological and syntactic systems, and within these two sub-systems we have systems such as those of plural, of mood, of aspect, of tense, etc. Semantic change may occur either in alignment with an existing language system or outrightly assume another system in language.

Language is Vocal: Language is primarily made up of vocal sounds only produced by a physiological articulatory mechanism in the human body. In the beginning, it appeared as vocal sounds only. Writing came much later, as an intelligent attempt to represent vocal sounds. Writing is only the graphic representation of the sounds of the language. So the linguists say that speech is primary. Once there is a change in the meaning of a word in it becomes a vocal symbol which in due time with conventional use and acceptance becomes a writing code.

Language is Productive and Creative: This characteristic of language is very pertinent to this study. Language has creativity and productivity. The structural elements of human language can be combined to produce new utterances, which neither the speaker nor his hearers may ever have made or heard before any, listener, yet which both sides understand without difficulty. Language changes according to the needs of society. From the foregoing, we see that language change and society forms the two sides of the same coin. Research has proven that as long as language is being used by the members of a particular community, change in such language is eminent. At this point let's review what exactly the phenomenon of Semantic change mean.

Semantic Change and Types

Changes in meaning are common and they can be internally or externally motivated. In semantics, the word field in which words and their meanings stand in a network of relationships. The alteration of meaning occurs because words are constantly used and what is intended by speakers is not exactly the same each time. If a different intention for a word is shared by the speech community and becomes established in usage then a semantic change has occurred. At first, semantic change starts as a semantic innovation in the discourse of a single speaker or a small group of speakers. If this innovation is adopted by other speakers, maybe because he expects a communicative profit or he likes it for personal reasons, the new meaning can be lexicalised. As a further development the new meaning can lose its restrictions to a certain "speech situation" and reach the unmarked common level of a language so that every speaker will adopt it to his vocabulary. (Blank 2001).

Werth (1974) defined semantic change as A lexical item *a* hitherto associated with a semantic A, comes to be associated with the new but related configuration A' which may co-exist with or replace A. Simply put, semantic change is said to have occurred when a word which stands for a particular item comes to be associated with a new meaning in which case the new meaning may be used alternately with the old or out rightly replace it. Blank (1997) refers to the first phenomenon as “innovative semantic change” or “semantic innovation” and to the latter one as “reductive semantic change”.

An instance is the Yoruba word *isu* (Yam). *Isu*, which means a kind of meal popular amongst the Yoruba speaking people, popular for its use at various traditional ceremonies both as symbolic gifts and for preparation of different delicacies, has come to be associated with a new meaning sex/money. Hence the expression *Je isu* which hitherto meant eat yam, now means “make love” or “money”. This will be a case of innovative semantic change.

A more elaborate definition is one by Bloomfield (1933) and Campbell (1998). They defined semantic change as a change in the concepts that were associated with a term and the innovations that change the meaning of words. With regard to the innovations that change the meaning of words, Campbell (1998) and Crowley (1997) have the following classifications With regard to the types of semantic change: First, widening or broadening refers to the increase of the meaning of words (Campbell, 1998) and a change in meaning which could result in a word processing additional meanings while retaining the original meaning (Crowley, 1997). For example, the English word ‘dog’ had a specific meaning of ‘a powerful breed of dog’ which has a broader meaning that includes ‘all breeds of dog’. Second, narrowing involves the change of meaning that decreases its range of reference into a fewer context (Campbell, 1998) and occurs when a word refers to only part of the original meaning (Crowley, 1997). For instance, the word ‘starve’ (i.e. to suffer or perish from hunger) came from the Old English word ‘steorfan’ (i.e. to die).

Third, metaphor is a type of semantic change that involves one kind of thing in relation to another kind of thing that is somehow similar to the previous thing (Campbell, 1997). For example, the Cebuano word 'higante' which is similar to the concept 'big' is used in describing a great writer. Fourth, litotes is another type of semantic change that refers to exaggeration through understatement (Campbell, 1998). For instance, the phrase 'of no small importance' is mentioned that would mean 'something that is too important'.

Other types of semantic change that were identified by Campbell (1998) are metonymy, synecdoche, degeneration or pejoration, and elevation or amelioration. Metonymy occurs when there is a change of meaning of a word which includes other senses that are not originally present but are closely associated with the word's previous meaning. An example of metonymy is the Spanish word 'plata' (i.e. silver) that has been elaborated to mean 'money'.

Another type of semantic change is synecdoche (i.e. a part-to-whole relationship). For instance, the word 'tongue' means 'language'. In addition, degeneration or pejoration takes place when the sense of the word has a negative assessment in the minds of the users. For instance, the word 'spinster' has a negative connotation of an unmarried older woman. Traugott, Elizabeth Closs and Richard B. Dasher (2002) identified the simplest type of semantic change is a shift. For instance the Latin verb *arrivare* derives ultimately from *ad ripam* 'at the shore' but has long lost this meaning. But even such an innocuous case can be classified.

A closer look at all changes in meaning shows that alterations in meaning can be classified according to type. There are four basic types of semantic change which on the one hand refer to the range of a word's meaning and on the other, to the way the meaning is evaluated by speakers.

SEMANTIC EXPANSION: Here a word increases its range of meaning over time. For instance in Middle English *bridde* was a term for 'small bird', later the term *bird* came to be used in a general sense and the word *fowl*, formally the more general word was restricted to the sense of 'farmyard birds bred especially for consumption', cf. German 'Geflügel'.

Another case is *horn* ‘a bone-like protrusion on the heads of certain animals’, then ‘musical instrument’, then ‘drinking vessel’ of similar shape.

SEMANTIC RESTRICTION: This is the opposite to expansion. Already to be seen with *fowl* but also with many other words, such as *meat* which derives from Middle English *mete* with the general meaning of ‘food’ and now restricted to processed animal flesh. In turn the word *flesh* was narrowed in its range to ‘human flesh’.

Borrowing from another language may be involved here. For instance Old English *snipan* (German *schneiden*) was replaced by Old Norse *cut* as the general term and the second Old English word *ceorfan* was restricted in meaning to ‘carve’.

SEMANTIC DETERIORATION: This is disapproving in the meaning of a word. The term *knave* meant originally (Old English) ‘male servant’ from ‘boy’ (cf. German *Knabe*) but deteriorated to the meaning of ‘base or coarse person’, having more or less died out and been replaced by *boy*. *Villain* developed from ‘inhabitant of a village’ to ‘scoundrel’. The word *peasant* is used now for someone who shows bad behaviour as the word *farmer* has become the normal term. In official contexts, however, the term ‘peasant’ is found for small and/or poor farmers.

SEMANTIC AMELIORATION: An improvement in the meaning of a word. The term *nice* derives from Latin *nescius* ‘ignorant’ and came at the time of its borrowing from Old French to mean ‘silly, simple’ then ‘foolish, stupid’, later developing a more positive meaning as ‘pleasing, agreeable’.

Although the categorization of Blank (1998) has gained increasing acceptance he considers it problematic, though, to include amelioration and pejoration of meaning as well as strengthening and weakening of meaning. It should however be noted that this study accommodates the two types of semantic change.

Working on Semantic Change of the Selected Cebuano Words, Rowanne (2008) study revealed that in the written text, metaphor was

frequently used while broadening was the predominant type of semantic change in the spoken language. Metaphor was predominantly used by the Cebuano writers to clearly express the ideas, let the readers clearly understand their points, and raise the readers' thinking into a higher level of meaning. Numerous phenomena, such as metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole or synecdoche, which had previously been associated only with the literary and stylistic analyses of poetic and figurative language, have been proved to be cognitively-grounded mechanisms of meaning construction and change (e.g. Sweetser 1990).

Causes and Motivations of Semantic Changes

The causes of semantic changes may be grouped under two main headings, linguistic and extralinguistic ones. Linguistic causes deals with changes due to the constant interdependence of vocabulary units in language and speech, such as differentiation between synonyms, changes taking place in connection with ellipsis and with fixed contexts, changes resulting from ambiguity in certain contexts, and some other cases.

Semantic change due to the differentiation of synonyms is a gradual change observed in the course of language history, sometimes, but not necessarily, involving the semantic assimilation of loan words. Consider, for example, the words *time* and *tide*. *Initially* synonyms, then *tide* took on its more limited application to the periodically shifting waters, and *time* alone is used in the general sense. Fixed context may be regarded as another linguistic factor in semantic change. Both factors are at work in the case of *token*. When brought into competition with the loan word *sign*, it became restricted in use to a number of set expressions such as *love token*, *token of respect* and so became specialized in meaning. (www.referat.com/catalog/db/4420.doc. Retrieved 4/07/2013)

The extralinguistic causes are determined by the social nature of the language: they are observed in changes of meaning resulting from the development of the notion expressed and the thing named and by the appearance of new notions and things. In other words, extralinguistic causes of semantic change are connected with the development of the human mind as it moulds reality to conform to its needs.

Languages are powerfully affected by social, political, economic, cultural and technical change. It shows that social factors can influence even structural features of linguistic units, terms of science, for instance, have a number of specific features as compared to words used in other spheres of human activity.

The word being a linguistic realization of notion, it changes with the progress of human consciousness. This process is reflected in the development of lexical meaning. As the human mind achieves an ever more exact understanding of the world of reality and the objective relationships that characterize it, the notions become more and more exact reflections of real things. The history of the social, economic and political life of people, the progress of culture and science bring about changes in notions and things influencing the semantic aspect of language. e.g. *space* from the meanings of 'extension' or 'intervening distance' came to mean 'the limitless expanse in which everything exists' and more recently came to be used especially in the meaning of 'outer space'. (www.referat.com/catalog/db/4420.doc. Retrieved 4/07/2013)

The changes of notions and things named go hand-in-hand. As they are conditioned by changes in the economic, social, political and cultural history of the people, the extralinguistic causes of semantic change might be conveniently subdivided in accordance with these. Social relationships are at work in the cases of elevation and pejoration of meaning where the attitude of a particular social class determines the strengthening of the semantic components of the word.

Economic causes are also at work in the semantic development. The word *wealth* first meant 'well-being', 'happiness' from *weal* from OE *wela* whence *well*. This original meaning is preserved in the compounds *commonwealth* and *commonweal*. The present meaning became possible due to the role played by money both in feudal and bourgeois society. Coseriu (1958) argues that language is, rather a product, a process that exist virtually in the speakers mind as a mere potentiality and finds reality only in concrete utterances. While communicating, we refer to what is in our minds and thereby reinvent language every time we speak. According to him, the general motivation for semantic change is the expressive and communicative purpose of the speakers.

Blank (1997, 1999) Identified three motivations for semantic change.

1. Speaker Expressivity and Efficiency

This motivation for semantic change is summed up by George K Zipf (1949) “man talks in order to get something”. According to blank semantic change is a mere side effect of speaker’s pragmatic goals. This view of language implies that speakers want to communicate successfully and that they produce innovations anytime they judge it to be the most successful strategy. These innovations can be produced to reflect linguistic, historical or social change. He opines that language change is not inherent in language itself although it occurs at any time. Geeraets (1997) sees expressivity at work when speakers verbalise newly introduced or differently perceived concepts or give a new stylistic use to an already existing word.

