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# A Bibliometrical Analysis of Comparative Studies on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji Characters

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## **Abstracts**

Much resemblance can be easily observed in Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters, which poses problems for learners in one language to learn the other in terms of pronunciation, morphology and semantics. As the learners increase in number and research in scope, it is of great importance to conduct a bibliometrical analysis of previous research with respect to the contrastive studies of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji for the purpose of a more explicit understanding of the two languages. The findings can also facilitate the development and perfection of language learning strategies, textbook design, and assessment in the context of both Chinese and Japanese language teaching and learning.

**Keywords:** bibliometrical, Chinese Hanzi, Japanese Kanji, contrastive studies,

## Introduction

Chinese and Japanese belong to distinct language families while they both adopt Chinese characters in their writing system, Hanzi in Chinese and Kanji in Japanese respectively. In addition, the Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters are closely interrelated back in history. For example Hanyu Shuiping Cihui yu Hanzi Dengji Dagang (*the Outline of the Graded Vocabulary for HSK*) promulgated by the State Language Commission of Chinese Ministry of Education in 1992 and Jōyō Kanji (*the Commonly Used Chinese Characters*) by Japanese Ministry of Education in 2012 share 60% identical or similar characters. Since the Chinese characters were introduced to Japan in ancient times, they have constantly undergone changes and adaptations for practical purposes, finally phonetically transcribed with katakana and hiragana letters, and retaining two types of pronunciation: on'yomi (音読み) and kun'yomi (訓読み). Morphologically, a great number of Japanese Kanji characters were coined on the basis of Chinese Hanzi character structure and strokes. When it comes to meaning, the Chinese characters borrowed into Japanese are assigned a meaning distant from what it originally means in Chinese. On the other hand, Chinese Hanzi characters themselves have gone through tremendous changes and reforms diachronically, especially during the campaigns of pinyin transcription and character simplification initiated in the 1980s by the government of the People's Republic of China, making the contemporary Chinese characters differ from ancient Chinese when they were introduced to Japan. The similarities and differences have remained for long the focus of research attention. In face of the drastically increasing number of worldwide Japanese and Chinese learners over the past several decades, particularly when native Chinese and Japanese speakers learn each other's language, including the writing system and characters, the relevant research on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji has been on the rise accordingly. In addition to the traditional contrastive analyses of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters, Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, learning strategy, computer-assisted teaching, textbook design etc. have also emerged in steadily increasing numbers.

Regardless of a wealth of research which has been conducted in both China and Japan on the similarities and differences of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters over the years, it has been found little attention placed on the similarities and differences between Chinese and Japanese literature. To collect and analyse previous research literature at this point is of great significance to track previous problems and discover research niches, so the present article adopts a bibliometrical methodology to investigate research articles on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters published respectively on the Chinese academic journal website *China National Knowledge Infrastructure* (CNKI) and the *Citation Information by National Institute of Informatics* (CiNii) database in Japan. Statistics of overall distribution are produced by using Microsoft Excel 2010.

## 2 Research in China

The statistics produced from CNKI concerning research articles on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters shed light on the current situation in China. As the largest up-to-date full-text journal database in China, CNKI has in stock some 10.19 million journal articles, which guarantees statistical accuracy and credibility in relation to the research under discussion. The present article collects the search results up to 31st July 2012 by the keywords *Hanzi*, *Japan*, *Japanese* and *Chinese*, yielding a total of 1,013 high-relevance journals. The detailed analyses are as follows.

### 2.1 Disciplinary Distribution

According to the disciplines configured in CNKI, all the research articles distribute among 40 different disciplines, the predominant majority falling in disciplines of Foreign Languages and Chinese Language, 739 and 150 pieces respectively as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1**      **Disciplinary distribution in CNKI**

Category	Articles	Percentage
Foreign Languages	739	72.95%
Chinese Language	150	14.81%
Others	124	12.24%
Total	1,013	

In view of disciplinary distribution, research articles in the category of Foreign Languages accounts for an overwhelming 72.95%. The keywords of searched articles show that over 50% in the category of Foreign Languages are primarily concerned with the Japanese language, among which the majority focuses on the differences of Chinese Hanzi in comparison to Japanese Kanji. The contributors of these articles mainly come from the disciplines such as Japanese Language or Japanese Literature, and the articles are published on academic journals relating to foreign language, literature and culture. In contrast, the 14.81% Chinese Language related articles target Chinese language and characters. Over two-thirds of the searched keywords concern contrastive analyses of Chinese and Japanese character and word meanings in terms of etymology, dissemination, morphology and semantics, among which no more than 125 articles are related to language teaching. Articles frequently cited and highly representative are *Kanji Characters and Words of Chinese Origin in Japanese*, *Chinese-Japanese Polysemies in Japanese Teaching*, *Japanese Kanji with Chinese Origin and its Negative Transfer to Chinese Teaching in Japan*, *Chinese-Japanese Polysemies: Examples from the Class A Vocabulary in the Outline of the Graded Vocabulary for HSK*. However, the first two articles conduct their research from the perspective of the Japanese language studies, and the last two take the standpoint of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language.

In addition, some other journal articles though with a relatively low citation have been found in the domain of Teaching Chinese as a Second Language, such as *Differences between Japanese Kanji and Chinese Hanzi and their Applications in Teaching*, *Contrastive Analyses of Commonly Used Characters in Chinese and Japanese and its Relations with Teaching Chinese Hanzi to native Japanese Speakers*, *Chinese-Japanese Cultural and Language Distinctions in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language*, *Studies on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji: Relations with Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language*, *Analyses and Thoughts on Patterns of Chinese Character Misspellings in the Writing of Native Japanese Speakers*, *Analyses and Teaching Implications of Chinese-Japanese Polysemous Character Misuses*, *Surveys and Pedagogical Suggestions of Native Japanese Speakers' Learning Chinese-Japanese Polysemous Characters*, *Contrastive Studies of Japanese and Korean High School Learners of Chinese Pronunciation*, *Investigation of Pinyin Misspellings of Native Japanese Speakers*, etc. The searched articles cover a relatively wide range of topics, including Chinese morphology and pronunciation, in addition to other social and cultural studies, and language usage, all of which are worthwhile to put into teaching practice. However, none of the Chinese language related articles has addressed the issue of Chinese character testing, with the only exception of *Comparison of Character Teaching in Chinese-Japanese Primary School Textbooks* which partially relates to the issue of categorisation of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji but fails to investigate how to evaluate and test the learner ability of using Chinese characters. From the perspective of disciplinary distribution, the focal centre of research still lies in Chinese characters, severely short of research on Chinese character teaching, or recommended textbooks and tests. It is also of note that no more than 22 articles (2.17%) are concerned with computer application and information processing, indicating a scarcity of interdisciplinary research on Chinese character contrast and comparison, even less in the domain of computer and information technology.

## 2.2 Diachronic Distribution

With regard to contrastive studies of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters early literature is rather sporadic, even no related articles produced in certain years. The first related article *A Brief Introduction to the Japanese Language Development* of summary nature was published on the journal *Modern Foreign Languages* back in 1978. Published on *Journal of Northwest University*

in 1980, *Correspondence between Modern Chinese Consonants and Japanese Onyomi (Wu and Han dialect)* is the first academic article on Chinese-Japanese character pronunciations, largely focusing its studies on corresponding relations between part of Japanese on'yomi pronunciation and Chinese consonants by adopting the methodology of partial sampling.

As shown in Figure 1 of diachronic distribution, Chinese character related articles, generally speaking, are on the steady increase annually. Less than ten articles were published every year before 1992, and no more than 40 up to 2002. The number has remained a rapid and constant rise ever since, especially in 2010 and 2011 when the number was closing to 100 per year. It is mainly attributed to the fact that the State Language Commission has sped up promotion of Chinese language teaching since 2010, and also in part because an increasing number of higher education institutions set up Japanese subjects after the rampant Chinese university mergers around 2002, eventually resulting in over 400 universities offering Japanese subjects as compared to the original 100. Subsequently a tremendous number of Japanese language professionals have taken up teaching positions and directed attention to the teaching-related issues such as contrastive analyses of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji, vastly differing from the previous situation where only Chinese language scholars conduct research on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji without participation on the part of Japan. The current research improves Chinese character studies in terms of both article quantity and research content.

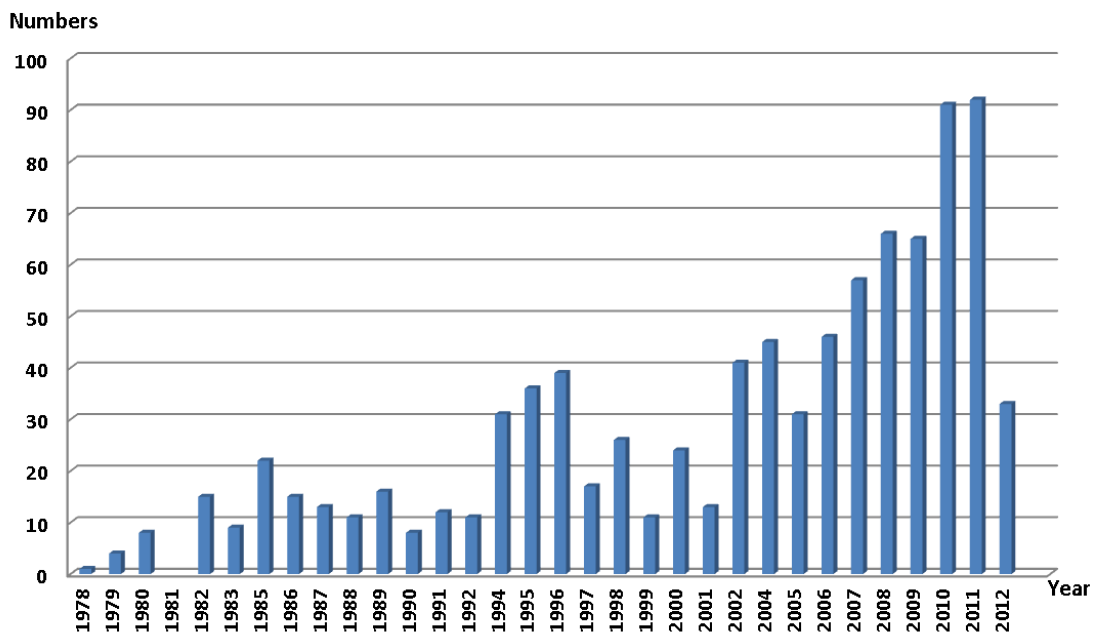


Figure 1 Diachronic distribution (in China)

### 3 Research in Japan

Data are likewise collected from the Japanese academic information database *Citation Information by National Institute of Informatics (CiNii)*, which is by far the largest Japanese academic journal database, consisting of some 15 million articles contributed widely by National Institute of Informatics, higher education institutions, and National Congress Library, research institutes, and other science and technology organisations. Statistics obtained from this database are reasonably believed to have high accuracy and credibility. A total of 275 highly relevant journal articles are collected till 31st July 2013 by searching keywords such as *Japanese Kanji* and *Chinese Hanzi* in titles, keywords and abstracts.

#### 3.1 Disciplinary distribution

In contrast to the Chinese disciplinary categorisation, the present article classifies literature in Japan into three types: 1) a total of 83 articles on teaching Japanese as national language and

Japanese-related linguistic studies; 2) 144 articles on analysing Chinese language from the perspective of Chinese, including those on traditional Chinese in Taiwan; and 3) those otherwise totalling 48, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Disciplinary distribution (in Japan)

Category	Articles	Percentage
Japanese Language	83	30.18%
Chinese Language	144	52.36%
Others	48	17.45%
Total	275	100%

There has been observed a wide coverage of Chinese language studies, involving phonetic transcription, dialectal studies, learning strategies, error analysis, Chinese usage in lexicography and literature, translation, textbook analysis etc. In terms of pronunciation transcription, the relatively up-to-date articles include *Phonetic Transcription of Chinese Place Names in Social Science Atlas on the Basis of Japanese Katakana Phonetic Transcription of Modern Chinese*, discussing the phonetic transcription of Chinese place names. Another one published in 2010 which analyses Chinese Hanzi based on the latest materials is *Japanese Loanwords in Modern Chinese in Science Daily of the Qing Dynasty*, investigates the Japanese loanwords which appear in the late Qing dynasty newspaper *Science Daily*, adopting an empirical methodology to determine the sources of Chinese characters. Published on *Journal of the Institute for Asian Studies* in 2011, the article titled *Studies on the Verb-Measure Words in the Outline of Chinese Vocabulary and Hanzi in HSK* makes a comparative analysis of verb-measure words in HSK, which is the most current article related to Chinese language testing. However, due to the excessive Chinese vocabulary, the article narrows its study on verb-measure words.

On the other hand, half of the articles categorised in Japanese Language analyse the process of native Chinese speakers learning Japanese Kanji, such as *Japanese Kanji Learning of Native-Chinese Japanese Learners: Similarities, Types, Vocabulary Levels and Effects* published in 2011, which conducts its analyses on the language transfer caused by the native Chinese language when they learn Japanese. The second largest number of articles focuses on contrastive studies of Chinese and Japanese pronunciation, morphology and meaning such as synonymies and polysemies. For lack of phonemes, Japanese borrows a huge number of Chinese Hanzi but assigns them assimilated pronunciations, which causes a great quantity of homophones. It is equally noteworthy that Japanese and Chinese share a considerable number of characters and words with identical morphology but distinct meanings, such as *A Survey of Phonological Similarity between Japanese Kanji-Words and Chinese Hanzi: Cognates, Homographs, and Non-Cognates*, which analyses the phonetic similarities of Chinese words in Japanese vocabulary and adopts data sampling for contrastive studies.