2. General Conditions for Semantic Change

The general motivations for semantic change and be summarised as linguistic - language-internal, e.g. grammaticalisation, historical - changes in material culture and social - new meaning for a word which could arise because: its use by a particular social group, or a word used in a specific sense by some social group becomes widely used with extended meaning; or trends in social change: secularization of religious terminology. For instance, cell ‘monk’s living space’ now a prison space.

3. Specific Motivations for Concrete Motivations

This is the need for a new name in a concrete situation where the initiator’s wish is to give it a somewhat suggestive and successful name. Besides these classification, Picymbalista and Kleparsk (2007) premised on the statement by Blank(2001) that concepts are neither universal nor are they really language-specific: they rather are culture-specific and thus extralinguistic identified language-external mechanisms that is traditional extra linguistic motivation such as: politics and war; social-economic reality (including legal systems, social taboos etc.); technological and civilizational progress; culture (material and non-material) and religion; lastly, there are psychological factors (including taboo, euphemism, hyperbola, litotes, synaesthesia).

Although these studies dealt with the semantic aspects of language, none of them focused on the semantic change of words. Thus, this study on the semantic change of Yoruba words is conducted to fill this gap. This paper attempted to determine and analyse the semantic change of the selected Yoruba words. Also, this paper aimed at determining the types of semantic change undertaken by words from the Yoruba- English bilingual undergraduates' spoken data.

Methodology

Sample

The study area for this research covers the two university campuses within the Ibadan metropolis of Oyo state Nigeria, University of Ibadan and Lead City University respectively. This rationale for this is because undergraduates are most affected by culture, psychological, communicative necessity, and religious motivations which could give rise to semantic change. Semantic change amongst undergraduates adolescence is generally seen as a social locus for various types of linguistic innovation and change. Kotsinas (1997).

Neuland (1994) observed that the influence of adolescent speech on the entire speech community is highest with regard to the lexicons which eventually bring dramatic change to the meanings the entire community ascribe to such words.

Research Tool

A self-constructed questionnaire named *Questionnaire on Semantic Change and Word Use by Yoruba- English Bilingual Undergraduates (QSCWUYBU)* was administered to a crop of 100 Yoruba-English bilingual undergraduates drawn from the two universities. Sections A and B of the questionnaire elicited information on department, age, familiarity, frequency of use of abbreviation words with extended meanings. Sections C elicited response to questions bordering on rationale/ motivations for semantic change. The last section requested respondents to write out some words with extended meaning they use when conversing. A descriptive statistics of frequency counts and simple percentage was used for the data analysis. In analysing the types of

semantic change, the data was reviewed with the Blank's principles of similarity, contiguity and contrast for change to determine the type and metaphorical bridge to identify the motivation vis-a- vis the types identified.

To validate the questionnaire, the questionnaire was given to an expert in Sociolinguistics to assess its suitability. A trial administration was also done on 25 respondents that were not part of the sample. An SPSS analysis was thereafter done on the responses which yielded an 81.2 cronbach alpha.

Findings and Discussion

96 questionnaire copies were retrieved with respondents comprising 57 females and 39 males, 20% of which were from the sciences while 14% and 62% were from the faculties of Arts and Social-Sciences respectively. The age range of the respondents fell at 35%43% and 33% for ages 15-25 yrs., 21-25yrs and 26 -35 yrs. respectively. All the respondents are from the Yoruba language speaking tribes s this was a prerequisite for filling the questionnaire.

Answering the Research Questions

Research Question 1: Is semantic change a common phenomenon amongst Yoruba- English Bilingual undergraduates?

Attempting to answer research question 1, respondents were asked two questions using a Yes or No scale if they were familiar that some words are used with extended meaning over their original meanings and second, if they think undergraduates favour the use of words with extended meaning when they converse.

Charts 1&2: Quantitative representation of the respondent's assessments rate of familiarity with semantic change and undergraduate's use of words with extended meaning

As shown in chart 1, 97% of the respondents affirmed that they are familiar with semantic change. This shows that semantic change is arguably not a strange concept amongst undergraduates as only 3% responded in the negative. Reinforcing this, the respondents were also asked if they affirm or refute that undergraduates favour the use of words with extended meanings.

84% of the respondents affirmed that during conversations, undergraduates favour the use of words with extended meaning while 16% answered in the negative. The findings here reveal that language is not static (Weinz, 2011), making creativity in language a common as well as normal occurrence helping to build the linguistic capacity of such a language (Thomas & Wareing, 1999). Furthermore, this finding shows that semantic change is prevalent and accommodated amongst the social group of the society under study-the undergraduates as the respondents were not only familiar with the concepts but also agree to the use of words that have undergone some form of semantic change accommodating the new meaning during their conversations.

Research Question 2: What is the frequency of the use of words with extended meanings?

Having established that the respondents were both familiar with and favour the use of words that have undergone some form of semantic change, to answer this question, respondents were asked how often they witness the use of words that have undergone some form of semantic change when they converse with fellow students and how often they use such words too when they converse with others.

Chart 3, Table 1: Quantitative representation of the respondent’s assessments of frequency of contact with words with extended meanings

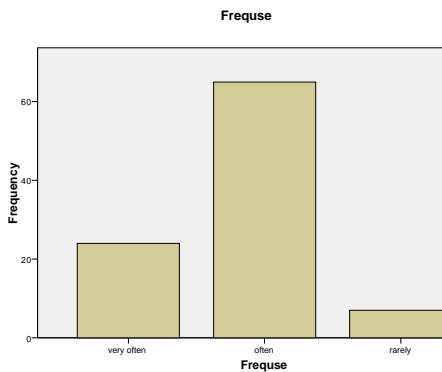


Table 1 Frequency of use of words with extended meanings

Scale	Frequency	Percentage
Very Often	24	25%
Often	65	68%
Rarely	7	7.3%
Total	96	100.0

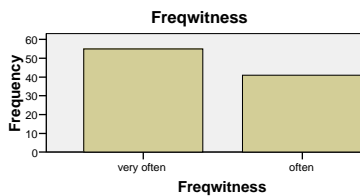


Table 2 Frequency of contact with of words with extended meanings

Scale	Frequency	Percentage
Very Often	55	57.3%
Often	41	42.7%
Total	96	100.0

Chart 4, Table 2: Quantitative representation of the respondent’s assessments of frequency of contact with words with extended meanings

Tables 2 and 3 above analyse the response to the frequency of use words with extended meanings by respondents and the frequency of occurrence/contact of words with extended meaning during conversations with others. 89(93%) of the respondents affirmed that they use words with extended meanings very often or often when they converse while 7(7%) responded otherwise. When asked how often other undergraduates make use of words that have undergone semantic change when conversing with others, all 96 respondents (100%) very often and often. We can therefore safely infer from the foregoing that all undergraduates make use of words with extended meaning when conversing.

Furthermore, the findings also infer that the reality and frequency of use of words with semantic change shows that it must be borne of communicative necessity hence the motivations and types of such words must be diverse based on the principle highlighted in Blank’s metaphorical bridge, which has on one side a motivation (communicative necessity) and on the other, a creative innovation (semantic change).

Language use amongst undergraduates has therefore undergone a re-adjustment, incorporating extra-linguistics features to increase the communicative effectiveness. It is therefore a product of social interaction which has undergone a process of semantic change to accommodate and encourage meaning change Keller, (1994). The social and creative characteristics of language are thereby reinforced.

Research question 3: What are the motivations/ rationale for such semantic change?

Table 3: Quantitative representation of the respondent’s assessments of the motivations/ rationale for semantic change

Reason Given	Agreed	Disagreed	Total
The use of words with extended meaning is favoured by undergraduates because it is socially acceptable norm	94(98%)	2(2.1%)	96
The use of words with extended meaning has become a communicative necessity to recapture new meanings	96(100%)	0(0%)	96
The use of words with extended meaning is favoured by undergraduates because it trendier or in vogue.	27(28 %)	69(72%)	96
The educational background of speakers also influences the new meaning given to words.	74(77.1%)	22(22.9%)	96
The socio-cultural background of speakers also influences the new meaning given to words	93(96.9%)	3(3.12%)	96
Speakers always decode meanings of extended words by colleagues	96(100%)	0(0%)	96
Extended meanings better communicates			

intended meaning	88(91.7%)	8(8.3)	96
Extended meanings makes words covert and less direct	94(98%)	2(2.1%)	96
Total	662(86%)	106(14%)	100%

Table 3 shows the quantitative representation of the respondent's assessments of the motivations/ rationale for semantic change. 98% of the responded agreed that words with extended meaning are favoured by undergraduates because it's socially accepted and has come to be a norm occurring frequently in language. All the respondents (100%) agreed that the use of words with extended meaning has become a communicative necessity to recapture new meanings. 26% of the responded agreed to the fact that they use words with extended meanings because it a trendy vogue amongst undergraduates while a larger number, 72% disagreed with this reason as a motivating factor for using words that have undergone semantic change. Most of the respondents (77%, & 97%) also agreed that educational backgrounds and the socio-cultural background of the speakers influence the new meanings given to words while only 23% & 3% respectively disagreed. All the respondents (100%) agreed that speakers always understand the new meanings given to words and most (92%), agree that extended meaning communicates the intended meaning more efficiently than the old meanings.

Research question 3 reviews the motivations/ rationale for semantic change and use amongst the respondents. To answer this we shall use Blank's (1997, 1999a) list of motives of semantic change where he identified the linguistic, psychological, sociocultural and cultural/ encyclopedic forces.

The findings here have shown that a linguistic force is a motive for using words with extended meaning amongst undergraduates. 72% agreed that use of words with extended meaning is borne out of a communicative necessity to recapture new meanings or a new phenomenon and 92% of the respondents also agreed that when conversing, words that have undergone semantic change better communicates intended meaning. Semantic change therefore is used to achieve what Blank describes as speakers expressivity and efficiency, a situation whereby speakers "talk in order to get something done and

verbalise newly introduced or differently perceived concepts or give a new stylistic use to an already existing word Geeraets (1997).

Next is sociocultural motivation for semantic change which Blank also refers to as the general motivations of semantic change. The important element here is the social group of the users which could influence the extended meaning given and widely used or the trends in social change. The study group here, that is the undergraduates form a social group related by social class and educational background. The findings here attest to this as 77% and 97% of the respondents attest to the fact that the educational and the socio-cultural background of speakers respectively influences to a very large extent the new meanings given to word. The sociocultural factors which group by Blank as general conditions for semantic change also accommodates new trends in living, historical or material culture of the undergraduates which reflects could hamper how the old meaning fails to communicate the sociocultural world view.

Blank also mentions that psychology plays a huge role in motivating semantic change. The findings of this study attest to this as the respondents agreed use of words with different meanings to accommodate the social and linguistic change of speakers has gained acceptance because it is socially acceptable norm(98%) frequently used(97%) by undergraduates.

They however disagreed that it is done because it's a vogue or trendy (72%) reinforcing that it is both borne more out of linguistic necessity, psychological attachment to a social group rather than a fashionable activity or aesthetics.

Lastly, blank identified the cultural or encyclopaedic motivation also referred to as specific motivations for concrete innovations for semantic change. Here, meaning is changed to accommodate the new or modified view of the world which could be a change in perspective, belief system religion, education etc. The respondents attest (97%) that semantic change enables them to speak more discreetly and modestly in other

words, euphemistically and metaphorically while still communicating intended meaning easily understood by other undergraduates (96%).

Research Question 4: What types of semantic change frequently occur amongst them?

Here exposition will be done on words that have undergone some form of semantic change which the respondents gave

Table 4: Analysis of words with extended meaning

Word/ expression	Old meaning	New Meaning	Motivation	Principle	Type
Isu	Yam	sex/money	Cultural/encyclopedic	Contrast	Expansion
Jabo	Fall off	Highlight/ talk active/boastful	Sociocultural	Metaphor	Expansion
Alata	Pepper seller	Illiterate/ Lousy	Sociocultural	Metaphor	Deterioration
Fo je	Crack open	Disappoint	Sociocultural	Contrast	Expansion
Onimoto	Transporter	Hooligan	Sociocultural	Metaphor	Deterioration
Koboko	Whip	Sex	Contrast	Contrast	Expansion
Gboju	Look away	Pardon/ignore	Linguistic	Metonymy	Expansion
Oloso	Wizard	Prostitute	psychological	contrast	Deterioration
Jasi	Fall in	Sociable	Linguistic	Metonymy	Expansion
Pako	Plank	Uncultured	Linguistic	Metaphor	Expansion
Omo nla	Fat	Extremist	Cultural/encyclopedic	Metonymy	Expansion
Wole	Enter	Impregnate	Cultural/encyclopedic	Contrast	Expansion
Fatai	Male name	Failure	Linguistic	Metonymy	Deterioration
Solo	Male name	Fool	Cultural/encyclopedic	Contrast	Deterioration
Igbira	Yoruba tribe	Numskull	Cultural/encyclopedic	Metonymy	Deterioration
Gobe	Unwise	Trouble	Linguistic	Contrast	Expansion
Igboro	Town	popular	Cultural/encyclopaedic	Contrast	
Omo ita	Hooligan	Prostitute	Sociocultural/linguistic	Contrast	Expansion
Ojo	Day	Police	Linguistic	Contrast	Expansion
Awo	Leather	Sex	Cultural/encyclopedic	Metaphor	Expansion
Elebolo	Vegetable seller	Sex worker	Sociocultural	Contrast	Expansion
Egun	Masquerade	Cheat	Sociocultural	Metaphor	Expansion
Omo	Baby	Pretty Lady	Psychological	Metaphor	Amelioration

From table 4, we see that change in the meaning of the Yoruba words are motivated by linguistic, sociocultural, psychological and cultural/encyclopedic forces underlined by the principles of metaphorization, metonymization and contrast.

The words *isu*, *koboko* and *awo* (yam, whip, and leather) have their semantic change motivated by sociocultural factors. The reason for this

is because sex is regarded as a social unmentionable hence a semantic extension of already existing words that are 'neutral' or in contrast to mean sex/love-making amongst undergraduates who consider it a little inappropriate to act directly using the original word *do*. The motivational force here is sociocultural underlined by the principle of contrast.

Other examples under this category are the words *elebolo, omo ita, and oloso* (vegetable seller, hooligan and wizard). The meanings of these words are changed to mean prostitute. The reason for this is because it is not particularly fancy to be referred to, identified with or described as a prostitute being social taboo. Also, the expressing the meaning of the word impregnate, (*fun loyun*), the undergraduates extends the meaning of the word *enter (wole)* to accommodate this meaning as well. The undergraduate therefore employ the use other euphemistic approach to referring to prostitutes without string up the undesirable reaction of saying the word prostitute or impregnate by subjecting other words to semantic change.

Meanings were also changed underlined by the principle of metaphorization. Here the physical and social characteristics of a word are used in changing its meaning. For instance, words like *alata* and *onimoto* (pepper seller, transporter) are used in the sense of the behavioural characteristics and the social class attached to such trade who usually are the illiterate, uncultured members of the lower class who exhibits habits of lousiness and toggery. This forms the motivating force hence anyone who exhibits such mannerism if male is referred to as *onimoto*, and if female, *alata*.

The expression *gboju* (look away) and *jasi* (fall in) are examples of words whose meanings were changed based on the principle metonymization. Meaning is extended here based on the relatedness of the old meanings to the new meaning it is made to accommodate (ignore, sociable).

Conclusion

This study has revealed that semantic change is common phenomenon amongst Yoruba-English bilingual undergraduates and enjoys wide

acceptance. Borne more out of a communicative necessity than aesthetic reasons, it helps in broadening of the vocabulary by giving new meanings to old words. The new meaning however could expand deteriorate, ameliorate or restrict the old meanings.

The findings also reinforce Blank's principles of contiguity, similarity and contrast as a major determining factor which underline semantic change of the words. Semantic change is also found to be motivated by linguistic, psychological, sociocultural and encyclopedic forces.

Also, semantic change is influenced more by extralinguistic causes like education, sociocultural background, economic and social factors rather than the linguistic factors. However, the new meaning eventually takes its place in the linguistic use of other members of the society.

It is safe to infer therefore that semantic change is motivated by speaker's sociocultural background, linguistic needs, and crave for more expressivity and efficiency, underlined by the principles of contiguity, similarity and contrast leading to a linguistic innovation.

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Exploring Parents and Teachers Perceptions on Causes and Effects of Drug Abuse on Academic Pursuit of Students in Selected Secondary Schools in Nasarawa State

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Abstract

The researchers conducted a research work on causes and effects of Drug abuse on Academic pursuit of Students in selected Secondary Schools in Nasarawa state. The study had six objectives, and as a guide six null hypotheses were raised. Descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The study targeted 3879 parents and teachers that attended Parents, Teachers Association (PTA) meetings in selected five secondary schools in the state. The sample size was 776, comprising 622 parents and 154 teachers. Data were generated through four rating structured questionnaire. SPSS was used to analyze data collected using regression analysis to test null hypotheses one, two and three, while t-test was used to test

null hypotheses four, five and six. All the null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance. The study revealed, among others, that 88% of the variance in academic pursuit of students is attributed to drug abuse. Among the recommendations provided to address the situation is that parents should monitor the activities of their children and guide the type of friends they move with. This will help to protect them from undue influence of friends on their attitude towards the use of unauthorized drugs.

Introduction

The misuse and abuse of drugs by adolescent school children is a global issue, and Nigeria is not exempted. The rapid increase in the prevalence of this behaviour among school age children has remained prominent concern in the country. Most of school age children first try drugs out of curiosity, to have a good time or ease another problem, such as stress, anxiety, or depression. This was affirmed by Nevadomsky (1985) who reported that students take stimulants to remain alert while studying and reduce tension during examinations. The implication of this is that, many of them use drugs without knowing consequences on their school attendance, academic performance and other suspicious behaviours.

In Nigeria, doctors and scholars have recognized that drug and alcohol abuse have effect on schooling and educational achievement of students. Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013) reported that most of inappropriate classroom behavior, such as aggression and impulsivity; academic failure are attributed to drug abuse. This is also in line with Mayo (2013) who argued that drug abuse leads to low self-esteem or poor social coping skills and academic failure among the youths. As a result of this ugly incidence, the federal and state agencies have responded to problems of substance abuse by introducing health tips and guidance services in the curriculum of secondary schools. It therefore follows that schools have become the major focus of drug and alcohol abuse education and prevention activities of youths in Nigeria.

Despite the interference of drug abuse on students' ability to think clearly, exercise good judgment, and academic pursuit, misuse of drugs has become a common thing among students. In Nigeria, drug abuse among students is at increasing rate, shifts in the pattern and types of drugs

abuse among school age children have been reported and increasing female involvement and multiple drug use pattern have also been noticed (Ifabumuyi 2007). As a result, the researchers investigated the causes and effects of drug abuse on academic pursuit of students. Based on this the researchers aimed at determining the:- (i) influence of peer groups on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state; (ii) influence of parental behaviour on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state; (iii) Effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state; (iv) difference between male and female parents on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state; and (v) difference between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state; and (vi) difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state.

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were raised and tested

- HO₁** Peer groups have no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state
- HO₂** Parental behaviour has no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state
- HO₃** Drug abuse has no significant influence on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state
- HO₄** There is no significant difference between male and female parents on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state
- HO₅** There is no significant difference between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

HO₆ There is no significant difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

Literature Review

The study was based on two theories. The theories are Classic Theory of Festinger, (1954) and Social psychology of Bruce, Aria, Denise and Keith (1999). The Classic theory argued that peer groups conspire to move individuals to perceive their world as the group does, to adopt peer group attitudes. Such factors include friendship affiliation needs and social comparison processes, pressures toward peer group conformity (Asch, 1951), and the formation and acquisition of reference group norms (Newcomb, 1943; Newcomb & Wilson, 1966; Sherif, 1936, 1972). Social psychologist viewed that problem behaviors are contagious. Youth culture of academic negativism and misconduct can thwart learning and disrupt the school routine. The theory posits that most school age children conceived drug abuse as the means of easing the transition and improve their social and academic life in schools. This belief led to increase in prevalence certain traits among both males and females in all socioeconomic groups as opined by (Dryfoos, 1990; Johnston *et al.*, 1994). This therefore means that students who drink or use drugs are much more likely to encourage more problems in their schools than those who do not use substances. Supporting this theory, East (2006) maintained that there is association between drug use deviant behaviour among adolescent students. Based on this philosophy, it then follows that if drug abuse causes misbehavior among students, then policies designed to reduce it may succeed to promote the interest and academic pursuit of school age children. In Nigeria, this theory was supported by Atoyebi and Atoyebi (2013) who opined that the use of drug among students will lead to hampered memory and learning, distorted perception, trouble with thinking and problem solving and loss of motor coordination.

Study titled "Drug abuse in Nigerian Schools" was conducted by Ekpenyong in 2012. Selected secondary institutions in Bayelsa state, Nigeria were used for the study. The sample of this study was drawn

from four public secondary schools: Southern Ijaw Secondary School (Oporoma), Community Secondary School (Eniwari), Government Secondary School (Amassoma), and Community Secondary School (Angiama), all in southern Ijaw Local Government Area of Bayelsa State, Nigeria. The survey research design was used in this study. Data was collected through a student questionnaire and an interview schedule for teacher counselors in the selected schools. The data collected was organized, tabulated and analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Frequencies and percentages were used and the presentation of data was done through summary graphs. Gender differences on perceptions of drug abuse were analyzed with the t-test at the 0.05 level of significance. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16 for Windows assisted in the data analysis. The data from the interview schedule for teacher counselors was also analysed using descriptive statistics. The study established, among others that student respondents had a positive perception of drug abuse. It was recommended, among others, that behaviour modification techniques should be employed to rehabilitate students.

Moses and Oriahi (2012) conducted a study on Causes and Effects of Drug Abuse among Secondary School Adolescents in Esan West Local Government Area of Edo State, Nigeria. Cross-sectional descriptive survey design among senior secondary school adolescents in public schools was employed for the study. The population of this study comprised of 2500 students, sample size was achieved using the simple random sampling technique from 5 public secondary schools of 30 students each, having a sample size of 150. Responses were elicited using a structured self-administered questionnaire on knowledge, causes and effects of drug abuse. Data collected were analyzed using the chi-square(X^2) method ($p < 0.05$). One of the outcomes of the study was that adolescent students were influenced by peer group (51.3%) on the use of drugs and (48.6%) were influenced by parents. The researchers recommended that, since majority of drug abuse among youths start in schools, the school population is the best place for early detection and prevention.