It is worth noting that the studies on Chinese Hanzi in Japan widely adopt digitalised analytical methods, such as corpora, search engine, machine translation, CAI practice, CALL and ICT instructional facilities. Most of the articles are published on academic journals related to educational technology and informatics such as *Japan Association for East Asian Text Processing*, *Japan Association for East Asian Text Processing*, *Japan Audio-Visual Education*, *the Institute of Electronics, Information and Communication Engineers*. They concentrate on the digitalisation of Chinese character analysis, and information extracted, thereby teaching pedagogy synthesized for textbook research and teaching materials.

### 3.2 Diachronic Distribution

As shown in Figure 2, the early Japanese Kanji studies in Japan were also sporadic, but preceded their Chinese counterparts. Published as early as 1951, the thesis collection *Some Characteristic Features of the Chinese Vocabulary* by Tokyo University of Foreign Studies was a monograph of summary nature, which focuses on the Chinese characters and analyses the characteristics of Chinese vocabulary. Later in 1958, it published a series of articles on Chinese character simplification and Romanisation. It is Japan started to pay attention to the transcription of

Chinese characters as early as the 1950s, and broadly focused its analysis and research on Chinese character simplification and Romanisation. In the early 1990s, only half a dozen articles were published on Chinese phonetics, morphology and semantics, giving total ignorance to Chinese teaching, due to the fact that politics intervened and no Chinese teaching was nearly prohibited in Japan and no subjects were offered at colleges. It was not until the mid-1990s that the number of articles was on a steady rise, and since 2000 the annual amount of articles has maintained some fifteen pieces, and the Chinese character research has entered its maturity. In addition to studies on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji, a wide range of cross-disciplinary research also emerge, including computer information processing, machine translation, culture exchanges and textbook design, among other things, which broaden the extents of Chinese character research.

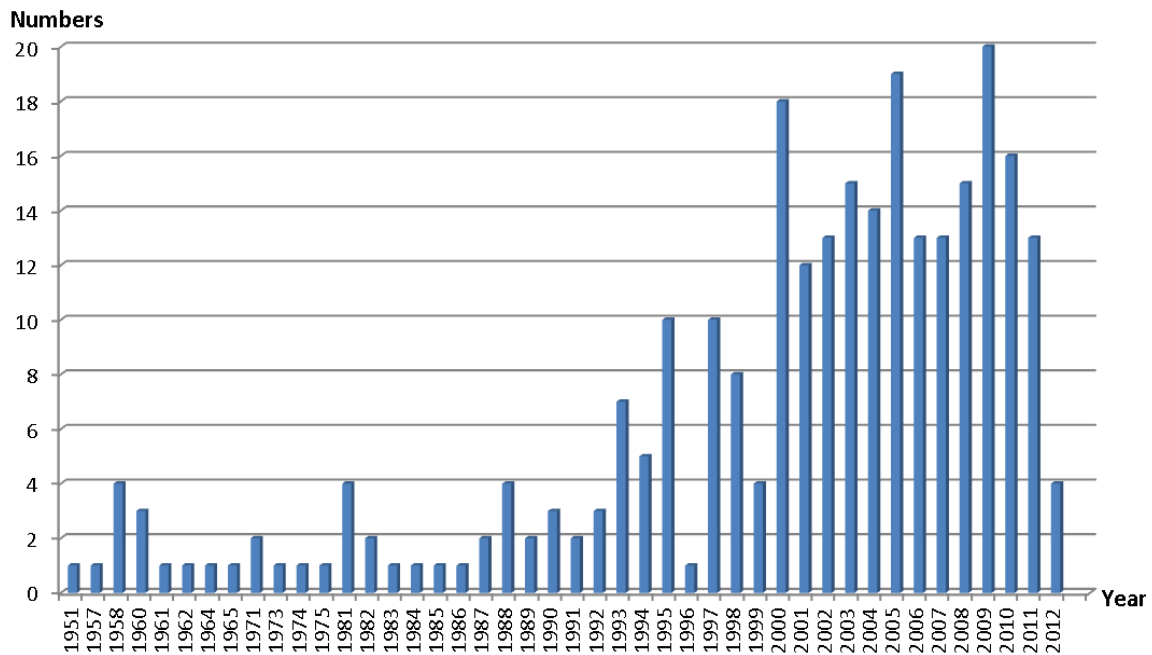


Figure 2 Diachronic Distributions (Japan)

#### 4 Limitations and implications

On the basis of the analyses on CHKI and CiNii, several features manifest:

1. Asymmetry of research direction. In China the number of articles on the Japanese language is four times that on Chinese. The diachronic analysis shows that early studies of the two countries used to focus on Chinese characters in their own languages respectively, but later both redirected attention to Chinese characters in the Japanese language, largely because the number of Japanese learners has greatly increased, and the learning demand for Japanese exceeds Chinese. Nevertheless, now the Chinese learners in Japan have been on the increase exponentially. As a result, in keeping with the current and demand of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, it is necessary to cater for the increasing demands of Chinese learners in Japan, and to enhance the positive transfer on Chinese character learning and understanding.

2. Monotony and redundancy. The articles concerned with character pronunciation far outnumber otherwise, to be followed by those on morphology and semantics. The imbalance is more conspicuous on the side of China because the similarity of Chinese characters has confined research in a limited scope and with a fixed and excessively repeated pattern. As a matter of fact, the contrastive studies of Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji must not be confined in the phonetic, morphological and semantic perspective, especially given the history that a number of Chinese Hanzi were imported reversely from the Japanese language, so Chinese characters should be approached from multiple perspectives. Under the current circumstances that Chinese learners have increased rapidly, a more urgent demand is noticed in terms of empirical analyses on Chinese character



learning and teaching, and the research and development of learning strategies and teaching pedagogies, and how previous research findings can be applied in teaching practice such as textbook design and software development etc.

3. High article number and few empirical contents in comparison to Japan. According to the search results of CiNii, the other 18% are mostly related to language practice and empirical studies, such as developing and evaluating textbooks and teaching instruments. In the other two sections, quite a few are related to empirical studies, such as contrastive studies of teaching, learning patterns and learner psychology, learning strategies. On the other hand, some half of foreign language studies in China are pertinent to theoretical and data analyses, with no more than two articles practice-related. So over 20% articles published in Japan are concerned with practice and experiments, while only 10% in China, which shows that the Chinese character scholars in China should strengthen their research in practice and experiments, turning research findings into practice while broadening academic horizons of Chinese character research.

4. Scarcity of interdisciplinary research. The predominant majority of China's research journals are contributed by language related scholars, but those of digital audio processing, statistics, pedagogy, learning strategy, computer-assisted teaching are few and far between. Against the current rapidly digitalised backdrop, it is necessary that Chinese character contrastive studies be conducted from more varied perspectives, to encourage the integration of traditional language research and other related disciplines. Due to its overemphasis on theory and lack of practice, a great many weaknesses have been observed among the research on Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji characters, and the research findings are difficult to be immediately put into practice or create a direct impact on the enterprise of Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language.

The lack of in-depth Chinese character research also brings about the indeterminacy of relevant textbooks and pedagogies. In face of the learners in Japan who are similar with or have much more exposure to the Chinese characters, the present pedagogy does not have effective teaching methodologies and learning strategies, differing from those applied in teaching Chinese to other language speakers whose native language have more generic discrepancies in comparison to Chinese than Japanese.

Statistics show that only one article is concerned with HSK, and more articles are expected to be examination-oriented. Learners need standardised examinations to test their language proficiency, and examinations are also useful to check their weaknesses and mistakes, making the whole learning process necessary to calibrate and improve learning strategies. However, the textbooks available on the market cannot meet the learners' demand, providing no research materials for consultancy, and making learners incapable of regularly testing and checking personal language proficiency and progress. It is urgent to make contrastive analyses of various examinations in Japan regarding Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji, from the perspective of language learners. In addition, the examination will also need to increase its objectivity and authenticity by constantly improving its testing methods, while enhancing learning outcomes of learners. In this sense, the present article has incorporated previous research findings in view of learning and testing requirements of learners in Japan, analysing the characteristics of various Chinese examinations in Japan, summarising effective teaching and learning strategies, and providing references for future standardised language examinations.

To conclude, this article has proposed effective teaching strategies for Chinese Hanzi and Japanese Kanji by collecting existent research findings and exploring the characteristics of the present Chinese language tests in Japan. The findings can provide further theoretical foundations for visualised Chinese Hanzi teaching system and empirical data for standardised tests.

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# Evaluation of public investment programs In the district of Batna, Algeria

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## **Abstract**

Due to the latest developments in global economic and market globalization and its negative effects on the various economies of the world in general and Algeria in particular, this led the country to reconsider its policy based on public investments, which represent an important factor on the national policy of the country and its success to promote local development, drawing a government policy to provide suitable conditions for the University performance of public investment program and its role in the economic activity of the various sectors. The execution of such program on the ground through establishing many public investments in the five-year investment plan. Through our paper we try to diagnose the reality of public investments within the five-year plan for development at the level of the district of Batna for each of the following sectors: agriculture, industry and service sector.

**Key words:** national policy , economic reforms , public investments , five-year plan, local development.

## 1. The development of the agricultural sector

The study of the agricultural sector in the district of Batna is oriented by two key points.(Order,2001)

-The first, is based on studying the territory of Agriculture on the basis of three (03) consistent areas which are detailed in the nature chapter considering the capacities and capabilities provided by each area, as well the sub-areas as they accumulate a variety of spaces.

-The second, is about studying some of the economic aspects of agriculture (production, consumption, cost-effectiveness). This study will enable us to show the suitable and the non suitable factors for agricultural development.

### Area distribution of the consistent sectors

#### \*Area "A" high northern plains

The high northern plains of the district of Batna are small basins organized in a row, bounded southern by Aures Heights, Balzma Mountains from the west, and eastern by mountains Buarev which reaches a height of between 1744 m and 1785 m.

This region named high plains and their heights are ranging between 800 and 950 m, while their slopes are not of importance with regard to their geographical location, They are sited northern in a good position making them more appropriate compared to other auresian slopes that do not exceed 3%, they are also protected by mountain heights that prevent desert effects penetration, that is why they have half dry, cool climate with rainfall ranging between 300 and 400 mm per year. These irregular quantities become in some cases not useful, especially after a long dry period. The openness of this area helps to leak destructive wind, especially in the period when the plants flourish leaving considerable losses. In addition, the frost is a serious problem.( Directorate,A.2010)

#### \*Area "B" mountains and valleys

This area is divided into two sub-areas as follows :

Area "B 1" represents the mountains and slopes characterized by important heights ranged between 750 and 2926m.

Area "B 2" include valleys and plains. This region represents a good soil for accumulated agriculture during the rainfall period because of its forest nature and morphological composition, however they contain serialisezd spaces for some crops.

#### \*Area "C" high plain steppes, this area is divided into three sub-areas as follows :

-Hadhna Mountains, they are mainly forest mountains , agriculture is dominated by livestock, industrial agriculture does not exist because of the slopes that exceed 15%, which makes irrigation impossible.

-Hadhna Plains, mainly dedicated to agriculture as they contain large areas with rotation to livestock, they represent an important economic activity for the inhabitants of the region, rainfall is weak and not to exceed 250 mm a year, making the area suffers from drought

-Hadhna lake, is characterized by climatic desert where there is no pasroral or agricultural activity due to the rise of salts on the entire perimeter of Shatt.

The climate difficulty, sometimes, makes the introduction of some agricultural varieties impossible, and at the same time demonstrate the control of agriculture expansion, in conjunction with the livestock in the three sub-areas, while the rotation method accounts for a large part of the arable areas.

The general distribution of land shows the position occupied by arable land along the district with 422 677 hectares or 35.11% of the total estimated area: 1,203,876 hectares. This percentage change dramatically in different areas already mentioned, they are distributed as follows. The cultivable area for area "A" is estimated at: 152 702 hectares, 36.12 % of the total acultivable area while forest area represent 24.09 % of the total area of the district. For the area "B". The cultivable

area is slightly higher compared to the other two regions and by 37.06 % of the total cultivable area, 156 677 hectares.

The importance of the cultivable area in this region is not due to its potential agricultural or the fertility of its soil as the area is very rugged, but to its size, we also note that the used cultivable area vary strongly from one municipality to the other because of physical position of each one of them (the mountain valleys and clay plains).

Forest area occupies a significant position, representing 73.58 % of the total area of forests in the wilaya, and this area is of purely forested.

As for the area "C". It occupies only 26.80 % of the total cultivable area with 113.298 hectares, it should be noted that farmland in this area are equal across municipalities. Forest occupies a small place compared to other areas and represents 13,400 hectares 4.62 % of the total forest area of the district.

From the above discussion we can give two main conclusion

-The first is the lack of balance that appears in the current distribution of the cultivable area across the three areas.

- The second shows the pressure on the structure of the mountaineous areas, i.e. area"B" whether on forest or on farmland, which is located generally on variable regression fragile areas and exposed to water and wind erosion.

It is clear that grain cultivation is the main activity at the district level with an area of 115997 hectares, equivalent to 27.44 % of used agricultural area, estimated at: 422 677 hectares. With reference to the processes of preparing the soil for planting grain, this remain subject to the level of rainfall, which fluctuate from year to year. Distribution of grain areas in the three regions, shows the importance of the using this type of agriculture, especially in the high plains area, which occupies 78240 hectares or 18.51% of the total cultivable area. In plains steppes area, grain represents an area of 21680 hectares i.e.5.12% of the total cultivable area, where the mountaineous areas represent only 16077 hectares or 3.81% of the total used agricultural area. Idle land occupies considerable place in the total used agricultural area where they represent 60% of the latter or approximately 253 597 hectares, the application of an idle land technic has become necessary in areas A and B which have significant qualifications in grain cultivation.

In area "C" the application of idle land technic is not feasible because of the environmental nature of pastoral areas, however, because of successive droughts that have known in recent years, resorting to such technic become very common within some farmers. The space allocated for the cultivation of fodder is very limited, and represent only 7.47% of the total used agricultural area or 31573 hectares.

Cultivation of vegetables occupies very weak area, accounting only for 1.49% of the total used agricultural area with 6289 hectares Where the cultivation of potatoes, tomatoes, garlic, onion are dominant. The total cultivated area estimated at 3374 hectares distributed as follows: Potatoes 1457 hectares, Tomatoes 722 hectares, Onion 730 hectares and Garlic 465 hectares. For the cultivation of fruit trees, the total area reached 14540 hectares of which 8624 hectares productive i.e. 3.44% of the total used agricultural area, the dominant products in this activity are : Apricots, Olives, Apples. In terms of planted area it is estimated at 12372 hectares, and is distributed as follows: Olive 4888 hectares, Apricots 4231, Apples 3253 hectares.

The distribution of used agricultural area is dominated by the private sector with 98.64% compared to only 1.36% of the public sector. This situation is normal because the majority of the state's farmland is in the hands of the private sector which makes it dominated on all agricultural activities, whether vegetarian or animal.

## **1.2. Production and cost-effective average for all crops**

The average grain yield is determined by dividing the product obtained on the harvested areas. Grain production shows a considerable decline estimated at 599 522 quintals or 26% for last year and this is due mainly to the drought that has touched the majority of the grain-growing areas. For the cultivation of fruits it recorded considerable Average production for 2006-2007.

Production of animal feed and vegetable registered slight growth compared with 2006-2007.

### **\* Animal husbandary**

-Cows, The ownership of cows herd for the private sector is approximately 99.73% and only 0.27%, for public sector.

-Sheep, the overwhelming majority of the sheep flocks are privately owned with 99.28% and the remaining 0.72% belongs to the public sector.

it should be noted that the number of sheeps has decreased from 448 416 head in 1999 to 376 602 head in 2008, and this is due to lack of feed because of the deterioration of pasture vegetation and the chronic effects of the drought that hit the state in recent years.

### **\* Production of red meat**

Production of red meat from sheep and cattle reached 4033 tons in 2008, but production capacity of the herd available in the state remains weak and this is due primarily to the breeding conditions, and the nature of the local strain, and the pastoral breeding method that affect the productive capacity of the herd.(Directorate, A. 2010)

### **\* Milk production**

Milk production in cattle class reached 34252754 liter , the output in the beginning of 2005 recorded a significant increase, this increase remain associated with the financial support granted by the State in order to develop this vital Division.

### **\* Poultry**

White meat is an important supplement in the needs of the market for all types of meat in the wilaya, with respect to the season 2007/2008 we recorded a slight decline in production of white meat, and this is due to the increased cost of production means for the year 2008. The estimated production is 7571 tons, a decrease of an estimated 203 tons compared to the year before which recorded a production of about 7774 tons.

As for eggs and during 2008, we recorded a production of 433 755 000 Unit, an increase of 66.755 million units compared to the production of the past year, where production was estimated at 367 million units, and this is due to the conversion of some poultry specialized in the production of meat to egg production.

### **\*Beekeeping**

Controlled by the private sector, where beekeeping includes about 36101 filled cell, of which 34294 modern and 1807 traditional, compared with 2007 production of honey decreased by 10% and this is due to the high proportion of deaths due to drought.

The amount of honey extracted estimated by 198 quintals which is considered weak compared with the number of cells available in the district.

## **2. The development of the industrial sector**

### **2.1. Electric power**

The district of Batna has a 220/60/30 electric adaptor. This electric transformer supplied by two electric lines with a high-voltage of 220 K/V (Ain mlila–Batna)

On the basis of this adaptor various electrical transformers tension 60/30 K/V , were supplied as shown in the following :

- Converter 60/30 K/V, Germa, supplied through the main line 60 K/V Ain mlilla - Germa.
- Powered subsidy line 60 K/V Batna - Germa.
- Converter 60/30 K/V, (Arris) supplied through the main line 60 K/V Batna - Arris.
- Converter 60/10 K/V, (Batna) supplied by two main lines 60 K/V the first stemmed from the adaptor 10/60 K/V in Batna and the second from the converter 220/60/30 K/V Batna.
- Converter 60 K/V of cement industrial complex Ain touta supplied by a tension line 60 K/V. Stems from this converter, two electric lines , oneis supplying the city of Barika and the other the City of Biskra.
- Converter 60/30 K/V Marwana supplied through the electrical line Batna Marwana. (Directorate,I.2010)

#### **\* Major projects in the process of completion**

- Electric power station Ain djasser capacity estimated at 2 x 126 MVA.
- Transformer 220/60/30 K/V , (Batna2) Markona -Tazoult.
- Two electric lines 220 K/V, Ain Mlila - Batna to intervene in tcase of default.
- Two electric lines 220 K/V, Ain djasser - Tazoult, to supply the station (Batna2).
- Electrical transformer 60/30 K/V, Kodia Lmdouar- Timgad.
- Two electric lines 60K/V, Batna 2 - Kodia Lmdaouar - Timgad.
- Two electric lines 220 K/V , Ain Mlila - Batna.
- Project electric lines , 60/10 K/V, in Hamla city and Parc a Forage and to strengthen the electric power in the city of Batna.

#### **2.2. Natural Gas**

The following gas pipes pass through the district of Batna ,

- Pipeline transporting natural gas and oil.
- Oil pipelines Hassi Messaoud Skikda through the following municipalities: Mdoukel - Barika - Boumagar - Nqaous –Ain Djasser - Marwana - Palace Balzma –Ain djasser.
- From Sonatrach pipelines, Sonelgaz pipes start to supply many cities and towns in the district of Batna.
- Gas transmission pipe 10", (Sufian - Batna) through Sagana , Tellato - Ain touta and the Ouedchaaba.
- Gas transmission pipe 6" aligned with the tube 16 ", (Ain Djasser - Batna) passes through Seriana - Germa –Fisdis.
- Gas transmission pipe 8", (Batna Ouled Fadhel) through Tazoult and Timgad.
- Gas transmission pipe 8", (Batna –Arris) passing through the Oued Taga.
- Gas transmission pipe 8", (Oued Taga -Menaar), which covers the municipality of Thniet elabed .



- Starting from these pipes other municipalities have been linked including
- Chemora - Madher–Foum Toub–Aioun Assafr

**\* The new areas that have been linked with natural gas**

Municipality of Achmoul and Inoughissen

Areas registered under the program of social housings, (program 2008)

**\*Programs in the process of completion**

Bouzina, ELhassi, Takslant, Tiganimin, Bolhelat, Tkout

**\* Recorded programs**

-Sonatrach Company has granted the permission to construct gas transmission pipe GK3, from Hassi Rmel to El Kala and Skikda. Also it has been deposited a license file for public interest in order to build a pipeline transporting natural gas 28 "(Rukad) east-west and directed to strengthen distribution of natural gas from Maskara to Khenchla.(Order,2003)

- Project for strengthening distribution of natural gas to the city of Batna.

-Gas transmission pipe 8 "directed to supply the municipalities of Adaoua and Hamma in the wilaya of Setif.

**2.3. Industrial property**

There are three industrial areas and seven areas of activity in the district of Batna . the average occupied area range between 38% and 100% with regard to total area for industrial areas, and between 02% to 100% of the activity areas.

The rehabilitation process has touched industrial areas and areas of activity (the first phase in 2003, and the second phase in 2006), this concern in the industrial zarea of Batna and that of Arris, and three areas of activity in Marwana - Ain Yagout and Ngaous.(Order2001)

The status of the property for various industrial areas and areas of activity is detailed as follows.

**2.3.1. Industrial areas**

**Table 1. Distribution of industrial areas in the wilaya of Batna**

Region	total area (ha)	exploitable area (ha)	granted area(ha)	remaining space(ha)	area ratio occupation( ha)	total number of pieces	Number of pieces granted
Batna 1	215	142	142	00	100	88	88
Batna 2	95	68	68	00	100	36	36
Barika	123	102	42	60	41	140	37
Arris	90	83.25	32.32	50.93	38	15	13
Total	523	395.25	284.32	110.93	71	279	174

Source: Directorate of Industry and Mines district of Batna 2010

**2.3.2 Areas of activities**

**Table 2. Distribution areas by activities**

Region	the total area(h	exploitable area (ha)	granted area (ha)	remaining space(ha)	area ratio occupied	total number of pieces	Number of pieces granted

Batna	36.24	32.09	32.09	00	100	111	111
Barika	27.66	20.28	6.15	7.32	30	152	31
Marwana	16	9.32	3.1	6.22	33	112	35
Madher	/	17	00	17	00	78	00
Aindjasser	4.77	3.90	2.59	1.31	66	35	09
Ainyagout	27.75	14.34	12.77	1.57	89	105	90
Nqaws	53.41	42.79	20.09	22.7	46	145	02
Total	165.83	139.72	76.79	60.26	54	738	278

Source: Directorate of Industry and Mines, 2010

### 3. The development prospects of the district

The concerned prospects will be focused on agriculture and industry sectors.

#### 3.1. Agriculture

We will take into account in this sector the directives of the national plan for the creation of urban prospects for 2025 so as to revive the rural spaces and regional rebalancing in order to return and install the rural population.

The development of productive activity, reviving of agricultural- oriented investment to promote production and improve productivity, diversification of products, raise the technical level of production methods.

Optimal evaluation of the natural sources available in the state and orient it towards upgrading the needs of citizens, according to the content of the master plan for the State, through the rational exploitation of production systems and intensifying productive consumption-oriented strategy.

- In order to achieve this, the development strategy is based the following.(Sana,2010)
- -Optimizing and integrating assessment of the sources of each area. (Mahmoud, 2007)
- -Ensuring the sustainability of development.
- -Taking advantage of other complementary activities of the agricultural sector and space.
- -The mountaineous area benefits from 100 thousand hectares, plains area from 50 thousand hectars and pastoral area from 70 thousand hectares.

This operations will enable to raise good agricultural area by 50 thousand hectares and irrigated agricultural area by 20 thousand hectares, together with increasing of the level of animal production, milk, vegetables and fruits.

In addition to strengthening the capacity of cooling with new network to absorb the annual and seasonal production by 40%, and the creation of markets in various municipalities and between municipalities, as well as markets with regional dimension. Also the development of transforming industries to collect between 30 to 40 million liters of milk and to convert fruits (100 to 150 thousand tons / year).

Finally, the development of this sector is in need to strengthen the basic facilities to accommodate potentiel commercial traffic ahead and especially to open tract on an area of 100 km, rural lighting and housing.

#### 3.2. Forests

Expand the area of forest by planting 52 thousand hectares and the fight against desertification phenomenon by installing sand dunes areas submerged sand on an area of 400 thousand hectares, completion of a green belt along the roads and around the rural and urban areas, planting of new species (olive, almond ... etc.), protection of affected steppes areas.

- The prospects for renewal of forest areas
- Valuation of forest wealth.
- Tourism and scientific courses in the forests
- Investment opportunities, especially in the building materials sector.
- Sending exploratory works for new mines.
- Development of research on the effects.
- Valuation of wealth (natural, and typical sites ....)
- Rehabilitation and exploitation of mineral springs.
- The successful introduction of a new quality of fruit trees (olives, apricots and apples).
- Breeding and developing small farms( poultry, beekeeping etc)

### 3.3. Industry

There are several factors affecting the regional dynamics in the district, we recall, for example, the growing industrial thought (three industrial areas were established in 1973), in addition to the energy and related institutions surrounding the sector and sources of mining, as well as the program of agricultural development funded by the state, which will allow the wilaya to take advantage of new opportunities for the establishment of industrial poles that would accommodate new investments.

In order to meet the future needs the followingsuggestions are proposed(Monographie,2009)

- The establishment of a major industrial area in Ain yagout to exploit the existing basic quality installations (railway, airport, and a dual national road as well as gas and electricity network in addition to the proximity of the ports of Jijel and Skikda).
- The establishment of an industrial area in the sourhen exit of Batna. (Batna Ain Touta Axis).
- The establishment of an industrial areain Boulferais specializing in red building materials.
- The expansion of the activity area in Ain Djasser and rehabilitate it to become an industrial area.
- Create at the municipal level situated in the mountaineous areas mini-activity areas to convert agricultural materials and craftsmanship.
- Drafting and restructuring real estate industrial spaces for industrial areas and areas of activity located across the wilaya.

### 4. Conclusion

The district of Batna is characterized by social and economic characteristics, that has close links to natural domain of its territory, while the topographic diversity shows some real advantages concerning the activities and the enormous potential available in the wilaya from which it can have the advantage. The most important tag can be shown as follow :

- Human capital, the census is important, configuration (a regional university pole; national schools, vocational training centers).