James and Omoaregba (2013) conducted a research on Nigerian Medical Students' Opinions about Individuals who Use and Abuse Psychoactive Substances. The population of the study was 210 students and 200 of them were used in the study. A structured Likert scale questionnaire was used for data collection. Data collected were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 16 (IBM SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the data and the summaries were presented in tables. The study revealed among others drug abuse among youths was associated with family history and attitude. The researchers recommended among others that the family of an individual should be involved in addressing the situation. This research works focuses on cause and effect of drug abuse on psychological characteristics of student and the academic implications. An area in which research is still limited that the study addressed is on the effect of drug abuse on the academic pursuit of the drug abusers.

3.0 Methodology

To investigate the Teachers and Parental Perceptions on effect of Drug abuse on Academic pursuit of students, descriptive survey research design was used for this study. The population of the study was 3879, comprised of 3112 parents and 767 teachers. 20% of the population was taken out of the population of study. The sample size was 776, comprised of 622 parents and 154 teachers.

Four rating structured questionnaire titled "Effect of Drug Abuse on Students" (EDAS) was used to generate data from the respondents. Validation of the instrument was determined through consultations with professors in Faculty of Education and Faculty of Medicine in Ahmadu Bello University Zaria, Nigeria. A pilot test was carried out with 40 respondents that attended Parents teachers Association (PTA) meeting at Government Girls Secondary School Abaji. The reliability co-efficient of the instrument was 0.73. This shows that the questionnaire verified is adequate and appropriate for this study.

Two groups of respondents were targeted during Parents Teachers Association (PTA) meetings held in selected 5 secondary schools in the

state. A teacher is selected from each of the selected secondary schools that assist the researchers in data administration. 542 copies of questionnaire administered were retrieved and used in the study. Data collected were coded using SPSS and subjected to statistical analysis using Logistic Regression (LR) to test null hypotheses one, two and three, while t-test was used to test null hypotheses four, five and six. All the null hypotheses were tested at the 0.05 level of significance. In the test of the null hypotheses, if the calculated value is less or equal to the critical value, the null hypothesis is retained. On the other hand, if the calculated value is greater than the critical value the null hypothesis is not retained.

4.0 Findings

4.1 Test of null hypotheses

HO₁ *Peer groups have no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state*

Result of analysis regarding null hypothesis two is as presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Influence of Peer groups on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse

Model	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	R-crit	R-cal	R-cal ²	Adjusted R ²
Drug Abuse	3.011	2.232	1.349	.122				
Peer groups	0.029	.014	2.071	.164	0.088	0.91	0.83	0.041

Analysis of data used to determine the influence of peer groups on students' involvement in drug abuse shows the Beta, (constant) value of 3.011. R calculated value was 0.091 > 0.088 R-critical value of 0.088. The R² value is 0.83, indicating that 83% of the variance in the drug abuse was determined by peer groups. The null hypothesis was not retained

HO₂ *Parental behaviour has no significant influence on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state*

Result of analysis regarding null hypothesis two is as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Influence of Parental behaviour on secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

Model	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	R-crit	R-cal	R-cal ²	Adjusted R ²
Drug Abuse	3.011	2.362	1.275	.122				
Parental Behaviour	0.028	.021	1.333	.172	0.088	0.89	0.79	0.032

The summary of regression analysis used to test null hypothesis two showed R calculated value of 0.089 which is greater than the R-critical value of 0.088. The calculated R-value (.089) is significant. The value of Beta, (constant) is 3.011. The R² value is 0.79, indicating that 79% of the variance in the drug abuse is determined by parental behaviour on the students. Hence, the null hypothesis is not retained

HO₃ *Drug abuse has no significant effect on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state*

Result of test of null hypothesis three is as presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Influence of Drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

Model	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	R-crit	R-cal	R-cal ²	Adjusted R ²
Drug Abuse	3.011	2.362	1.275	.122	0.088	0.94	0.88	0.48
Academic Pursuit	0.23	0.16	1.438	.188				

The result in Table 3 revealed that the value of Beta, (constant) of 3.011. The calculated R value is 0.94, which is greater than R critical value of 0.088. The R² value is 0.88 indicating that 88% of the variance in academic pursuit of students is attributed to drug abuse. The calculated R-value (.094) is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is retained

HO⁴ *There is no significant difference between male and female parents on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state*

The result of test of null hypothesis 3 is presented in Table 3

Table 4: Test difference between male and female parents on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

Status	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	p
Male parents	384	2.99	1.01	576	1.77	1.96	0.53
Female parents	194	3.05	1.06				

T-test analysis used to test null hypothesis four in Table 4 shows mean score of 2.99 and 3.05 for male and female parents. Their standard deviation was 1.01 and 1.06 respectively. n score of those in private schools is 3.15, with standard deviation of 0.78. The t-cal is 1.77, less than t-critical value of 1.96. Thus the null hypothesis is retained. Therefore, both male and female parents agreed that drug abuse significantly affects academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state. The null hypothesis is retained.

Test of Null Hypothesis five

HO₅ *There is no significant difference between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state*

Analysis of t-test used to test null hypothesis five is as presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Differences between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

Status	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Male teachers	89	3.08	1.03	141	1.83	1.96	0.04
Female teachers	54	3.03	1.01				

Table 4 presents the analysis of data relating hypothesis four. The result showed a mean score of 3.08 and standard deviation of 1.03 for male

teachers. Female teachers had mean score of 3.03 and standard deviation of 1.01. The t-calculated value was $1.83 < 1.96$ critical value. The hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug is retained.

Test of Null Hypothesis Six

HO₆ *There is no significant difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students in Nasarawa state*

The result of test of difference in null hypothesis six is as presented in Table 6

Table 6: Test of difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state

Status	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-cal	t-crit	P
Parents	578	3.02	1.04	719	1.72	1.96	0.00
Teachers	143	3.06	1.02				

Analysis of respondents' opinion used to test null hypothesis six shows mean score of 3.02 and standard deviation of 1.04 for parents. Teachers had mean score of 3.06 and standard deviation of 1.02. The calculate t was 1.72, less than t-critical value of 1.96. Thus the null hypothesis is retained. Therefore the null hypothesis of no significant difference between parents and teachers perceptions on effect of drug abuse on academic pursuit of secondary school students is retained.

4.2 Discussion of the Findings

The research work revealed among others that peer groups and parental behaviour have significant influence on students' involvement in drug abuse in Nasarawa state. The result is line with that of U.S. Department of Education, (1986) and Towers, (1987) who shows that peer pressure plays the largest role in causing children to begin using drugs acceptance by peers becomes especially important when children leave elementary

schools and begin junior high. In Nigeria, the study of According to the Daily Times Newspaper (2001), genetic and innate factors, as well as learned and acquired habits can be identified as creator of dependence on psychotropic drugs among students. Faupel (1996) opined that most young users were first turned on by close experienced users. Affirming this view, Omokhodion and Pemedede (2005) reported that adolescent often try their first drug at the urging of their friends. Moses and Oriahi (2012) further confirmed that majority of adolescent students were influenced by peer group (51.3%) on the use of drugs and (48.6%) were influenced by parents. Lonnie, Lukoye, David and Paula (2012) further reported that, the strength of the addiction to drugs, the dual role that peers and family play in substance use, and how the social, cultural, and economic context influence or impede cessation

The result further revealed that 88% of the variance in academic pursuit of secondary schools students is attributed to drug abuse. Thus drug abuse has no significant effect on academic pursuit drug abusers. Wagner, (1984) earlier reported drug users skip school or arrive late to class. U.S. Department of Education (1986) reported that drugs abuses distort memory, perceptions, sensation and caused brain damage. The study of Towers (1987) revealed that regular drug users are twice as likely as their classmates to receive low grades. Hawkins, Catalano and Miller (1992) reported that persistent substance abuse among school age children leads to declining grades, absenteeism from school and other activities, increased potential for dropping out, and other school-related problems. Both parents and teachers regardless of their gender had the same opinion that drug abuse has negative effect on academic pursuit of secondary school students.

5.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

Based on the outcome of the study, the following conclusions were made:-

- (i) The type of friend secondary school children associate and relate with could lead them to partake in drug abuse. Hence peer is one of the most influential factors causing drug abuse among the school children.
- (ii) Parent serves as role models to their children. Hence their attitudes, behaviours and actions have significant influence on their children behaviour.
- (iii) Students tend to use drugs to keep them alert while they are studying, however the reaction of such drugs distort memory, perceptions, sensation and causes brain damage of the users.

5.2 Recommendations

To address the situation, the researchers recommended that:-

- i. The stake holders should introduce the use of drugs as a general course in the curriculum of secondary schools in Nigeria.
- ii. Federal and state government should organise public enlightenment programme, this will assist in orientating the general public on the danger of drug abuse in the society.
- iii. Parents should be exemplary to their children by avoiding any behaviours or action that will influence their children attitudes and actions.
- iv. Parents should monitor the activities of their children and guide the type of friends they move with. This will help to protect them from undue influence of friends on their attitude towards the use of unauthorized drugs.

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Post-exercise Cardiovascular Status of Pupils in Ibadan

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Abstract

This paper comparatively examines the cardiovascular status measured in terms of heart rate, systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure of primary school pupils in Ibadan after going through a 12-week progressive resistance exercise training.

A total of one hundred and twenty (120) volunteered pupils were drawn purposively from four (two public and two private) primary schools in Ibadan. The randomized classic experimental research design with one experimental and one control group was employed in the study. Systematic random sampling technique was used to allocate sixty (60) participants to each of the two groups, namely: the progressive resistance exercise (PRE) and the control groups. The PRE trainings adhered strictly to the American College of Sports Medicine guidelines on quality and quantity of exercise trainings. The control group did not partake in any organised training during the period. However, the pupils were not restricted from their normal daily activities. The cardiovascular variables measured were subjected to frequency counts, percentages, normative table scores, mean and standard deviation for analysis and discussions.

Results show that the average age of the pupils was 9 years 8 months, 68 (56.7%) of the participants were male while 52 (43.3%) were female; the post-training mean height of the participants in the PRE group is 1.36 ± 0.09 m while that of weight is 29.52 ± 5.82 kg. It also reveals that post-exercise HR (81.86 bpm within $80-120$ bpm) of the participants were at the normal level and their average post-exercise blood pressure ($98.94/61.87$ mmHg) were normal within $100-120/60-75$ mmHg.

The post-exercise cardiovascular fitness level of the pupils in Ibadan is normal. Hence, they are apparently healthy to be able to cope with the rigour of training using PRE modus operandi

for any professional sports carrier. They should be exposed to vigorously healthy activities that will prepare them to live healthy and physically fit lifestyles in future.

Key words: Blood Pressure, Heart Rate, Progressive resistance exercise, Training, Primary school pupils

Introduction

The American Sports Medicine Institute (2008) declared that cardiovascular fitness represents the efficiency of the heart, lungs and vascular system in delivering oxygen to the working muscles so that prolonged physical work can be maintained. An individual with functional cardiovascular system is expected to have a decreased resting heart rate, lower blood pressure, increased stroke volume, increased cardiac output, and generally, increased heart function with an ability to pump more blood among other factors (Du et al, 2005; Dimkpa, 2009).