-A variety of natural wealth, fertile lands; enormous forest wealth with the vast areas of Allies (3000 ha); diversity in natural wealth; decreased risk of earthquakes; dense hydrographic network relatively untapped.

- Agri forest Activity and pastoral specific to particularity of the district. High potential mountaineous Agriculture; importance of livestock (sheep, cattle and goats), a successful measures in the field of rural development.

-Qualified labor, skilled industrial and professional qualifications.

-Industry, textile industry currently knew temporary problems, but it has the advantage of great potential in the field of development: large public units, small and medium-sized enterprises from the private sector, an important industrial real estate property (industrial areas, and activity areas).

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# Production Characteristics and Determinants of Gross Margin in Small Scale Rural-Based Aquaculture in Aguata Local Government Areas of Anambra State

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## **Abstract**

Nigeria has great potential for aquaculture, yet supply of fish and its products remains below demand resulting to massive importation of fisheries products to supplement domestic production. Production is not matched with adequate supply of fish for the population. The study assessed production characteristics and factors influencing gross margin of rural based small scale aquaculture using sixty five purposively selected small scale fish farmers. Data were collected by use of structured interview schedule and analysed using percentage, mean scores and linear regression model. The results showed that majority (70.7%) of the respondents used concrete tanks; 36.9% and 28% used fibre/tapolene and plastic tanks for production, respectively. The most popular fish cultured was cat fish (84.6%). Reasons for preference include: consumers choice (84.6%), feed acceptability (73.8%), and survival rate (61.5%). The respondents practiced pond fertilization (61.5%), prevent cannibalism (53.8%), pest and disease (53.8%), others. The gross margin was significantly and positively influenced by years of experience, schooling and extension contact. The study recommends that extension should increase contact with the farmers to provide relevant information and technical services. Government and policy makers should revamp public hatcheries and/or provide enabling environment for private sector involvement in production of fingerlings and advisory services.

**Key words:** aquaculture, rural, pond, management practices, fingerlings, feeds, gross margin

## Introduction

Fish accounts for about one fifth of world total supply of animal protein and this has risen five folds over the last forty years from 20 million metric tons to 98 million metric tonnes and projected to exceed 150 million metric tons in the nearest future (Kamla Raj 2007). In 2009, it accounted for 16.6 percent of the world population's intake of animal protein and 6.5 percent of all protein consumed. (FAO 2012). Adekoya (2004) also reported that fish and fish products constitute more than 60% of the total protein intake in adults especially in rural areas. It is widely accepted as source of dietary intake, income, and employment particularly for coastline communities (FAO 2000; New Partnership for Africa Development 2005)..

The animal protein consumption in Nigeria has remained very poor and on the decline (Adekumis et al. 2004). This is partly the result of declining trend in livestock production occasioned by high cost of feed materials (Ekenyem and Onyeagoro 2006). Consequently, Nigeria has the highest fish demand (1.5 million metric ton) and a per capital consumption of 7.5-8.5kg annually (FDF 2005). On the other hand, local fish production has been below consumption with imports accounting for about US\$48.8m in 2002 (Central Bank of Nigeria 2004). Current national production stands at 511,000 metric tons/annum, thus producing a demand-supply gap of about a million metric tons which the country imports to meet domestic consumption needs (Ovie and Raji 2006).. Therefore, a large percentage of the fish requirement is met through massive importation and this translates into huge avoidable drain on Nigeria's scarce foreign exchange.

Over times, a greater proportion of fish supply in most country, including Nigeria comes from marine captures which accounts for about 72 percent of the total fish production, while inland capture (from lakes, river ponds) is 6 percent and remaining 22 percent comes from aquaculture (fish farming), in which about 13% of those fishes are raised in inland water and about 9% are raised in specially constructed ponds or cages along coastline (FAO 1998). Thus, about 70% of the world's commercial important marine fish stocks are fully fished, over exploited or depleted, as most of these marine fishes have been hunted to extinction and some fishes have probably disappeared, therefore bringing a huge decline in fish production worldwide. According to Muune (2002) the benefits are at risk as the exploitation of natural fish stocks is reaching its limit.

Aquaculture, commonly known as fish farming, has come to greatly augment the dwindling marine fish production worldwide and it is growing rapidly (Muir & Nugent 1995; FAO 2004). Greenfact (2004) opined that aquaculture is the fastest growing animal based food production sector, particularly in the developing country. The FAO reports show that while capture production has been on the decline, estimated around 90 million in 2001, aquaculture production has continued to show strong growth rate increasing at an average rate of 6.2 per cent from 38.9 million in 2003 to 52.5 million tonnes in 2008 (FAO 2008; 2011). Similarly, FAO (2012) reported that while capture fisheries production remains stable, aquaculture production keeps on expanding and it is set to remain one of the fastest-growing animal food-producing sectors. This collaborates with earlier projection that by 2030, one half of the fish consumed by the world's populace will be produced by aquaculture (FAO 2000).

In Nigeria aquaculture has been pointed out to be catalytic to fish food production while capture fishes have reached a decline. According to FAO (2012) some developing countries in Asia and the Pacific (Myanmar and Papua New Guinea), sub-Saharan Africa (Nigeria, Uganda, Kenya, Zambia and Ghana) and South America (Ecuador, Peru and Brazil) have made rapid progress to become significant or major aquaculture producers in their regions. The report further indicate that in 2010, Nigeria ranked second among the top ten world producers of aquaculture fisheries production in African region. Nigeria has been described as having a vast expanse of inland fresh water and brackish water ecosystem suitable for aquaculture practice, and its potential for fish farming has been estimated at 1.31 million tonnes (about 25%), if the 1.75 million hectares of suitable inland water for fish is used. Relatively, the sector has been largely driven by social and economic objectives, such as nutrition improvement, generation of supplementary income,

diversification of income activities, and the creation of employment. This is especially true in rural communities, where opportunities for economic activities are limited (Adedeji and Okocha 2011). Consequently, it's development in Nigeria as in some country like Egypt is yet to explore the existing potential and meet up with national demand. Production is still at subsistence level, though with increasing interest and proliferation of fish farms throughout the country, and rural communities in particular. According to Awoyemi and Ajiboye (2011), the aquaculture sub-sector contributes between 0.5% and 1% to Nigeria's domestic fish production, about 2.0% of the GDP and accounts for 0.2% of the total global fish production. The rural based small holder aquaculture fisheries production has significant role to play to enhanced domestic supply in particular and overall global fish food supply. However, it is observed that while some aquaculture farms have remained strong in production, many are either gradually folding up and at the verge of collapsing, and others are out of production. It is therefore apt to:

- Examine the production characteristics of small scale rural- based aquaculture and
- Determine factors influencing gross margin in small scale rural-based aquaculture production.

### Materials and Methods

The survey was conducted in Aguata Local Government Area of Anambra State. Small scale fish farmers in the local government constituted the population. The local government comprised fourteen town communities and five communities were selected using simple random techniques. The five communities were Ekwulobia, Igboukwu, Umuchu, Aguluezechukwu, and Uga. In each town community a list of existing fish farmers was obtained and thirteen fish farmers were randomly selected using simple random selection techniques. A total of sixty-five respondents were used for the study. Data were collected by use of structured interview schedule and questionnaire for literate respondents. To elicit information on the production characteristic of smallholder rural- based fish farmers, respondents were asked to indicate the type of fish reared, type of production system used, preference, reasons for preference, management practices, marketing channel and others.. The linear regression analysis was conducted to determine factors that influence the gross margin of smallholder rural- based fish farming using this equation;

$$\text{Regression model} = Y = a_0 + a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + a_3 X_3 + a_4 X_4 + a_5 X_5 + a_6 X_6 + a_7 X_7 + a_8 X_8 + e_1$$

Where Y (dependent variable – Gross margin) = Farmers total sales revenue minus its cost of goods sold ( variable Xcosts and fixed costs directly linked to the sale, such as material costs, labor, cost of getting the product to the point of sale etc ), divided by the total sales revenue, expressed as a percentage. The gross margin represents the percent of total sales revenue that the farmer retains after incurring the direct costs associated with producing the goods and services (fish) sold by a farmer.

$$\text{Gross Margin (\%)} = \frac{\text{Revenue} - \text{Cost of Goods Sold}}{\text{Revenue}}$$

$a_0$  = constant

$a_1$ — $a_8$  = coefficients of variables to be determined

$X_1$ ----- $X_8$  = independent variable

$X_1$  = age (years)

$X_2$  = family size (no of persons)

$X_3$  = years of schooling of the fish farmers (years spent in school)

$X_4$  = years of experience in fish farming /aquaculture (years)

$X_5$  = training received by fish farmers (dummy)



X<sub>6</sub>=credit (formal or informal) (dummy)

X<sub>7</sub>=extension agents visits (no of visit)

X<sub>8</sub>=fish farmers association (membership - dummy)

## Results and Discussion

Production characteristics of smallholder rural- based aquaculture:

The production characteristics of smallholder rural based aquaculture were discussed under the following headings; Type of pond used and reasons for use-

### Concrete Tank

Table 1 shows that majority (70.7%) of the respondents used concrete tank for aquaculture production. The result agrees with Kudi, Bako, and Atala (2008) who reported in a similar study that 75% of the farmers used concrete ponds, while 25% used earthen ponds. It is mostly common in an integrated recycling system but is increasingly competing with the most common earthen pond in small scale system. The reasons expressed by the respondents for using concrete pond were accessibility of construction materials (61.5%), less labour intensive ( 53.8%), easy to maintain (52,3%), and construct (49.2%). Other reasons include that it is less expensive to construct (38.4%), has high stocking density (36.9%) and requires less space (30.7%). However, a lesser proportion (23.0%, 16.9%, and 10.7%) indicated that it requires less quantity of water; reduces mortality and less prone to predators, respectively. Popular use of concrete ponds in smallholder aquaculture system could be explained by economic, technical and logistic reasons

Fibre/tapolene tanks: A lesser proportion (36.9%) of the respondents used fibre/tapolene tanks for aquaculture production (Table1).This is mostly common in homestead small scale ventures, where improved livelihood and diversification for enhanced household food security and resilience drives production. Also it may be easier to manage but the potential for disease infestation may likely be high especially when poorly managed. The respondents however, indicated that it is not labour intensive (36.9%), requires less space (33.8%), easy to maintain (33.2%), construction materials are easily accessible (30.7%), easy to construct (27.6%) and others. Thus, economic issues constituted the major reasons for the preference.

Plastic Tanks: Only about 28% of the respondents cultured fish in plastic tanks. This appears not very common among the farmers probably due to its high sensitivity to weather variation/condition which grossly affects water condition for fish survival and disease potent, and subsequently production. The major reasons for the use were that it requires less space (27.6%), the construction materials are easily accessible (27.6%), easy to construct (26.1%) , less labour intensive (23.0%), has high stocking density (20.0%) and others. There was no indication of use of earthen and cage system perhaps due to lack of open water (irrigation canal, rivers, or lakes) for its construction. Nevertheless Windmar, *et al.* (2000) noted that cage culture system is viable and has tremendous potential to produce high quality fish products for domestic and export markets. It can provide rapid returns to the rural poor who do not have access to land for pond aquaculture (Humbrey, *et al.* 2001).

Similarly, earthen pond seems not to be one of the common type of fish pond system used in Nigeria. Relatively, it is easier to manage and production is faster when supplement feed is given to the fish. It is possible that the farmers lacked the technical expertise for both construction and management or are completely unaware or poorly informed on its advantage. On another hand, Spore (1990) reported that cage or enclosed fish do not move as those in the large pond, and diseases are a greater risk because of the production density and it can bankrupt the fish farmers. Generally the results suggest that choice of ponds is influenced by resources available to farmers; natural, human, economic and other resource related factors.

**Table 1: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Based on Type of Ponds Used and Preference (n = 65).**

Type of pond	F	(%)
Concrete pond	46	70.7
Fibre/tapolene	24	36.9
Plastic tanks	18	27.6
Earthen ponds	-	-
Cage system	-	-

Reason for Preference	Concrete pond		Fibre/tapolene		Plastic tanks	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Less expensive	25	38.4	15	23.0	12	18.4
High stocking density	24	36.9	10	15.3	13	20.0
Easy to construct	32	49.2	18	27.6	17	26.1
Easy to maintain	34	52.3	21	32.3	10	15.3
It contains large quality of water	15	23.0	8	12.3	5	7.6
It reduces mortality	11	16.9	5	7.6	8	12.3
Fishes not prone to predators	7	10.7	12	18.4	4	6.1
It requires less space	20	30.7	22	33.8	18	27.6
It is not labour intensive	35	53.8	24	36.9	15	23.0
Construction materials are easily accessible	40	61.5	20	30.7	18	27.6

\*Multiple responses

Type of fish stocked and preference: catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*)

Table 2 shows that 84.6% of the respondents stocked catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*). This confirms Agbede et al. (2003) who reported that the major species cultured in Nigeria include tilapias, catfish and carp; however the African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) is the most farmed. It has been more widely promoted for fish farming in Nigeria. Report showed that Nigeria as well as some other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa had strong comparative advantage for catfish farming in the early 2000s ([www.fao.org/docrep/012/i121e](http://www.fao.org/docrep/012/i121e)) and its popularity has not changed much. Respondents' preference was based on consumers' choice (84.6%), acceptability of different feed (73.8%), fast growth rate (69.2%), high rate of survival (61.5%), compatibility with other species (53.8%) and resistance to diseases (49.2%). Only about 35% and 28% reared cat fish because of temperature tolerance and ability to reproduce, respectively.

Tilapia species: Lesser percentage (30.7%) of the respondents preferred tilapia for the following reasons: It has high rate of survival (29.2%), consumers acceptability (27.6%), fast growth rate (26.1%), compatibility with other species (20.0%) and others. This suggests that tilapia fish is not very common in smallholder rural based farms. It could be attributed to several factors including low knowledge of the potential of tilapia fish, poor technical know-how, and access to inputs and others. Tilapia fish, according to MCGee M. V.(nd) exhibits an excellent quality as sustainable species for tropical aquaculture which included ease of reproduction, adaptability to intensive culture, acceptability of low input, sustainable feeds (agricultural products), resistance to impaired water supply, consumer acceptance and others. Besides, It is considered suitable for culture because of high tolerance to hostile environmental conditions, relatively fast growth and the ease with which they can be bred (Nahid, et al. 2012). The combination of the above attributes makes it widely accepted as suitable fish species for fish farming.

**Table 2: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Based on Type of Fish Stocked and Preference.**

Type of fish stocked	F	(%)
Catfish ( <i>Clarias ganipinus</i> )	55	84.6
Tilapia species	10	30.7

Reasons for preference	Catfish		Tilapia	
	F	%	F	%
High rate of survival	40	61.5	19	29.2
Fast growth rate	45	69.2	17	26.1
Resistance to disease	32	49.2	4	6.2
Consumer acceptability	55	84.6	18	27.6
Temperature tolerance	23	35.3	5	7.7
Ability to reproduce	18	27.6	3	4.6
Compatibility with other species	35	53.8	13	20.0
Acceptability to different types of feed	48	73.8	8	12.3

\*Multiple responses

#### Source of Fingerlings

Table 3 shows that 63.0% of respondents sourced fingerlings from local dealers, while 37.0% sourced from hatcheries. Largely, dependence on local source for fingerlings might be as a result of limited availability and distribution of functional hatcheries in the country. Madu (1995) observed that government hatcheries are insufficient, irregular and are constrained by untimely release of funds due to protocols and bureaucracy. Thus, production from government hatcheries hardly meets demand. Above all, proximity and access to approved hatchery could constitute another impediment given the poor infrastructural facilities (transport, poor road network etc) of rural sectors. Sourcing fingerlings from uncertified and unknown sources may likely increase the risk of disease occurrence, mortality, poor growth and poor return to production.

**Table 3: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Sources of Fingerlings (n=65)**

Source of fingerlings	F	(%)
Local dealers	41	63.0
Hatcheries	24	37

#### Feed used by respondents

Table 4 shows that 76.9% of the respondents preferred to feed their fish with pelleted feed and formulated animal and kitchen waste, while 61.5% fed pelleted feed, 53.8% used pelleted/formulated/kitchen waste and 38.5% used only formulated feed. Majority of the respondents used non-conventional feed in their farms. This is because some non-conventional feeds particularly the ones of animal origin (maggot, tadpole, earthworm meal etc) have high quality feed ingredients that could compared to some extent with the conventional types. Moreover, they are cheaper and less competitive for human consumption (e.g cassava peel, kitchen waste, soy meal etc). However, the feed stuffs are unavailable in large commercial quantities even for subsistence aquaculture industry, though the level of inclusion in aqua feed varies and largely depends on nutrients level, processing technique, species of fish and cultural farming pattern prevalent in the locality. The lesser proportion of respondents that fed conventional feeds could be due to its expensive nature, which often translates to high production cost for farmers. According to Jamu and Ayinla (2003) feed accounts for at least 60% of the total cost of fish production in Africa, which to a large extent determines the viability and profitability of fish farming enterprise. Similarly, the use of locally formulated and pelleted fish feed is also limited due to poor quality, inadequate and inconsistent production. Low quality of fish feed and its attendant high cost are the major factor limiting the development of aquaculture in Africa (Jamu and Ayinla 2003). Thus, choice of fish feed is largely a function of access, availability, and cost.

**Table 4: Percentage Distribution of Respondents Based on Type of Feed Used (n=65)**

Feeds	F	(%)
Local Pelleted feed	40	61.5
Formulated feed	25	38.5
Pelleted/formulated/kitchen waste	35	53.8
Pelleted/formulated/kitchen/Animalwaste	50	76.9

**Management and Routine Practices Adopted by the Respondents**

Table 5 shows that all (100%) the respondents employed pond fertilization/liming, 61.5% practiced prevention of cannibalism amongst fishes, 53.8% prevented pest and diseases, 50.7% seared pond against vandals and 46.1% reduced water toxicity. Lesser proportion (40%, 36.9%, 36.9%, 32.3%, 27.6% and 27.6%) ensured/checked dissolved oxygen level, water PH, required level of temperature, refilling of eroded parts of the pond, and required stocking density of the pond, respectively. A significant proportion of the respondents practiced most of the management practices. However, the degree of expertise in the application is uncertain. The less used management practices suggest poor technical know-how and knowledge of their significance in aquaculture enterprise. Commitment to the application of these management practices is important to create enabling environment for fish growth and performance. For instance, the application of lime in pond before stocking helps to prevent acidity of pond water, thereby maintaining the PH level of the water in the pond for reduce mortality, growth rate and profitability of production. Lime is applied to the pond bottom to kill pest and reduce acidity by raising the PH of the water to a desirable level that will enhance effect of fertilization. Also, most of the respondents reported that the addition of organic manure to fertilize the pond increase the body weight and body size of the stocked fish. However, where fish farmers depended on poultry dropping and brewery waste for food, it may not be necessary to fertilize the pond, since waste product decays to form organic manure which will help to promote plankton growth.

Similarly, the results show that common routine practices done by the respondents were washing of ponds (67.6%), regular inspection of ponds (56.9%), weeding surrounding (47.6%), and regular feeding of fish (38.4%). Lesser proportion (35.3%, 27.6%, 26.1% % and 18.4%) practiced regular checking of water inlet and outlet, regular changing and draining of water, check for leakages, and regular observation of fishes, respectively. Many farmers are not committed to some basic routine practices in their farms. This is detrimental to fish health, growth and performance since fish farming is responsive to environmental conditions.

**Table 4: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Management and Routine Practices Used (n=65)**

Management practices	F	(%)
Ensuring the required level of temperature	24	36.9
Checking the PH of the water	22	33.8
Ensuring that water has dissolved oxygen	26	40
Reduction of water toxicity	30	46.1
Pond fertilization/liming	65	100
Ensuring the required stocking density of the pond	18	27.6
Prevention of pest and diseases	35	53.8
Refilling of eroded parts of the pond	21	32.3
Preventing cannibalism amongst fishes	40	61.3
Securing the pond against vandals	33	50.7
<b>ROUTINE PRACTICES</b>		
Regular check for leakages	17	26.1
Checking water inlet and outlet for blockage	23	35.3
Weeding the surroundings	31	47.6
Regular observation of fishes	12	18.4
Control of erosion	10	15.3
Proper draining and changing of water	18	27.6
Regular feeding of fish	25	38.4
Washing of the pond	44	67.6
Regular inspection of pond	37	56.9

\*multiple reponse

#### Determinants of Gross Margin

Linear regression analysis (Table 3) shows that R adjusted was 0.590 (59%), This means that 59% the total variation in the gross margin of smallholder rural based aquaculture is influenced by variation in the independent variables. Specifically, number of years spent in school (education), years of experience of the farmers, training in fish farming, loan/credit from financial institutions, extension agent visits significantly ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) influenced the gross margin. Training in fish farming and access to credit showed negative relationship with gross margin, while years of experience in fish farming, years spent in school and extension contact showed positive effect. Ideally exposure to training in fish farming and access to credit is expected to positively influence the gross margin of fish farmers since these are critical factors of production. The negative influence therefore suggests that either the fish farmers had little or no access to special training in fish farming. Also credit may not have been available or that it was not appropriately utilized by the farmers. The gross margin however, increases with education, experience and extension contacts. Farmers acquire requisite capacities to make informed decisions and mitigate risk in production through basic education and experience, while extension contacts facilitates farmers' access to knowledge, skill and information useful for improved production and better profit.

On the hand age, family size, farmers association/organization showed no significant ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) influence on gross margin in fish farming. In essence these variables are not critically related to efficiency of production. This is surprising as age and membership of fish farmers association have been reported to influence farmers' response to innovations and technological package in agriculture. Farmers take advantage of economy of scale by group formation for easy access to production inputs, credit, advisory services and market. Also use of family members for certain production activities is expected to reduce cost of production and subsequently enhance the gross margin.

**Table 5: Determinants of Gross Margin using Linear Regression Analysis**

Variables	Coefficients	STD error	T– value	P – value
Constant		287717537	0.573	0.569
Age	-0.020	4846.192	-0.143	-0.887 <sup>NS</sup>
Family size	0.100	21585.320	0.717	0.477 <sup>NS</sup>
Number of years Spent in school	0.197	10596.686	1.471	0.001*
Years of experience in fish farming	0.104	15033.718	0.766	0.000*
Training on fish farming	-0.014	3665.048	-0.079	-0.042*
Loan/credit from financial institution	-0.079	5422.804	-0.583	-0.028*
Extension agents visit.	-0.3.28	4996.447	-2.667	-0.010*
Farmer associations/organization	0.129	130.78.293	0.770	0.445 <sup>NS</sup>

R<sup>2</sup> adjusted =0.590, \*Significance  $p \leq 0.05$ .

### Conclusion

Smallholder rural-based aquaculture production was practiced in concrete ponds, tapolene and plastic tanks, based economic, technical and logistic reasons. Catfish was mostly farmed and preference was based on consumers' choice, acceptability of different feed, fast growth rate, high rate of survival, compatibility with other species and resistance to diseases. The farmers relied on local supply of fingerlings, conventional as well as locally formulated feeds for production. The management practices employed in the farms were pond fertilization, prevention of pest and disease, cannibalism and others.

Institutional factors namely year spent in formal education, experience, and extension contact positively influenced gross margin, while training in fish farming and access to credit were negatively related to gross margin in small scale rural based fish farming. On the other hand, age, size of family and membership of farmers association had no significant influence. The study concludes that gross margin, which is an indication of efficiency in production in small scale fish farmer is a function of institutional factors. The study recommends that institutions, government and non-governmental organizations should give considerable attention to this sector particularly in the area of training and communication of appropriate recommendations, and information. Extension organizations should intensify efforts to provide advisory and technical services to fish farmers. Training on procurement, improve access and effective utilization of credit should be included in training manual. Government should enact favourable policies that will increase interest and participation of private sector particularly in production and supply of fingerlings.

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# Capitalism, Liberal Democracy and Election Crises in Nigeria: The Socialist Alternative

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## **Abstract**

Since Nigeria attained independence in 1960, general elections have always ended in violence and bloodshed. Ethnicity and tribalism appear to be the chief culprits but far more fundamental is the crisis of state, occasioned by a fragmented dominant class, lacking cohesion and a class ideology for class rule. We argue that a state represents a cohesive dominant class, to protect property, but colonialism instituted capitalism in Nigeria when there was neither a state nor a cohesive capitalist class to manage capitalism as a mode of production. With capitalism and liberal democracy and the freedom to freely compete for resources and property, the dominant class, which is without property, becomes preoccupied with the struggle for property which fragments them. So, at independence, Nigeria had a dominant class with political power but without economic power, as a result, each general election is seen as an opportunity to grab political power and use same to acquire economic power. The socialist democracy therefore, will be a viable alternative for Nigeria, which will organize production where society as a whole will reap the benefits of the products as against the present system (capitalism). This arrangement will devolve power in the hands of the people as production will be organized and carried out, with the people being the beneficiary of the products (which is the source of people's power). Thus, the propensity to "fight" for political power for economic gains will stop, and elections will be peace

**Keyword:** Capitalism, Liberal Democracy, Dominant Class, Socialist Alternative.

## **Introduction**

Elections began formally in Nigeria in 1922 when the Clifford constitution allowed for four elected members into the newly elected council. However, by 1951 adult suffrage started in Nigeria. But by far the most significant election was the 1959 general elections. It was significant because it ushered in political independence in 1960. Before then however, elections were held into the regional houses of assembly in 1952. But, what makes elections to be relevant and of interest to us and why are we relating general elections in Nigeria to socialism?

First democratic creed is seen as an element of modern polity, second, election, based on universal suffrage has become a measure of democracy. And finally, since independence in 1960 all the general elections conducted in Nigeria, especially those by civilian governments had been without much success as each had been greeted with crisis, disputations, violence, bloodshed and some were followed by military coups.

Therefore, the problem of election crisis in Nigeria is not a new one. It had started soon after independence and had ended the first and second republics, in 1966 and 1983. It had occurred at different times and in varying degrees during the periods of military regimes when military governments attempted to conduct general elections; in 1979, 1990, 1993 and 1998. The most significant election crisis in Nigeria was the annulled general elections result in 1993.

In Nigeria, there is so much premium on political power which makes election results to be highly contentious. Today, it will not be an understatement to say that Nigerians are incapable of conducting crisis free elections. But what are the causes of this nightmare and why should Nigerian politicians find it so difficult to conduct free and fair elections without ending them in chaos? And what are the explanations and panacea for this problem? This is the pre-occupation of this paper.

## **Democracy and Elections**

Democracy may be problematic in comparative politics, but in spite of the engendered polemics, being the rule by the people subsists as its main thrust.

Thus, in political engineering in search of ordered society and good governance, democracy becomes a paradigm because it is a creed of modern society and election, based on universal suffrage has become a measure of this creed.