Cardiovascular function undergoes considerable change as children grow and age; and there are changes during sub-maximal and maximal exercise. The blood pressure is lower in children than in adults at rest and during sub-maximal exercise, but increases progressively during the late teens. Blood pressure is directly related to body size and larger people generally have higher blood pressure. Also children have a greater blood flow to active muscle than adult due to the fact that they have less peripheral resistance. Mahon, Anderson, Hipp and Hunt (2003) submitted that a child's smaller heart size and total blood volume result in a lower stroke volume both at rest and during exercise than an adult. In an attempt to compensate for this, the child's heart rate response to a given rate of sub-maximal training with absolute oxygen requirement. Cole, Blackstone, Pashkow, Snader, and Lauer (1999) earlier postulated that as the child ages, heart size and blood volume increase along with body size, and consequently stroke volume also increases as the body size increases, for the same amount of training. However the child's higher sub-maximal heart rate cannot completely compensate for the lower stroke volume (Cole, Foody, Blackstone and Lauer, 2000). Because of this the child's cardiac output is also lower than the adults for the same rate of exercise or oxygen consumption.

Ayenigbara (2010) submitted that regular participation in physical activity has been well established as an integral part of a healthy lifestyle in adults. It has been recognized that most diseases affected by exercise (such as coronary heart disease, hypertension, obesity, and osteoporosis) are a result of life-long processes, usually surfacing clinically in the older adult years (Corbin et al., 1998; National Centre for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, 2000). Clinical markers of hypokinetic disease like obesity, high blood pressure, high cholesterol, osteoporosis, osteoarthritis and low back pain, have been observed in pupils (Boreham, Twisk, Savage, Cran and Strain, 1997; National Centre for Chronic Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, 2000). Magarey, Daniels and Boulton (2001) posited that the increased prevalence of overweight and obesity may be attributed to decreasing activity, increasing inactivity and a rising caloric intake of children. Morrow, Tucker, Jackson, Martin, Greenleaf and Petrie (2013) reported that children and adolescents should have a daily physical activity behaviours of 60 minutes or more as guidelines for cardiovascular fitness. They further reiterated that physical activity behaviours should include a minimum of 3 days per week of aerobic, muscle-strengthening and bone-strengthening activities.

Abass and Moses (2013) acknowledged that endurance capacity is an individual's ability to perform exercise at both submaximal and maximal intensities as demonstrated either by the ability to exercise longer at a similar workload or by increasing the workload attained at a given heart rate. Increased endurance capacity has been shown to be one of the indices of cardiovascular fitness (The American Sports Medicine Institute, 2008). Studies have also demonstrated that exercise endurance capacity is linearly related to heart rate reserve (HRR) (Ota, 2002; Singh, Rhodes, Gauvreau, 2008). Similarly, HRR is accelerated in endurance trained athletes (Otsuki, Maeda, Iemitsu, Saito, Tanimura and Sugawara, 2007). Increased cardiac output, increased stroke volume, decrease in resting blood pressure and resting heart rate are all evidences of cardiovascular fitness (The American Sports Medicine Institute, 2008). After aerobic exercise training, it has been reported that stroke volume at rest increases due to increase in end diastolic volume; resting HR decreases due to greater venous return to the heart and increases in autonomic control; cardiac output increases primarily due to increase in stroke volume; blood flow increases through the cardiovascular system and both resting

blood pressure and blood pressure during exercise are reduced (Mahon, Anderson, Hipp and Hunt, 2003).

Progressive resistance exercise (PRE) is a method of increasing the ability of muscles to generate force as compared to the continuous physical activity children naturally familiar with. The principles of PRE for increasing force production in muscles have remained virtually unchanged since they were described by DeLorme and Watkins (1948) almost 60 years ago. The question whether children benefit from progressive resistance exercise training to improve their cardio-respiratory system has been highly controversial, because several early studies indicated that training prepubescent children did not change their VO_2 max values (Oranugo, Igbanugo and Agbedara, 1992; Campos, Luecke and Wendeln, 2002; Dimkpa, 2009). Interestingly even without significant increases in VO_2 max, the running performance of children studied did improve substantially with aerobic exercise. Children naturally participate in aerobic or continuous exercise and though easily fatigue but stay longer. Based on comparison between two training regimes, this study examined cardiovascular status measured in terms of heart rate, systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure in primary public school pupils in Ibadan, Oyo State.

Methodology

Sample and Sampling Techniques

The study was a randomized classic experimental research design with one experimental and one control groups (Isaac and Micheal, 1981). A total of one hundred and twenty (120) volunteered pupils were drawn purposively from four (two public and two private) primary schools in Ibadan. The sample size of the pupils in each the classes proportionately were twenty (20) pupils in primary three, sixty (60) in primary four and forty (40) in primary five. Each of the schools had representation 30 pupils. Systematic random sampling technique was used to allocate sixty (60) participants to each of the two groups, namely: the progressive resistance exercise (PRE) and the control groups. The study was

conducted in the exercise physiology laboratory and sports complex of the University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

Training Modalities

The training was a twelve – week interval trainings in which participants in the experimental group were exposed to repeated periods of work, interspersed with rest periods three times per week (Armstrong and Welsman, 1997). The trainings adhered strictly to the American College of Sports Medicine guidelines (2007) on quality and quantity of exercise trainings. The ACSM (2002) recommended intensity of 70–80%HRmax workloads with increment at scheduled interval were used. The training protocol applied was on incremental number of repetitions (3 sets of 3 to 12 repetitions each) (Faigenbaum and Westcott, 2000). Appropriate overload was implemented, rate of progression was carefully considered, and resistance exercise training effect was monitored periodically to examine the programme. The training session involved ten minutes callisthenic exercise as a form of warm-up. Resistance was increased with each set. Participants were randomly divided into six lines of ten participants each. Seven exercises were given one after the other and lasted for between thirty to sixty minutes progressively under the guide of instructor. The control group did not partake in any organised training during the period. However, the pupils were not restricted from their normal daily activities.

Procedure for data Collection

The cardiovascular variables of heart rate (HR), systolic blood pressure (SBP) and diastolic blood pressure (DBP) of the pupils in this study were measured and recorded after training using Litman's stethoscope made in the United State of America (U.S.A.) and 2009 BOKANG Model of free style standing model sphygmomanometer calibrated from 0-300mmHg made in China by W.B.I.C.Wenzhou (CE0197) immediately after each training sessions. The average scores were subjected to analyses for discussions.

The heart rate of the participants was taken at the mitral area through auscultation in a sitting position. The researcher put on the headpiece

of the stethoscope over the mitral area of the participants without too much pressure exerted and listened to the sound that was heard. The heart sounds of “lub-dub” that was heard was counted for ten (10) seconds. The counted numbers were multiplied by six (6) to make one (1) minute count and recorded. To get the systolic and diastolic blood pressure of the participants, the cuff of the sphygmomanometer was wrapped evenly and snugly around the arm of the participants at 2.5cm above the site of brachial pulsation. The pressure at which the first sound (korotkoff) was heard was recorded as the systolic blood pressure. The researchers continued with the deflating of the cuff noting the point when the last sound was heard which was recorded as diastolic blood pressure both in mmHg. The researcher finally deflated the cuff and removed it from the participants’ arm. The obtained data were subjected to frequency counts, percentages, normative table scores, mean and standard deviation for analysis and discussions.

Results

The results obtained on class distribution of the participants show that 20(16.7%) were in primary 3, 60 (50.0%) were in primary 4 and 40(33.3%) were in primary 5. On the participants’ age, 6 (5.0%) pupils were 7 years, 18 (15.0%) were 8 years, 24 (20.0%) were 9 years, 42 (35.0%) were 10 years, 12 (10.0%) were 11 years while 18 (15.0%) were 12 years with average age of 9 years 8 months. The result on gender indicates that 68 (57.2%) of the participants were male while 52 (42.8%) were female which means that most of the participants used in this study were males. The post-training mean height of the participants in the PRE group is $1.36 \pm 0.09\text{m}$ while that of weight is $29.52 \pm 5.82\text{kg}$. The control group however had post-training mean height of the participants as $1.35 \pm 0.08\text{m}$ and weight as $26.78 \pm 5.29\text{kg}$.

Table 1: Post Exercise Heart Rate level of Primary School Pupils in Ibadan

Variable	Cardiovascular Progressive Resistance Exercise Group			Control Group		
	Pre-test Mean & Std	Post-test Mean & Std	MeanDiff.	Pre- test Mean & Std	Post-test Mean & Std	MeanDiff.
Heart Rate (bpm)	81.07 ± 4.95	81.37 ± 11.87	0.30	79.98 ± 10.39	86.97 ± 12.37	6.99

From table 1, the post-exercise mean of HR of primary school pupils in Ibadan in PRE group was 81.07 ± 4.95 bpm as against 86.97 ± 12.37 bpm for control group.

Table 2: Normative Values of Children Heart Rate with respect to Age

Age	Heart rate (bpm)
>1	110-160
1-2	100-150
2-5	95-140
5-12	80-120
>12	60-100

Jewkes, Luba and McCusker (2005)

Table 2 presents that heart rate of children decreases with age. The normative values are compared with the PRE post-test mean score in table 1 for discussions.

Table 3: Post Exercise Blood pressure level of pupils in Ibadan Cardiovascular Variables

	Progressive Resistance Exercise Group		Control Group		MeanDiff.
	Pre-Test Mean & Std	Post-test Mean & Std	Pre- Test Mean & Std	Post-test Mean & Std	
Systolic Blood Pressure (mmHg)	101.07 ± 12.52	103.17 ± 9.65	107.00 ± 12.12	95.17 ± 14.20	11.83
Diastolic Blood Pressure (mmHg)	65.12 ± 8.79	62.83 ± 5.85	65.33 ± 5.67	60.67 ± 7.78	4.66

Table 3 reveals that PRE group had post-training mean SBP of 95.17 ± 14.20 mmHg as against the control group of 103.17 ± 9.65 mmHg. A score of DBP 65.33 ± 5.67 mmHg was obtained in the PRE group while the control group had 65.12 ± 8.79 mmHg.

Table 4: Normative Values of Children Blood Pressure with respect to Age

Age	Systolic Blood Pressure (mmHg)	Diastolic Blood Pressure (mmHg)
Premature	55-75	35-45
0-3 months	65-85	45-55
3-6 months	70-90	50-65
6-12 months	80-100	55-65
1-3 years	90-105	55-70
3-6 years	95-110	60-75
6-12 years	100-120	60-75
Over age 12	110-135	65-85

Source: Kliegman (2007)

Table 4 reveals the normative status of children blood pressures as they increase with age. These values were compared with the PRE post – training values in table 3 for discussion.

Discussions

The findings from this study reveal that post exercise HR (81.86bpm within 80-120bpm) of the pupils in this study was at the normal level because their age range (7-12 years) was within age 5-12 years showed in table 2 as reported by Jewkes, Lubas and McCusker (2005). The average post-exercise blood pressure (BP) (98.94/61.87mmHg) with average age of 9 years 8 months indicates that the pupils have normal blood pressure within 100-120/60-75mmHg rating of Kliegman (2007) showed in table 4. The heart rate and blood pressure status of the pupils show that they are apparently healthy and have good human functional capacities that comparable to their counterparts in European countries. These findings correlate positively well with the earlier submission of Agrawal (2010) that BP in pupils works in the opposite way as compared to the other physiological parameters in that it tends to increase as pupils age. Dimkpa (2009) reported that BP can be quite low in newborns and remain on the low side until pupils reach toddlerhood.