Consequently, both the liberal and radical schools embrace democracy, for different rationalizations as methodological categories for the achievement of good governance. The above, be it as it may, the criticality of election and its centrality to democracy is recognized as being beyond debate, and as an integral part of the democratic paradigm, making democracy meaningful as a people oriented ideology.

Elections have become the processes by which citizens make their choice of leaders to exercise authority on their behalf. In other words, elections in a democracy are intended to ensure that the government will exercise its powers with the consent of the governed (Gauga, 2007).

Elections, therefore, become very critical in modern society because they are regarded as having vital legitimating functions for a regime and also giving a primary meaning to democracy. This is because democratic theory explains elections as being concerned with the question of power; and the exercise of power, according to Galbraith, is the bending of the will of one person or another (Galbraith, 1983). Elections give people a chance to appraise and control those who govern, while to those who win elections, they see it as generating power, as concrete demonstration of the support and validation for particular policy goals. It has been argued that where an election is competitive and democratic, it shows that the winning candidates have overwhelming support (Hayward, 1987)

Furthermore, in the liberal democratic tradition, democracy is defined by phrasing it as government by the people where liberty, equality, fraternity are secured to the greatest possible degree and in which human capacity are developed to the utmost, by means including force and full discussion of common problems and interests (Pennock, 1979). Thus, liberal democracy means a

political system in which individual rights are given special constitutional protection against the majority.

The modern liberal democracy is also characterized by individual rights and freedoms which are constitutionally guaranteed and the activities of the various parties including the opposition parties as well as of the mass public organizations are allowed. Again, representative organs are determined in general elections with the population enjoying suffrage (Belov, 1986); where democracy primarily is to provide the conditions for the free development of human capacities and to do this equally for all members of the society (Macpherson, 1986).

However, the socialists see liberal democracy as ignoring the economic needs of the people to the point where any effort at real democracy is destroyed (Baradat, 1984). This is because socialists see a democratic system as one where, in addition to conventional liberal political rights, there exists a considerable measure of collective action to create social and economic equality (Barry, 1981). Thus socialism is regarded as more democratic because it is dedicated to freeing people from economic bondage to an ownership class (Baradat, 1984).

Thus, democracy can be seen as a particular form of society, characterized by such things as extensive popular participation and social and economic equality. It can also be seen as a certain kind of procedure for participating in public policies.

To the liberals, emphasis is on liberty, minority rights and the need to safeguard the rights of property, while the socialist emphasize the creation of an egalitarian society, particularly with regard to wealth, property and majority rights (Leeds, 1975).

So much about the functions of elections as being a requirement for involving the citizens in governance, selecting leaders and policies and building support for the state and government. However, what is often not stated as a function of election is the role it plays in constructing, consolidating and maintaining class domination for hegemonic order.

It has been argued that class-consciousness and class action are mediated through the dominant ideology of society (Swingewood, 1975). And by dominant ideology Marxism believes that it embodies a set of common values and beliefs that permeate the civil society and which influences the thinking in the people. The values and beliefs permeate the civil society through its dominant institutions. However, it is when a class has established its own hegemony, and subordinated other classes to its authority that the subordinating class can establish a regime and be able to make the state to represent and protect its interests. By so doing, capitalism consolidates the position of the dominant class with the ideology of liberal democracy and election is used to subordinate the other classes. This is successfully done by using liberal democracy that creates the illusion of participation, manifesting in periodic elections of one man one vote.

Thus, elections are means by which the dominating class secures the domination of the other classes, and are in charge of the dominant institutions of society through which its ideology becomes the dominant values of the society.

We therefore need to see democracy beyond its mere political essence and situate it at the level of ideology. Doing so, democracy becomes an ideology of class domination and election an instrument of it. This is the hidden relationship that exists between elections and democracy, the relationship that assists the dominant class to secure the legitimation of domination and construct hegemonic order for the society.

### **Capitalism, Liberal Democracy and the State**

First, capitalism is a mode of production that is generally stated as an economic system, characterized by freedom of the market, along with private ownership of the means of production and distribution (Hussain, 2004).

Thus, in a capitalist society, the class with the ownership of the means of production becomes the dominant class and by virtue of their ownership of the means of production, the class also holds

power at the expense of the rest of the society (Burns, 1957). Again, the dominant class will need to organize a power to enable them consolidate their domination with the organization of the power involving the totality of the society (Haralambos, 1980). In addition, the power will also be needed for the mediation of class struggle that arises in the process of production.

Thus, because the dominant class can successfully use force to dominate other classes, it became necessary for them to create the institution (state) and instruments (state apparatus) that will be capable of giving permanence to a society which engenders and maintains internal conflicts (Jalee, 1977). Also, the dominant class, now possessing force, will use the instrumentalities of the force to create the state and the state is then used, with its political and legal systems and of the corresponding ideologies to firmly establish and consolidate a system of economy.

Indeed, the state becomes necessary to maintain the dominance of one human group (dominant capitalist class) over another group (oppressed class) and becomes an instrument in the hands of the oppressors. Therefore, wherever there is class struggle, there will be the need for the state because the state functions as an ideological weapon in the fighting out of class conflict (Lukacs, 1991). Consequently, for as long as capitalism continues to polarize society into two antagonistic classes for so long will conflicts persist and for so long will the property class continues to have the need for the state.

This is precisely why it is important to lay emphasizes on the economic importance of politics and political powers because at almost every level, politics is intertwined with the economy and with society (Heywood, 2007). And this why the type of mode of production is essentially a relevant factor to democracy, because the dynamics of a mode of production in a given society, create the dialectics of the attendant challenges faced by the type of ensued democracy.

From the above, we can see why it is important for the dominant class to construct hegemonic order for the society and the impetus for doing so is election, the instrument of electoral democracy. Thus, the continuity of social conflict requires the dominant class to organize election in order to create the illusion of participation in the oppressed classes while also sloganizing democracy as being “the government of the people by the people and for the people”. By consequence therefore, democracy becomes a method of resolving the social conflict that ensues in the process of production (Lukacs, 1991). Thus, the importance of the definition of capitalism and its relevance to election and democracy lies in the way it has come to be central to the idea of the state. And that is precisely because the state and democracy are products of class conflict.

However, in Nigeria, the state is an emergent institution that is made up of factions that interact in rancorous relationship, weak, insipid and lacking the cohesion and capacity needed to organize free and fair elections and grow democracy. And that is because in Nigeria, colonialism brought capitalism and created an inverted process of capitalist state formation due to the fact that a dominant class emerged at independence, not because they had control of the economy but because they championed the struggle for political independence. As a result, the dominant class got political power but without economic power which resulted in factional struggle among them, for resources, political and economic, in order to be able to take the place (control) of the state. Thus, the dominant class became in cohesive and the resultant factions could not maintain cordial relationships as a result of which they could not develop a common interest, necessary for class rule. In order words, the dominant class in Nigeria became fragmented because of unequal distribution of resources and the struggle for economic power tears them into factions.

Consequently, the fragmentation of the dominant class is responsible for the weakness of the Nigerian state and its inability to implement a class project and as a result, election results are always disputed and are not resolved amicably but always end in chaos.

However, what makes this rondo of crisis a feature of Nigerian society is capitalism which was foisted on Nigeria by colonialism when there was no Nigerian state or Nigerian capitalist class to manage capitalism. Thus, the freedom to freely own property and resources (capitalism) when there was no institutional mechanism (particularly the state) to mediate the struggle for resources, led

to blind inclination to get political power. Consequently, the fatal outcome of capitalist democracy in Nigeria now becomes obvious, and therefore should the capitalist democracy continue to be the preferred ideology in a society (Nigeria) with no cohesive dominant capitalist class or in the absence of the state?

### **Capitalism and Liberal Democracy in Nigeria**

The liberal democratic model of democracy and capitalism will not succeed in developing an autonomous Nigerian capitalism, which will guarantee the success of capitalist democracy. It is doubtful whether the continued dependence of Nigerian economy on foreign interests will allow for the development of a truly local capitalist class. And this is because liberal democracy requires a developed capitalist class with firm economic base before it can evolve a ruling class to institutionalize a true and indigenous hegemonic order that will not be susceptible to internal contradictions, external vagaries and influence of monopoly capitalism.

Popular-participation, (liberal democracy) or the ideology of equality emerged in Europe in order to save capitalism from the cosmic trap of hunger, unemployment, poverty, inertia and decay. Hence capitalism used liberal democracy to placate the people, and deceived them into accepting their position as the exploited majority (Kumar, 1983).

If the dominant economic class uses its power of ownership of the means of production to control the state, it will certainly be bewildering to see how possible or how feasible it is to combine capitalism with democracy. And this is because capitalism produces stark inequalities in the distribution of property and income while democracy divides power in a manner that is in principle egalitarian, espousing one man one vote (Iversen, 2008). Thus, how will the ideology and philosophy of capitalism aggregate economic interests into public policies under democracy, with ostensibly egalitarian philosophy and how will economic agents respond to the democratic pressures for redistribution, the philosophy of democracy? (Iversion, 2008). Thus, the two ideas, capitalism and democracy, stand in contradiction and that is why democracy in capitalism is deceptive which creates power (economic and political) that is violent in nature. For, whenever two contradictory forces (ideas) are combined to co-exist, the result is violence.

It has been argued that countries that are sharply divided into a small class of rich people and a large mass of poor, with no substantial middle class between them are not likely to establish democracy (Soldaro, 2008). Also, there is historical and contemporary evidence linking the middle class with attitudes favourable to democracy as witnessed in Britain, France and United States in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; even till date the middle class is the backbone of democracy in the above countries and those that flourish at the moment (Sodaro, 2008). Thus, the absence of available and large middle class is one of the problems with liberal, multiparty democracy in Nigeria today.

Again, the precursor of modern democracy consisted in the consolidation of modern nation state and today's consolidated democracies are built on powerful, high-capacity state (Warren, 2008). In other word, the success of modern democracies are related to the capacity of the state to manage, organize, limit and intensify the powers, through which democratic self rule is organized and achieved. Little wonder, therefore, that new democracies, like Nigeria, that are being built on weak states suffer varying combinations of corruption, poor security, intractable low-level conflict, poor economic performance and inability to deliver some services such as education, health and basic welfare (Warren, 2008)

We have noted that one of the reasons and justifications for the existence of the state is the economic advantage, which division of labour has conferred on a class. Thus, the compelling motivation for a state is economic because the formation of the state is not for the love of one another but for the protection of the economic interest of a particular class. Therefore, to tackle any problem associated with the crisis of state, as the case in Nigeria, will necessarily have to begin by addressing its compelling motivation. Hence attention should be on the economy.

However capitalism emphasizes private property, recognizing the right of individual to own and control as much economic goods as he can successfully appropriate to himself. But economic forces which underline capitalism hardly operate with fairness and equity. The result is that owners of capital flourish while labour which is the prime contributor remains impoverished. The labourer never has enough to enable him to acquire property and therefore has none to keep. In Nigeria, the peasants, who are in the majority, have no property except the land which they till in order to eke out a meager subsistence (Awolowo, 1968; Ikoku, 1973). Where then is the basis for the equality of human beings and the professed equal treatment to all citizens by liberal capitalist ideology? Thus individuals fiercely struggle for material resources in order to improve their well being and since political power is the most viable means of self-enrichment and economic accumulation in Nigeria, access to the state to have political power becomes a *sine-qua-non* for the pursuit of accumulation.

This is where socialist democracy becomes a viable alternative to capitalist democracy.

### **The Socialist Alternative to Capitalist Democracy**

In the last two decades or so, enormous literature sprang up, responding to the collapse of the Soviet Union and insinuating about the "death" of socialism. Also, some liberal scholars nowadays refer to China as a market economy, referring to the shift in orthodox socialism and some accommodation of the so called market economy. Consequently, critics will be quick to ask us for the basis of applauding socialism and referring to it as a viable alternative for Nigeria.

Current trends in political science seem to be addressing some controversial areas of the discipline and by so doing properly compartmentalizing issues that had in the past been taken for granted as self explanatory. Thus, concepts like capitalism and democracy, the citizens and civil society, socialism and democracy are now increasingly receiving attention.

It is therefore not out of place to see socialism as a viable alternative and this is precisely because we need to ask ourselves the questions, how far can capitalism and the requirements of liberal democracy take Nigeria. And with the requirements of capitalist democracy, what does the future hold for Nigeria?

As queried by (Shively, 1997), does a decision to adopt market mechanism for the economy imply a move to democracy? It is however, important to note that there is no automatic connection between democracy and capitalism because there have been and there are still some undemocratic regimes that operated and are operating market economy. That is to say, there are many capitalist states' today that are totalitarian, far from being democratic.

It will be recalled that years of military rule in Nigeria witnessed free market and this is the case with many authoritarian regimes in Africa. The same goes with theocratic/monarchical governments in the Middle East, which essentially have market economies. In fact, the most brutal military regime, ever, in Nigeria i.e. General Sani Abacha's regime (1993-1998) held sway with power under the free market economy. Does it follow therefore that the triumph of capitalism in Africa and Middle East means the triumph of democracy or that these free market economies are democratic systems? Thus, it is pertinent to ask the questions as queried by Bhagwati, that does democracy require a market economy. Or can a market economy exist when democracy does not? (Bhagwati, 1992)

In the first place, it is easy to answer that democracy requires a market economy because democracy flourishes with political dissent. But then, dissent cannot altogether be ruled out even in a draconian regime. However, the cost of dissent is immense when those who hold political authority also control the means of production. Thus keeping one's job or even sheer economic survival requires conformity (Bhagwati, 1992). This is what is known as self-censorship. And in Nigeria where the state and its agencies employ over 70% of the Nigerian workers, how many people are left to dissent even under free market?