During developmental stage of children, the rate of energy consumption as a result of muscular contractions associated with physical activities increases leading to a corresponding improvement in cardiovascular

functioning. High aerobic capacity is associated with increase HR in exercise. HR of the PRE group was higher than the control group though both are normal. A number of studies have shown that physically active men or women demonstrated higher levels of HR compared with sedentary controls (Jensen-Urstad, Saltin, Ericson, Storck and Jensen-Urstad, 1997; Davy, DeSouza, Jones and Seals, 1998; Rossy and Thayer, 1998). Physical activity has shown to increase left ventricular mass (Maron, 1986; Levy, Cerqueira, Abrass, Schwartz and Stratton, 1993; Whyte, George, Nevill, Shave, Sharma and McKenna, 2004), which was related to maximal blood pressure during exercise (Michelsen, Knutsen, Stugaard and Otterstad, 1990; Molina, Elosua, Marrugat and Pons, 1999; Kamarck, Eranen, Jennings, Manuck, Everson, Kaplan and Salonen, 2000; Sung et al, 2003). The large increment of blood pressure during the maximum effort running exercise may be necessary for the physically active children to achieve great work capacity of fast treadmill running speed and high treadmill gradient.

Although mean difference of blood pressure after exercise was higher in the PRE group compared to the control group, their percent decrease of blood pressure after exercise was significantly greater than untrained controls'. This also reflects that the physically active individuals have a greater capacity of reflex cardiovascular modulation after exercise than untrained controls (Laukkanen et al., 2004).

Conclusion

Pupils in primary schools in Ibadan have functionally normal heart rate and blood pressure. They are apparently healthy and can cope with the rigour of incremental physical activities. They should be exposed to vigorously healthy activities that will prepare them to live healthy and physically fit lifestyles in future.

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DRESS CODE COMPLIANCE AMONG UNDERGRADUATES IN THE FACULTY OF LAW, OBAFEMI AWOLOWO UNIVER- SITY, ILE IFE

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Abstract

This study is meant to investigate the extent at which the undergraduates in the faculty of Law Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) comply with the university approved dress code. It is meant to investigate the position of the school authority in ensuring that the dress code is adhered unto by the students in the legal training. A total of 200 students that were randomly selected across the class levels in the Faculty of Law, Obafemi Awolowo University constituted the sample for the study. A self designed questionnaire entitled “Law Students and Dress (LSDC)” was used to collect data for the study. The two hypotheses raised and tested using t-test statistics were accepted in their null form. Findings from the study indicated that both the male and female Law undergraduates manifested the same attitude to dress code. Also revealed by the study was that the law students were not different in their compliance levels despite the differences in the class levels. It was finally recommended that the university management, particularly the authorities of the Faculty of Law should emphasise more on the necessity to comply by introducing some “hard to bear consequences”.

Keywords: Law, Faculty, Undergraduates.

Introduction

Faculty of law, like any other Faculty that handles professional disciplines like Medicine and Pharmacy, is specifically known for its specialties in training a particular professional body that constitutes a designated group of subjects referred to as legal students or in most cases “would be lawyers” “Law” is referred to as the totality of **modus operandi by which a particular community is ruled, the blue print of the interpersonal relationship that transpires among the individuals**

that constitute a particular society (Osaigie 2004). Faculty of law is the incubator through which the knowledge of torts, evidence and criminalities are hatched upon the Law subjects. Others like 'equity' and 'trust' that are more often than not regarded to be bones of contention and in most cases the sources of mayhem in the political, economic and religious worlds are incorporated in the study of Law as a profession. All these could only be managed by the Faculty of Law, the only body that is vested with the jurisdiction across the universe.

In an attempt to differentiate between the undergraduates in the various areas of discipline in most of the Nigerian tertiary institutions, the dressing patterns were designed to vary from one Faculty to the other. Boyede (2001) observed that this dress code varies from one university to the other in most of the Faculties across the tertiary institutions in Nigeria except "the Faculty of Law". This implies that the approved dress code of the Law students is across culture irrespective of the higher institution involved. This is unlike the Faculties of Engineering and Social Sciences whereby the students in a particular tertiary institution may be putting on colour green coverall or white garment on a red one and in another school, a red top on a black pair of trousers.

Nigerian male Law students nationwide would either appear in complete black shirt on a black trouser with a black suit on top or in white on the black with a neck tie to match. Lady Law students too must in a like manner comply also by appearing in either black or white top on a black skirt. This indeed is the dress code as approved by the 'Legends' in the Legal profession over a numberless decades ago (Alakija, 1992). The black on black symbolises the non pre-empting attribute of Law as a profession while the white on black and vice versa implies a fair dealing aspect of the profession (Alakija). Oshodi (2006) opined that identifying a Law student among the millions of undergraduates

is a task that is as easy as locating an albino in a market place.

However, even though it is revealed in literature that the unique dress code in the Faculty of Law is as old as Law as a profession itself, not much had been discussed about the attitude of the subjects in the noble profession concerning obedience to the outstanding rules that guide the profession, particularly the dress code (Putodi, 1999).

Based on the above, this study is meant to investigate the following: the extent of the law students' compliance with the dress code (ii) the efforts of the school authority to enforce it as a must (iii) the penalties that are meant for deviants and the effect of such penalties on the learners' academic performances.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to find out the compliance of Nigerian undergraduates in the Faculty of Law, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife, to the dress code of the Faculty as described above.

Researches by Folorunsho and Olaoluwa (2009) revealed that Nigerian undergraduates are becoming unbecoming in their physical appearances nowadays. This may be because of the trends in civilisation or the advancement in the technical know-how that had been brought about by the western education. The African children as a whole appear to be deviating geometrically on daily bases from how they were being described by Ngugi (1962) in the first edition of "Weep Not Child" several decades ago. The African learners that were known for decency in terms of morality are now discovered to have bowed to the ugly culture of chest baring, sagging and mini-skirting. These seriously negate what the African culture used to be in the time past (Bankole 2008).

Nigerian learners, irrespective of educational levels seem not to be exonerated from the anathema of poor dressing and embarrassing physical outlooks that are being brought about by sub-

standard clothing. Investigations by Clifford (2006) revealed that the secondary school learners of both sexes across Nigeria nowadays have little or no regard for the school authority and hence no aorta of obedience. Where obedience is lacking, fear of the authority may be at large and there may not be respect for principles. It may not be surprising therefore that learners may, more often than not, go in their own choice in how they dress, minding not whether it is tenable before the authority or not.

Meanwhile, the researcher observed that more than 70% of research findings within the last two decades consistently lament the fast eroding traditional values in the aspect of moralities among the Nigerian learners and particularly in the areas of their societal membership. Alatika (2006) reported that an average Nigerian is invested with a greater tendency to disrespect culture than his counterparts in Asia if opportune to change an environment. The inevitable change of environment as a learner that had graduated from the secondary school could be the cause of most undergraduates' unhealthy attitude to some important areas of necessity like dressing. Noticeably, most of the Nigerian ladies that were used to flowing gowns abruptly change over to open neck-blouses with boobs that are tightly packed in an undersized brazzers in a way to forcefully show their nipples through the transparent materials. The boys too change from the "cover it all" baggy materials they were identified by to thigh showing jean trousers that expose the shapes of their manhood. Investigations by Jacob (2009) revealed that boys that 'sag' are the same in ratio with their female counterparts. These misdemeanors in terms of what to wear and how to wear it could be why other crimes like rape, sexual torture, sadism and sexual killings are common place all over Nigerian tertiary institutions of today, this is highly dehumanising that one begins to doubt if the culture of the colonial masters had in anyway assisted our original African culture at all. Few of the averagely decent traditional African may become highly disturbed and tends towards being very skeptical about whether it really worth it celebrating the nature of civilization that assisted Africans technologically but speedily relegated the African traditional values through

acculturations.

Indeed, the deviants always know how best to dress. A Law student that is putting on black on white may still deviate in the sowing standards. Law, being a noble profession is assumed to be a profession for a set of the noble ones. It therefore seems very unethical seeing Law students that 'sag' or leaving out the shirt without being toured in the trousers. Yet some lady law students more often than not appear in armless white or black top that exposes their shoulders, chest and ancillaries hence at times make them a prey to sexual harassment. This bad behaviour is in no doubt the concern of most of the authorities in Nigerian higher institutions today. Appearance inevitably shows the manner and many at times how a man dresses determines how he is addressed. These analogies seem not to exempt the Law learners in connection to their compliance to the Faculty stipulated dress code. It is based on this that the researcher wants to investigate the likely influence that the learners' sex and class levels man have on the tendency to comply to the Faculty dress code.

The Problem

It is observed that secondary school students as well as the learners in the Nigerian tertiary institutions are being reported as lagging behind in their areas of responsibilities in terms of compliances to rules and regulations as specified by the school authority (Bolakale, 2006). This seems to be sourced in disobedience among a greater percentage of the Nigerian learners. The disobedience is suspected to be the major reason for the noticeable rate in the skyrocketed rate of unacceptable behaviour among the learners' populace in the recent time. The uniform specifications in the Faculty of Law could be for identification purpose. It could also be symbolic in another form or the other. What matters is that it constitutes a rule, a regulation from the superior. It is more prestigious and orderly that the subjects to which such order is given obey it to the last letter without any reservation. Reports by Ofigba and Tundinu (2009) revealed that more than 70% of those learners do deviate inspite of all efforts

by the management to make a specific dress pattern a priority. A low level of compliance among the learners in Nigerian tertiary institutions in the areas of punctuality in classes, payment of school fees to time and abstinence from unregistered association was reported by Dairo (2004). The stiffneckedness of learners in these important aspects may jeopardize good learning and hence result in poor academic performances. Most learners that are being caught in the act of non-compliance in the Law classes are being sent out of the classes in the lecture hour. This could be why performances in some courses like Jurisprudence, Criminal Law and Law of Evidence are being reported as irritatingly low in most of the Nigerian universities (Olapade, 2005).

Research question

What is the general attitude of Law students to the Faculty dress code in Obafemi Awolowo University?

Research Hypotheses

- (1) Sex will not significantly influence the law learners in their compliance to dress code in the Faculty of Law.**
- (2) Learners' class levels will not significantly influence their compliances to the faculty of Law dress code.**

Methodology

The study is a descriptive research design of the survey type. 200 undergraduates were selected as the sample size for the study using stratified random sampling technique. The instrument used by the researcher was a self designed questionnaire titled 'Law Students and Dress Code (LSDC)'. The instrument is divided into two sections, A and B. Section A, the respondents' biodata while section B, 20 items designed to explore the learners' view concerning the approved white in black, black on black or black suit over white or black top with black skirt or trouser. The instrument was validated by giving it to three Law lecturers in the Faculty of Law, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife. The experts reframed some items that were ambiguous and they unanimously agreed that the instrument was valid enough to be

used for the study. Cronbach Alpha formula was used in testing the reliability of the instrument. Cronbach Alpha correlation at 0.89 was recorded. It was considered to be high enough to establish the reliability of the instrument.

Data collected were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Frequency counts and percentages were used in answering the research question raised 50% and above was considered as high while scores between 1 and 49.9% indicate negative compliance level to dress code. The two null hypotheses formulated were tested using mean and t-test statistics. The mean score of 2.50 and above indicate high level of compliance while the mean score below 2.50 indicated a low compliance.

Results

What is the general attitude of Law students to the Faculty dress code in Obafemi Awolowo University?

Table I

Percentage table showing the level of compliance of the law students to law dressing code.

Level of Compliance	Frequency	Percentage
High (50% & above)	156	78
Low (0-49%)	44	22
Total	100	100

Table I above shows that the law students in Obafemi Awolowo University manifest a high level of compliance to the dressing

code in the faculty.

Hypotheses Testing

H_0 : Sex will not significantly influence the Law learners in their compliance to the dress code in the Faculty.

Table 2

t-test analysis of the mean scores of Law undergraduates' compliance to the Faculty dress code based on Sex.

	Male	Female	
1			It is must to appear in law uniform while on campus
1.54	1.24	0.12	
2			Law uniform is a symbol of identity that must be adored by all Law students
3.27	3.29	0.129	
3.			It is quite normal and in fact a must to put on Law uniform even outside the campus
3.58	3.51	0.153	
4.			I am used to putting on my uniform as a Law student
3.32	3.12	0.317	
5.			I don't seem to have fulfilled all righteousness without my law uniform while on campus
3.28	3.30	0.330	

$P < 0.05$, critical t value = 1.96, NS – significant

Table 2 shows that the Law students were not different in their levels of compliance inspite of sex difference. It is evident in the items above that the undergraduates were of the same positive opinion in favour of the dress code. The calculated t value in all the items is greater than the t critical at 1.96. The hypothesis that says sex will not significantly influence the law learners in

their compliance to the dress code in the law faculty is accepted.
H₀₂: Learners' class levels will not significantly influence their compliances to the faculty of law dress code

Table 3 t-test analysis of undergraduate's compliance based on their class levels.

Variables	N	X	SD	t-cal	t-value
Low class level (100-300)	144	26	15.84	0.47	1.99
High class level (400-500)	56	29	13.48		

P > 0.05

Table 3 above reveals that calculated t-value at 0.47 is lower than the table value at 1.99. This implies that there is no significant difference between the law undergraduates in their level of compliance to the faculty dress code inspite of the learners' class level differences the hypothesis that says learners class levels will not significantly influence their compliances to the faculty of law dress code is accepted.

Discussion

The study revealed that Obafemi Awolowo University undergraduates in the Faculty of Law have a very high level of compliances to the dress code in the faculty. The Law students were not influenced in their compliances inspite of the sex and class levels differences. The high esteem at which both male and female undergraduates in the Faculty of Law of the great Obafemi Awolowo University hold the faculty dress code may not be far from the fact that an oath of allegiance was signed to that effect at the point of matriculation. Defiling this oath as stated in the oath incurs dismissal as a penalty. The fact that class levels make no difference in the students' compliance status may not baffle the researchers. This could be because the fearful oath that seems to guide the decision to be obedient and truthful to such important rule is always signed at the point of entry as a Law student (100 level) the names of those that were being penalized over a disregard for such regulations or the other are written in the Faculty's black book and published in the faculty journal. This would definitely call them to order as no one would

want to lose his/her studentship.

Notwithstanding the high level of compliance recorded in the study, it was yet revealed that about 22% of the learners manifest a low level compliance to the faculty dress code.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Based on the above findings, it is concluded that the undergraduates in the Legal profession had a high level of compliance to dress code rules. It is recommended that undergraduates in other discipline could as well borrow a leaf from their counterparts in the legal profession for the purposes of uniformity and quicker identification. Also, it is recommended that the Faculty bigwigs should leave no stone unturned in dealing ruthlessly with whoever is caught in the act of disregarding this rule. By so doing, maximum percentage of compliance would be ascertained. Periodic and random inspection must be carried out on the Law students particularly in Legal System, Law of Evidence and Law of Contract classes whereby all Law students are expected to

be present. Any liable student must not be left off the hook.

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Climate Risks and Livelihoods Adaptation in the Sub-Africa: A Review

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Abstract

Climate change impacts all human systems including livelihoods of all regions of the world. The livelihoods activities of the sub-Sahara Africa in particular are already affected because of the fact that the region is highly dependent on natural resources, most of which are climate sensitive. This paper reviews attributes of livelihoods impacts of climate risks and provides highlights of adaptation strategies and monitoring tools that are available within the region.

I. Introduction

Global environmental changes including climate change and its impacts on human sustenance have gained wide range researches and methodological foci of analyses at micro and macro levels. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2007), associated risks of global environmental change include all events of climate change and climate variability in our planet with more frequency and magnitude of extreme events. Natural and human systems which are tied to such events are more sensitive to the multiplier effects of the changes (Adeniji, 2008).

Each region of the world is facing its own lots of climate change at different scales. In Africa, there are interplay and interconnectivity between climate-associated risks and other web of risk factors which have the potentials of exaggerating the vulnerability of Africa (Boko et al., 2007). The challenges of climate risks on development and food security are enormous in the continent (Adger, 2006). High levels of vulnerability and low adaptive capacity in Africa have been linked to factors such as

limited adaptive capacity in terms of access to development resources and high poverty rates. For example, sub-Saharan Africa is predicted to be particularly hard hit by effects of climate change because it is already experiencing high temperatures and low (and highly variable) precipitation, the economies are highly dependent on rain fed agriculture with a very low system for adopting modern technology (Ellis, 2000; Kurukulasuriya et al., 2006). Risks also have a spatial dimension with location peculiarity depending on the risk factors (Ellis and Allison, 2005). For instance, coastal communities, urban slums and marginalized rural communities who depend on climate-sensitive resources for livelihoods are likely to share the hottest heat of the risk's flame (Adelekan, 2010; Boko, et al., 2007).

In the sub-Sahara Africa, the fall of rural livelihood provides some opportunities. Off-farm diversification included economic migration for piece jobs or wage labour in cities (Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa, 2004; O'Laughlin, 2002; Agrawal and Perrin, 2008). It is important to identify specific associated risks and livelihoods adaptation opportunities that are evident from the sub-Sahara Africa. This paper pursued this objective through documents review and analysis of backgrounds to livelihoods and adaptation studies, trends of climate risks on livelihoods and adaptation options that are available in the sub region.

2. Backgrounds to livelihood adaptation studies

Multiple definitions and conceptualizations of livelihoods have its root in rural development and agricultural economics (Carney, 1998; Chamber and Conway, 1992). Livelihoods can be thought as ways people live (Chambers, 1995), maintain wellbeing and use tangible assets for consumption (Ellis and Allison, 2005). It is also the combinations of the resources used and the activities undertaken in order to live (Krantz, 2001). From the literature, there were some important contributions of both economists and Marxist scholars, particularly in the fields of agricultural economics and geography, who offered a more nuanced view on livelihood concept. The village studies tradition, dominated by economic geographers such as Norman Long in his studies in Zambia with a focus on the micro-economics of farm production and patterns

of household accumulation combines both economic and geographical thoughts (Lon, 1984; cited in De Haan, 2000). The classic examination of rural change in northern Nigeria by Michael Watts (1983) cited in De Hann, 1998, “Silent Violence”, offered important insights into patterns of livelihoods change in the sub-Saharan Africa.

Livelihoods concept was a strong theme in Chambers’ book, “Rural Development: Putting the Last First” (Chambers, 1987). Also, livelihoods became a focus for a conference organised by the International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) in 1987 through the initiative of Richard Sandbrook, (Conroy and Litvinoff, 1988). Livelihood includes the idea of coping with and recovery from external stresses in order to maintain or enhance existing capabilities and assets (Linderburg, 2002). Livelihood is also central to the definitions of resilience, adaptation, improvement, diversification and transformation (DFID, 1998; Scoones, 1998).

Adger, (2006) and Assan et al., (2009) relate livelihoods to natural resources management and poverty deduction because, natural resources are used as sources of livelihoods and that the pursuit of livelihood activities depends on the available asset at disposal of people (Cooper et al., 2008; Shomorin, 2010). Assets are also considered to be stocks of different types of capital that can be used directly or indirectly to generate livelihoods (Box 1).

Box 1: Sustainable livelihood capitals

Livelihoods research has helped to explain the differences in responses using understandings of endowments, entitlements and capabilities, within organisational hierarchy and power principles or by individuals or

households (Chambers, 1987; Scoones, 1998; Thornton and Herrero, 2009). At the local level, Putnam et al. (1993) assert that social structures provide livelihood stability by binding individuals in a group together (bonding social capital), or by connecting people from social and economic strata (bridging social capital). Belonging to no discipline in particular, livelihoods approaches can allow a bridging of divides, allowing different people to work together – particularly across the natural and social sciences for participatory approaches to inquiry (Tuton, 2000a; Tuton, 2000b).

Livelihoods perspectives have been central to rural development thinking and practice in the past decade. These relate to localities (rural or urban livelihoods), occupations (farming, pastoral or fishing livelihoods), social difference (gendered, age-defined livelihoods), directions (livelihood pathways), dynamic patterns (sustainable or resilient livelihoods) and many more (Adejuwon, 2008; Shomorin, 2010). Livelihood strategies are the range and combination of activities and choices that people make in order to achieve their livelihoods goals (Adger, 2006). Livelihood strategies can be positive, helping households become more resilient and less vulnerable, or negative when they result in the further erosion and decrease of the asset base (Sen, 1999). Livelihood strategies of actors such as individuals, households and other social groups constitute '*genre de vie*' (Claval, 1974), that is, a system of livelihood strategies of a human group in a specific region, emphasizing the interaction between society and the natural environment.

In 1992, Chambers and Conway produced a working paper for the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) in which a definition of sustainable livelihoods emerged, to provide a clue on what is now seen as the starting point of what came to be known later in the 1990s as the 'Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA)'. They stated:

"A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining

the natural resource base” (Chamber and Conway, 1992:15).

A significant number of case studies have been carried out using the methodology of Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) both at household, community, city, region and national levels especially in climate change research for example, Chen and Ravallion, 2004; Eakin, et al., (2007), Erentein et al., (2009); Hahn et al., (2008); Linderberg (2002); Osbahr et al., (2008) and Sherbinin et al., (2008). SLA is a framework which also makes the relationship between the “vulnerability” context and the other elements in the framework clearer and more explicit (Figure 1). If the poor in the sub-Saharan Africa are able to access the livelihood assets they require and are adequately supported by service providers and enabling agencies, and if they are able to make markets, politics, rules and norms work to their advantage, then it should help them to cope with those elements of climate risks.

3. Climate risks and livelihoods in the sub-Sahara Africa

Statistics show that climate variation is getting more and more extreme in Africa sub-Sahara. For instance, an overview of the weather warning for the world water by the Dialogue on Water and Climate (DWC, 2006) showed that African countries are probably worse off because of the reduction or mean variation in precipitation and the significant influence of poverty and other vulnerability stressors (IPCC, 2008; Mehrotra, et al., 2009). Climate risks could also accelerate environmental degradation, poor agricultural performance and significant impacts on the availability of water for domestic consumption and other water-based activities (InterAcademy Council, 2004, Osbahr and Viner, 2006). In East and Central Africa (ECA) region, the combination of declining per capita agricultural capacity and increasing aridity is exacerbating vulnerability and rural poverty. Meaning that as the gap continue to grow between population increase and investment in agriculture, vulnerability and development poverty will become more pronounced (Funk et al., 2008).