Secondly, we are reminded of recent models of successful market-economic development under essentially undemocratic regimes in East Asia. This is why Bhagwati continues with the

question, is democracy sustainable if it will discourage economic development? And this question is absolutely pertinent in Nigeria because there is no evidence of rapid economic growth under democratic regimes in Nigeria, 1960-65, 1979-83 and 1999-2012. Thus, failure to generate growing incomes in developing countries would certainly threaten and undermine democracy by fostering or exacerbating harsh and divisive conditions of zero - sum social conflict (Bhagwati, 1992)

However, if we accept democracy to mean popular power, a kind of liberating ideology or the ideology of people empowerment, then we must agree that certain conditions are inimical to its sustenance, such conditions like ignorance and poverty. In other words, the eradication or mitigation of ignorance and poverty become central to the efforts at instituting democracy. And to do that is not to encourage a winner takes all situation or encourage the pillage of the economy by agents of the state. All efforts in Nigeria should be geared towards empowering the people, so as to give them popular power i.e. people democracy.

It should however be noted that popular power is not in the interest of the capitalist class because it has always threatened their interests and position. These interests were the interests that were embodied in the European bourgeoisie, which made the bourgeoisie to redefine democracy and replace it with liberal democracy (Ake, 1992). Thus, democracy became class democracy precisely because the European bourgeoisie was afraid of people's power and so they redefined democracy in order to de-radicalize it and complexities its meaning (Ake, 1992).

Bourgeoisie opposition to democracy was ignited by the radical democratic egalitarianism of the French Revolution. Thus, bourgeoisie redefinition of democracy was not so much a political morality as an economic convenience (Ake, 1992).

Again, as argued by Ake,

*The type of political association that would be voluntarily instituted by people who are attentive to their interests as property owners is liberal democracy a regime that essentially bans the state from acting as an entrepreneur, makes the state financially dependent on its subjects, holds the right to property inviolable, places emphasis on the individual rather than the collectivity, and values the rule of law. This, no doubt is markedly democratic, but it is not democracy (Ake, 1992).*

It is fashionable for scholars in U.S.A and some other western countries to write off socialism and see capitalism or the market economy as the only path to both development and democracy. To them, the choice is obvious and it is the free market which must be followed. And this is precisely because whenever economic growth is taken as the only barometer, it becomes easy to have developmentalism on the side of such scholars. In that sense therefore, shall we recommend repressive and draconian regimes to all nations, in so far as such repression is aimed at economic growth? For example, in Nigeria, critics of the government of the Fourth Republic 1999 – 2013 argue that the draconian regime of General Sani Abacha facilitated growth more than the Fourth Republic regimes because the Nigerian currency, the Naira, exchanged for the dollar at ₦85 to \$1 during Abacha regime while between 1999-2013, the Naira went down to ₦160 - \$1. Also, power generation fell to all low level of 2500mw during the fourth republic for a population of 160 millions. Today in Nigeria, not only has production capacity fallen to 30%, the economy is generator driven. And, in spite of the whopping sum of billions of petrol dollar Nigeria has realized in the last one decade, the Minister of State for power declared that at least 120 million Nigerians, out of a population of 160 million, do not have access to electricity (cited in Fadakinte, 2013).

Thus, Przeworski argues that the virtues of the markets are being called strongly into question by recent developments in neo classical economic theory (Przeworski, 1992).

For example

*The United States is a stagnant economy in which real wages has been constant for more than a decade and the real income of the poorer 40 percent of the population has declined. It is an inhumane society in which 11.5 percent of the population some*

*28 million people, including 20 percent of all children lives in poverty. It is the oldest democracy on earth, but has one of the lowest voter participation rates in the democratic world, and the highest per capita prison population in the world. Is this the model to follow? (Przeworski, 1992)*

This is why Przeworski says that if a Martian were asked to pick the most efficient and humane economic system on earth, it would certainly not choose the countries that rely most on markets. The notion that the market by itself can efficiently allocate scarce resources is purely contradictory and the present state of free market theory does not support the conclusion that competitive markets are sufficient, either to allocate resources efficiently or to generate desirable and humane economic growth (Przeworski, 1992).

And as argued by Millibard

*A crucial item in the indictment of a capitalist social order is precisely that it is unable to make the best use of the immense resources that capitalism has itself created. Despite these immense recourses, capitalist societies are marked by appalling poverty and unemployment, inferior collective services, insecurity, illiteracy, and alienation, all of which provide fertile ground for racist, xenophobic, and generally reactionary politics. In order words, capitalism produces a society in which democracy even in its shoddy capitalist version, is order permanent threat of erosion (Millibard, 1992).*

Thus, all the arguments about free market or capitalism being *sin qua num* to democracy only creates a gap in our comprehension of human sensibilities, values and worth. The brutalities of free market, which is devoid of the social essence of humanity, cannot be both the necessary and sufficient conditions for democracy. Of what values is a system, which leaves 90% of its people crippled economically? This is the ultimate outcome of market driven democracy, which unleashes poverty, crime, prostitution and drains all the milk of humanness in the citizens. It is also the logical outcome of liberal democracy, the capitalist ideology of the legitimation of class interests and domination

Democracy does not mean formal political institutions and activities, elected parliament etc alone. It also requires a civil society which is attained at the point when there is a breakdown of the traditional face-to-face values of the primordial relationship, preceded by the growth of urbanization, atomization, impersonal, specialized but universal society, mediated by a faceless state system, a new monetary system being the primary medium and standard of exchange (Fadakinte, 2013).

What is needed to be emphasized is that the arrival of a society into the civil society (civil society as a social value) is a strong condition for a stable democratic system. In Nigeria, what is open to debate is not whether Nigeria is already in the civil society because this is patently and obviously not so, but what is to be debated is the method, the preferred method that will guide and accelerate socio-economic development that will quicken the march of Nigeria to civil society. And given the present under developed and unproductive economy and the inverted process of capitalist state formation, shall we continue to delude ourselves that the capitalist system and liberal democracy are the only way to economic development. Or shall we continue to succumb to international pressures in practicing liberal democracy and throwing our country into perpetual state of political and economic crises, with no prospect of improving the life of the majority of our people? This is because in the present day Nigeria, with the brutalities of market economy, very weak, unstable and unproductive economy, it is unlikely that the arrival of the country into the civil society is in sight.

Thus, Nigeria's backwardness, which engenders poverty and election crisis, can only be solved if we brace up and pursue a transformation, the transformation that will be an economic shift from capitalism to socialism.



## **Socialist Democracy and Elections**

We have noted that Nigeria is a creation of a colonizing power, which means that the voluntary consent of the constituent ethnic groups was neither sought nor obtained. Thus, a socialist arrangement will usher in a constitution for a truly multi-ethnic or linguistic affinity and to the interests of minority ethnic groups, in order to guarantee harmony among the diverse ethnic groups and political stability within the society (Awolowo, 1997).

It is against this background that the socialist system is another means of solving election crisis in Nigeria. This is so precisely because the socialist arrangement will devolve power in the hands of the people aimed at building a new society which essentially is through an economic and social process.

The first step in this regard will be to organize production where society as a whole gets the benefit of the products and this means that society must own the means of production which under capitalism are privately owned.

Thus, socialist democracy can be seen as the system of individual rights, duties and freedom as guaranteed by the state and laid down in the states' constitution which is aimed at creating all the opportunities and conditions necessary to ensure the individual's harmonious development. With socialism, therefore, democracy will be predicated on its social essence and not on the arrangement of its formal judicial characteristics which often amount to the outward aspect of political life as the case under liberal democracy (Belov, 1998).

On that basis, people will jointly own social property and jointly participate in the social production process, which will make all people to be equal, and their relations will be based on the principles of comradeship, cooperation and mutual assistance (Lane, 1976; Bikkenin, 1978; Gamble and Watton, 1976). This is unlike liberal democracy where capitalism makes family and social relations to be dominated by the needs for private property, which militate against the expression of true love (Lane, 1976; Bikkenin, 1978; Gamble and Watton, 1976). Consequently, in such circumstances, election is conducted with bitter struggles under a tense situation and it is carried out as though it were warfare.

It has been argued that a general principle can be adopted that will gradually absorb the people into the socialist network partly by inducement of better opportunities and partly by the pressure of taxation. Or a different arrangement can be employed with the main stages as follows:

- a) The Government entering into contracts with privately owned enterprises, buying their products at agreed prices.
- b) Joint ownership of particular enterprises by the capitalist owners and the state - the capitalists taking a fixed proportion of the profit;
- c) Joint ownership of whole sections of industry or trade by the capitalists and the state, the capitalist taking a fixed percentage (normally 5 per cent) on the agreed value of their assets;
- d) Full state ownership (Burns, 1966).

The immediate aim of the socialist arrangement will be the establishment or the creation of a form of people's power, which will weaken the grip of imperialism and neocolonialism, which will also discourage Nigerians of the present blind and fierce struggle for access to state power for economic benefits, which results in election rigging, crisis and violence. This aim and its strategies will form the agenda for a new society that will be truly Nigerian and genuinely national and democratic where there will be discipline, cohesion, freedom, equality, leadership, genuine human right, rule of law, procedure, patriotism and constitutionalism. It is under a socialist system that the internal contradictions of capitalism in form of the exploitative forces of relations of production can be resolved. After that, there will be a transfer of political and economic power to those who produce the surplus value within the economy i.e. the people.

Under this arrangement, the need for politics in the sense of making social arrangements or mobilizing people and resources still continues. For, the state continues as an institution and the party exists but only as an organ which leads the people. There will be no form of coercive rule such as the type in a capitalist system where the ruling class exercises direct rule and control with absolute power in terms of their control of the means of production, thereby making the contest for political power to be fierce. What will emerge will be people's power and popular participation that will engender true democracy, based on social and economic equality.

As argued by Millard;

*The socialist democracy would embody many of the features of liberal democrac., including the rule of law, the separation of powers, civil liberties, political pluralism, and a vibrant civil society, but it would give them much more effective meaning. It would seek democratization of the state and of society at all level. In short, it would give the notion of citizenship a partner and larger meaning than it could ever have in a class divided society. Socialist democracy would constitute an extension of capitalist democracy, and at the same time a break with it (Millard, 1992).*

The Socialist System will therefore unite and consolidate the people, guide their actions, elaborate the aims and objectives of their collective endeavour and define their attitudes towards other groups, social, and ethnic in the society. Hence, the expression of class interest will no longer be necessary, nor will so many competing economic pressures exist. These are the factors that complicate elections. With this arrangement, the concept of popular sovereignty, which makes the people as a whole supreme, will transcend liberal democracy, which withholds power from individuals through the representative system and rejects the notion of the people as a whole. Again, this supports democratic theory, which specifies that people should govern themselves and that the purpose of government is the good of the people with the following central ideas:

- a) Supremacy of the people
- b) The consent of the governed as the basis of legitimacy.
- c) The rule of law: peaceful methods of conflict resolutions
- d) The value of the individual as rational, moral, active citizen
- e) Equal civil rights for all individuals ( Goodwin, 1982)

Therefore a change from the liberal and capitalist democracy to the socialist alternative will alter people's ideas about elections and democracy, since elections will no longer be a zero sum game. The phenomenon of violence and crisis at election time will therefore be eliminated because elections will no longer be seen as winner takes all, a zero sum game which gives the victor total power over the loser and consigns the latter to a state of socio-economic subjugation

We have argued that the struggle for resources is a factor responsible for election crises and therefore as long as capitalism is the mode of production, in Nigeria, with its attendant greed, naked-self-interest as the prime and main motivation in the society, so shall the society continue to wallow in the problems associated with aggressive pursuit of resources. Thus, because of the fact that individuals strive on their own to solve their basic primary problems under capitalism, the system will continue to be a fruitful source of injustice, discontent, strife, moral weakness and degeneracy with wide spread poverty and distress (Awolowo, 1968).

For a developing country like Nigeria with the capitalist mode of production and the above mentioned vices, election crises become absolutely inevitable. As Harrison argued, corruption contributes to mass poverty because whenever power holders and policy makers become rich through corruption the policies they make are less likely to threaten wealth or alleviate poverty, and through corruption, political power is used to win economic power (Harrison, 1987). Consequently

in Nigeria, political and economic inequalities interlock and frustrate the adoption of the principle of equality as professed by liberal democratic ideology.

But a socialist arrangement will establish the standards for economic behaviour and social objective. It will set the standard of human ends which economic forces must serve. It will prescribe the methods by which these forces may be controlled directed and channeled for the attainment of the ends in view. Hence, the economic forces at work will be brought under complete control, coordinated, tamed and humanized for the benefit of all. The main virtue of the socialist arrangement will therefore be grounded firmly and immovable in mutual love (Awolowo, 1968). Thus, the socialist arrangement which will be devoid of naked self-interest, greed and the gross injustices arising from the forces of supply and demand and the alienation of man from the product of his labour, the incidence of election crises will be repulsive to the people.

A socialist arrangement will therefore promote comprehensive development of democracy in form of enhancing the power of the working people and the mass of the populace in general. And this is possible because the political system will then include all the organizations which participate and wield influence in the formation of state organs. Thus the system will be made up of such organizations which constitute the political system, as described above, which will include workers and the masses, men and women. Again the political party in liberal democracy is a politically organized group of people which reflects the interest of certain classes or even sections of society. Thus the more fragmented a liberal society is and coupled with the existence of a multi-party system the more irreconcilable the contradictions or antagonism within the society and the stronger the centrifugal and centripetal forces therein. This has been the lot of Nigeria since independence.