African livelihoods are particularly impacted by climate change vulnerability because of wide inequitable land distribution and weak adaptive capacities

in relation to policy institutions, economic and infrastructure development (Tschakert, 2007). African dependence on natural resources for livelihood support is huge. Over two-third of African's 600 million people rely on forest for their livelihoods and food security, with wood as primary source of energy for at least 70% of households in Africa (AfDB, 2004; Shomorin, 2010). In some countries (Burkina Faso, Mali, Ghana, Niger and Senegal), available data shows that these countries have between 60 and 90 percents of their labour in the rural areas with contribution of 16 and 45 percent of the Gross Domestic Product (Rockstrom, 2004).

Interference of climate change on African livelihoods is expected to produce both positive and negative effects on the rural poor with the negative effects being more significant (AfDB, 2004) because impacts of climate change is intricately connected to food security and could further adding stresses to a deteriorating situation (Burret et al., 2001; Adejuwon, 2008). The negative effects are observed as risks such as loss of biodiversity, rapid deterioration in land cover, decrease in available water quality and quantity with impacts on all rural primary productions such as farming, fishing, forestry and pastoral activities in the continent (Prowse, 2008; Ehui and Pender, 2005). For example, projected decrease in rainfall in East and Central Africa could influence some marginal lands to be more productive than they were before (Assan et al., 2009; van de Steeg et al., 2009) while shorter and drier growing season will result into decrease in agriculture and fishing in West Africa in particular (Nyong and Kanaroglou, 2001, Adejuwon, 2012).

Generally, the implications of climate change in the African sub-Sahara include:

Floods: In recent decades humans have become more exposed to flood risk (Adger, 2006). Different pressures have combined to increase population densities in flood prone areas. In particular, informal settlements have occurred in endangered zones around mega cities in the Africa sub-Sahara (ActionAid, 2006; Tall, 2009). The intensity and frequency of flooding in West Africa in the last five years exacerbated the vulnerability of the poor (Adelekan, 2010). Contrary to public perception, the occurrence of a large flood in Ibadan city (Nigeria) in

2011 and 2012 repeatedly does not mean that it will be a long time before a flood of similar size will occur again in the same place, although the impacts could include livelihoods, transportation, health, agricultural produce lost, death and collapse of infrastructure

Droughts: Droughts have both direct and indirect consequences on human livelihoods (UNESCO, 2004). A direct consequence is crop loss, which can cause starvation. Indirectly, water shortage contributes to the spread of disease, because people lack water for basic hygiene (DWC, 2006). Drought can also inhibit regional development, by contributing to a cycle of poverty because it can occur in relation to lack of precipitation per se but in conjunction with other variables. For example, projected decrease in rainfall in East and Central Africa could influence some marginal lands to be more productive than they were before (Assan et al., 2008) while shorter and drier growing season will result into decrease in agriculture and fishing in West Africa; impacted the yield of some cereals crops, milk production from livestock and ultimately the available nutrient for human consumption in East Africa (Adejuwon, 2008; Throrntol et al., 2009).

Other Extreme Climate Phenomenon: There are a number of weather extremes other than floods and droughts. These include; wind storms, hail storms, heat waves, land cover changes and wildfires (Oloukoi, 2012). These extremes occur on a variety of spatial and temporal scales which impacts human insecurity of already distressed population (Olorunfemi and Onwuemele, 2011).

4. Livelihoods adaptation options in the sub-Sahara Africa

Adaptation is the process through which people reduce the adverse effects of climate on health and well-being, and take advantage of the opportunities that their climatic environment provides (Burton, 1996). It includes all adjustments in behaviour or economic structure that reduce the vulnerability of society to changes in the climate system (Smith et al., 1996; cited in Smit et al., 2000). Adaptation strategies are also considered as, coping strategies, resilience development and flexibility (Fussel and Klein, 2006). Coping refers to strategies that have evolved

over time through peoples' long experience in dealing with known and understood natural variation that they expect in seasons combined with their specific responses to the season as it unfolds (Thomkins and Adger, 2004). In contrast, adaptive strategies refers to long-term (beyond a single season) techniques that are needed for people to respond to a new set of evolving conditions (biophysical, social and economic) that they have not previously experienced (Adger, 2006; Bigsen, 1996).

Options for livelihoods adaptation during climate risks are subdivided into: policy instruments, technological and structural measures, risk, sharing and spreading; and change of land use (DWC, 2006). Other livelihoods adaptation strategies are classified into a set of four analytical types: mobility, storage, diversification, and communal pooling (Halstead and O'Shea 1989). In addition, where households and communities have access to markets, market-based exchange can substitute for any of the four classes of adaptation strategies above (Agrawal, 2008). Burton (1996) classifies adaptation strategies to cover financial re-budgeting, behavioural change, on-site operation, market-based, research and education in relation to capacity building. Where successful, these responses either reduce spatial, temporal, asset-related, and/or community-level risks directly, or reduce them by pooling uncorrelated risks associated with flows of livelihoods benefits from different sources. Whenever rural livelihoods fall, diversification is commonly evident in which people move to other adjoining towns and urban areas for support and changing to other economic activities, Off-farm diversification included economic migration for piece jobs or wage labour in cities as evident in the exodus from Chad Basin when Lake Chad was drying up (Crawford, 2008). Also in Mozambique, following severe cyclone-generated floods in February 2000, 700 people were killed in Gaza Province and 500,000 people temporarily relocated to camps (Forum for Food Security in Southern Africa, 2004). Livelihood diversification has always played some part in providing a "pathway" out of poverty for poorer groups of people. Since the mid-1980s, it has become evident that livelihood diversification has increased as a response to economic and social changes.

Diversification within and beyond agriculture is a widely recognised strategy for reducing risk and increasing well-being by spreading risk (O’Laughlin, 2002; Ellis and Allison, 2005). For example, key drivers of diversification in Nwadjahane (Mozambique) were historical processes (both economic and political), contemporary policy changes and climatic disturbances. In arid environment of the sub-Sahara Africa, farmers and pastoralists are now developing adaptation strategies to buffer against the uncertainties induced by season-to-season variation in water supply and the socio-economic drivers which impact on their lives (Crawford, 2008). In the northern Kenya for example, parts of adaptation strategies are, changing of livelihood activities, redistribution of household responsibility and development of new settlements especially in the pastoral communities (Omolo, 2010).

Depending on the dimensions of risks and vulnerability assessment, livelihood adaptation choices available to farming households are categorised into the following:

1. Ex ante risk management options: this include, choice of risk tolerant varieties, investment in water management, diversification of both farming and other associated livelihood, enterprises before the onset of the season.
2. In-season adjustment of crop and resource management options in response to the nature of the rainfall season as it unfolds.
3. Ex-post risk management options that minimize livelihood impacts of adverse climate shocks such as selling of assets, cutting expenditure on non-essential items (Bigsten, 1996; Ertegun, 2002).

In some locations, where there are limited resources, livelihoods diversification is done through temporary changes of activities (Cooper *et al.*, 2008) For instance, in East Africa splitting of animals into district herds and mobility is often used, mixed species herds in response to seasonal variation in pasture productivity and change of livelihood (Omolo, 2010). Other people take refuge in social networks and financial institutions. For example, in West Africa, Kadi *et al.*, (2011) show that farmers in Niger, Mali, and Burkina Faso are already establishing group networks during the wet season to review the climate, water, food

(access, availability, quality and trade), agriculture and health situation of the their countries in preparation climate shocks. Havemann (2011), Kloeppinger-Todd and Sharma (2010) add that climate-induced risks are managed with responsive infrastructure development, insurance and other informal credit facilities for small farm holders.

Other forms of livelihood adaptation options include intensification of eco-systems based activities and migration of rural men and women to seek additional income-generating activities to support the family (Kloeppinger-Todd and Sharma, 2010). Pastoralists in Tanzania, for instance, have adopted crop cultivation to supplement livestock keeping (FAO, 2003). In West Africa, charcoal production is commonly adopted as a trade off for crop farming during climate risks (Oloukoi, 2012; Fasona et al., 2012). In the long run, this may result into loss of human capital for farming activities; with detrimental impacts on environmental resources- indiscriminate felling of forest products has laid watersheds bare, threatening forested lands (Fasona et al., 2012).

Adaptive capacity on the other hand is the sum total of forces, drivers and abilities that determine the extent of coping of a system (person, household, community, region) in times of stress without breakage which is a reflection of broader conditions (Smit and Pilifosova, 2002). Adaptive capacity is location specific and varies from one locality to another, one region to another and even across nations among social groups and over time (Smit and Wandel, 2006). The extents of responses of individual or community to climate-related risks depend on their available adaptive capacities which are directly linked with their access to livelihood capitals (see figure 1). For instance, a study by Adeniji-Oloukoi and Afolabi, (2011) shows that, access to education and climate information, involvement in economic-based activities and membership of a social network indicate strong and significant contribution in building women's adaptive capacity in Nigerian rural communities. The presence of institution (formal and informal) as mechanisms that shape social and individual expectations, plays a role in the ways rural households respond to climate change and informing what livelihoods shifts will be adopted during environmental risks (Agrawal and Perrin, 2008).

A depletion in one livelihood asset or capita which is actually a capacity driver can also affect the equilibrium of a system to cope with the stress (Adger, 2006; Mehrotra et al., 2009). For example, Adeniji and Oloukoi (2011) show that adaptation options are precluded by political and institutional inefficiencies especially at local government level, and resulting resource inequities in marginalised communities in Nigeria. Socio-ecological systems also influence livelihoods adaptation often for responsive rather than planned actions at both cross-level and cross-scale (Agrawal, 2008). Socio-economic characteristics of the population also have influences on livelihood adaptation, especially in the choice of coping options during water variability (Máñez Coasta et al., 2011; Adeniji-Oloukoi et al., 2012). The highlighted influential factors point to the fact that unless the socio-economic poverty and other multi-dimensions of environmental stressors are addressed, building a sustainable livelihood adaptation in Africa sub-Sahara might remain a mirage.

5. Conclusion

Climate risk impacts sub-Sahara African livelihoods because of the problems of pervasive poverty, dependence on rain fed agriculture, weak institutions, increased population growth, depletion of capitals, and the degradation of the natural resource base in turn impinges on the livelihoods of all, but particularly rural, communities. This review shows that there a number of livelihoods adaptation strategies which are already in at various locations and scales in the region; although many of such are not informed by specific researches nor integrated into a policy framework in climate service and adaptation portfolio.

There is a need to develop focused or tailored climate services based on specific request of users in agriculture and food security in particular. Risk maps for food security and rural livelihoods would be useful for early warning, contingency planning and action in the agriculture and food security under climate variability. The climate and research communities are challenged to develop the interdisciplinary databases and undertake research for adaptation to climate variability and change while financial industries rise to respond the challenges. Because livelihood strategies in a globalizing era take place in different locations, research has to be multi local too. This makes high demands on both the organization and techniques of research and on researchers.

In recent times, resources and tools are available for risks analysis for agriculture livelihoods in particular. For example;

- Agricultural Production Systems sIMulator (APSIM) www.apsim.info/apsim/
- CLIMWAT <http://www.fao.org/WAICENT?FAOINFO?AGRICULT?AGLW//cropswat.stm>
- Collaborating on Climate Adaptation (weADAPT) www.weadapt.org/
- CROPWAT <http://www.fao.org/ag/AGL/aglw/cropwat.htm>
- DIVA-GIS www.diva-gis.org/
- Agriculture Catchments Research Unit (ACRU) <http://www.beeh.uno.ac.za/acru>

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