Thus, the socialist arrangement will solve the problem of election crisis by:

- a) A redistribution of political power away from the regime and in favour of the people.
- b) A reorientation of public policy away from special interests towards common interest. This will mean, in effect, taking the interests of the subordinate classes as the measure of all things.
- c) Accountability of power to those over whom it is exercised.
- d) Effective popular participation in decision-making at all levels.
- e) Reduction of the economic rewards of political power. Thus, it will entail a shift from state owners up to social owners up of the means of production.
- f) Collective self-reliance among the people and the advancement of collective struggle towards a more meaningful life (Ihonvbere, 1989).

However, Ake argues that there are strong objective forces against the socialist arrangement because the above characteristics are largely contrary to the interest of those in power.

This brings us to the method with which we can achieve socialism. Here, we shall quote Andrew Hacker and Obafemi Awolowo.

To Hacker:

*Every real revolution is a social one, in that it brings a new class to power and allows it to remodel society in its own image" ... The old ruling class will not give up its power peacefully or voluntarily, privileged status in the new society. If change is to be significant, then bloodshed will be the rule rather than the exception. "Force is the midwife of every old society pregnant with a new one" ... Only by civil war will the proletariat be able to wrest control over the instruments from the bourgeoisie! (Hacker, 1971)*

But Awolowo argues that:

*For Africa, therefore, socialism can be introduced by democratic processes and the building of Africa capitalists as well as the social control of the means of production*

*can respectively be checked and brought about by laws, enacted by the people's elected parliament. The techniques of socialism are planning and social discipline. These two are explicit from the concepts of socialism.*

*It is not difficult to effect public ownership of production. But it requires meticulous planning to operate them efficiently. It also requires meticulous planning to control and direct the forces of supply and demand, to provide equal opportunity for all members of society for the full development and full employment of their talents, and to ensure that all those who have contributed to social and economic development get their just and equitable shares. It is superfluous to add that, both in its formulation and execution, planning demands discipline on the part of the entire populace. (Awolowo, 1977)*

### **Highlights of a Socialist Democracy in Nigeria.**

#### **Electoral System**

We however feel that election should be a little restricted, not because there has been any prove of a positive relationship between illiterate voters and election crisis, but going by the history of the development of the democratic principle of election, universal suffrage was not introduced in the developed democracies of today before such societies had attained a higher level of economic development, with a dominant economic class in control of state apparatus.

Critics, who are dogmatic about the Western idea of democracy may not be comfortable with this position, because, to them, democracy is only meaningful when all and sundry vote at election time. Although democracy, as it is being practiced in the West, today, may require all adults to vote, it is extremely important for us to understand that the gradual development of voting right in *paripassu* with the process of the consolidation of a ruling class, is a major and extremely critical factor in ensuring peaceful elections and guaranteeing stable democracy in the West.

All stable democracies in the Western world introduced universal suffrage when such societies already had a stable dominant class. Indeed, the developed democracies of today did not begin by simultaneously democratizing the political and the economic. We need to restrict voting because as at now, class structure is just beginning to crystallize in Nigeria. Hence, the flood gate should not be opened. We are therefore recommending that the minimum qualifications for voting should be 21 years of age and the Senior Secondary School Certificate or its equivalent or a minimum age of 30 for those without the Senior Secondary School Certificate.

First, this recommendation is based on the fact that, a voter should be aware of the implication of his votes, he should value it so that he can use it well. We feel that a proper understanding of the vote will be obtained by the acquisition of a basic educational attainment of the senior secondary school or the attainment of maturity at the age of 30.

Second, for the principle of rights, privileges and duties of citizens to be meaningful, a minimum level of educational attainment and maturity at the adult level ought to be some requirements of citizens. It has been argued that although educated citizens are not necessarily the best ones, effective government certainly needs well informed citizens. Thus, the free election of leaders by the rank and file, presupposes that the latter possess the competence and requisite knowledge for the recognition and appreciation of the competence of leaders (Michels, 1964). Thus, until 1949, holders of a university degree in Britain had an extra vote, and this is considered necessary in order that the voter can inform himself of all issues which might help him decide how to vote (Rodee, Christol, Anderson and Green, 1983).

Third, given the limited facilities and infrastructures for conducting elections in Nigeria, and the huge sum for conducting a general election of universal suffrage, we need to start on a small scale until the time when we shall have the facilities that will enable us cope with large number of the population.

Fourth, where the right to vote is extended quickly and suddenly to all citizens, the result is likely to be unstable democracy (Leeds, 1975). In Western Europe, from feudal times to the modern period, the right to vote has spread gradually from the nobility to owners of large property holdings, to males, then women before the introduction of universal suffrage. For example, for over a century of democracy, suffrage was extended to women in Canada in 1917 (Quebec in 1940) in USA in 1920, Britain in 1928, Switzerland in 1971 (in some cantons until 1981). (Rodee, Christol, Anderson and Green, 1983).

But in these countries today democracy implies universal suffrage, the right of all citizens, male and female, rich and poor to vote in elections. Thus, to us in Nigeria and in the developing countries, particularly in Africa, it is absolutely important to note that universal suffrage and the development of democracy was adopted gradually by Western Countries.

### **Party System**

Democracy is inconceivable without organization (Michels, 1964) and perhaps the most important organization in this sense is the political party, which appears to be a viable instrument, for the generation of a collective will. Thus, political parties are the most important institutions of political mobilization in the context of politics which reflects the fact that government is no longer a product of hereditary elite or of an oligarchy but rests on the mobilization of the masses. (Smith, 2009).

Today, in any society, a political party has become an instrument of governance and almost all societies have some sort of political system to link citizens to government, not the least with dictators who find that they need parties (Roskin, Cord, Medeins and Jones, 1997). Thus, the rise of political parties is indubitably one of the principal distinguishing marks of modern government (Schattschneider, 1942). A political party is therefore any group, however loosely organized, which seeks to elect governmental office holders under a given label (Epstein, 1967).

The roles and functions of political parties including those that can be described as parties in the developing societies have been variously documented (Coleman and Rusberg, 1964; LaPalombara and Weiner, 1966; Maurice Duverger, 1966; Richard, Sklar, 1983; Smith, B.C 2005; Peter Schroeder, 2004). However, suffice it to mention some critical functions of the party viz a medium of political recruitment, an instrument of granting legitimacy to a regime, a link between government and the people and an instrument for the aggregation of interests.

In Nigeria therefore, a one party of political system which is based on pluralist party organization with a pragmatic socialist ideology will be most appropriate in offering accountability based on the preference needs of the people. And this is our recommendation. This position is informed by the fact that the present day Nigeria is not a society, nay in the civil society as the people are in communities, who find fulfillment in tribal beliefs and values (culture) the culture that loathe a competition for power, based on zero sum game.

As earlier noted, there is an incohesive dominant class in Nigeria, being the result of colonialism that created a society with inverted process of capitalist formation. In addition, colonialism instituted the liberal ideology for a democracy which is quite alien to the Nigerian society. Thus, with bourgeoisie politics, played by factions of the dominant class, who maintain conflicting and antagonistic relationship because of the struggle for resources and property, a multiparty system, rather than integrating the people, separates them.

Consequently, Nigeria has had enough of wastages, pillage, corruption, violence and brigandage in power which is the result of a multiparty system that is more or less ethnic based. And the only way to redress this trend is to create a single – party political system, for consensus building in order to arrest the crisis of development faced by the country and stop the colossal waste of scarce resources on competitive elections that always end in crisis, chaos, violence and bloodshed. Also, the different political parties in Nigeria reflect Michael's description which says that in modern political life, aristocracy gladly presents itself in democratic guise, whilst the substance of democracy is

permeated with aristocratic form. Consequently, in the Nigerian society of today, the state of dependence which is the consequence of the existence of economic and social conditions renders the bourgeois capitalist democracy irrelevant to Nigeria (Michels, 1964).

Thus, a one-party system becomes most appropriate and can still be democratic because the party will represent all citizens since everyone has common needs and in most cases humans' basic interests are not too wide apart.

From the foregoing, it is our belief that a dominant class needs to emerge to institutionalize a hegemonic order and the hegemonic order will help erect the structures that will stabilize the state, provide the state with the capacity to cope with political strains and stresses which cannot be achieved with multi-party system in a free for all struggle for property (capitalism) Thus, election crisis and violence will be eliminated.

### **The Executive and the Legislature.**

The tiers of government will be as follows:

- Ward Council
- Local Government Council
- State Assembly
- Federal Assembly

Elections will be, first, into the Ward Council and from the Ward Council to the Local Government Council, then to the State Assembly and to the Federal Assembly. Each Ward will elect eleven candidates into the Ward Council. The Ward Council will election one candidate among themselves to the Local Government Council and the Local Government Council will elect one candidate among themselves into the State Assembly. The State Assembly will elect three candidates among themselves into the Federal Assembly and the Federal Assembly will elect the President and Vice- President. The Federal Assembly will be a uni-cameral one while each State Assembly will elect, among themselves, the Assembly officers.

By this arrangement, the colossal amount wasted on elections will stop, the violence ignited by political parties after election, will stop, and the huge amount paid to thousands of legislators and their aides across the country will stop. Also, this arrangement will accelerate the development of our society, stop the wastages on competitive party politics, quickly develop the institutions necessary for social transformation (education, etc), end the present crisis of governance and connect our government with the people (Schroeder, 2004).

A well elaborated socialist constitution will be done by constitutional experts, but we are convinced that the Socialist System will curb factional struggle, the type that produces election crisis. The new arrangement will be people oriented in policies that will make election crisis a meaningless exercise, reduce the aggressive struggle for wealth and resources which tear the dominant class into factions. It will lead to faster socio-economic progress as it will eliminate the propensities for individuals to go and stack millions of state revenue abroad. It will evolve a ruling class and erect enduring structures that will ensure stability for the society.

Thus,

*Through the disasters of the past years, we have gleaned some insight into what we are and what this has meant to us; we are clearer about what can be and about the problems and prospects of the major ideas and policies which have governed our lives. There cannot be many people on whom the consequences of the militarization of social life are completely lost. Nor can there be many who miss the harsh judgment of history of our development strategies, strategies which have left us, in some important respects, worse off than we were 20 years ago and which have increased our marginality in the global order (Ihonvbere, 1989).*

However, there is no doubt that beneficiaries of the present political arrangement, a volatile, corrupt and spoilt system especially those comprador and their foreign partners will disagree with this position, but it has been demonstrated that election crisis in Nigeria arises from the present inverted process of capitalist state formation and the existence of multi-party system, in the absence of a cohesive dominant class (state) to institutionalize hegemonic order. It therefore becomes imperative that the process has to be redressed in order to eliminate future occurrence of election crisis, stabilize the society, promote people centered development, and create meaningful life for all Nigerians, which will engender people democracy.

### **Conclusion**

Our aim in this paper is to argue that the capitalist democracy creates problems for the dominant class in Nigeria and by extension the whole society and therefore the socialist democracy is an alternative socio-political arrangement. And this is because the present free for all struggles for resources and property on the platform of the capitalist liberal democratic arrangement continues to accentuate dominant intra class bitter struggle for political power. Thus, the dominant class is unable to be united, with a common interest, to protect property and build a Nigerian state on strong and solid institutions, necessary for growing capitalism and conducting free and fair elections in a capitalist's liberal society.

In Nigeria, the state is the source of capital because the private sector is small and the market as a basis for the arrangement of production and distribution is weak consequently, an extensive state apparatus supports economic development making the state a key economic actor (Smith, 2009). Therefore, access to the state is an opportunity for economic benefits which creates a situation where political power is the most viable instrument for amassing wealth. Hence, elections under the capitalist free for all struggle for private property, is contested bitterly because the capitalist democracy makes elections a winner takes all contest.

It is against this background that the socialist alternative arrangement will make production to be arranged and carried out in the interest of the people as a whole (which is the source of peoples power) that will eliminate the organization of production in the interest of a few who reap and appropriate all the surplus from production. Thus, because the state, in Nigeria, is a means of economic power and therefore, access to the state is contested bitterly and election results are always followed by disputations, crisis, chaos, violence and bloodshed, which will be eliminated by the socialists' alternative arrangement.

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# The relationship between pre-service teachers' attitude to entrepreneurship and their entrepreneurial intention

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## **Abstract.**

Graduates unemployment has become a troublesome and thorny issue. The increased level of unemployed graduates in Nigeria has been blamed on the mismatch between educational output and the requirement of labour market. The basic assumption is that students are not prepared for the world of work. This study employed a descriptive research design to examine the relationship between pre-service teachers' attitude to entrepreneurship and their entrepreneurial intention. The sample comprised a stratified random sample of 280 pre-service teachers from the Department of Curriculum and Teaching, Faculty of Education, University of Calabar. Data were gathered using a questionnaire. The major findings of this study reveal that there is a significant relationship between attitude towards entrepreneurship and the intention on entrepreneurship among pre-service teachers. What is the direction of relationship?

**Key words:** Preservice teachers, attitude, entrepreneurship, entrepreneurial intention.

## **The Introduction**

Graduates unemployment has become a troublesome and thorny issue in Nigeria.. The increased level of unemployed graduates in Nigeria has been blamed on the mismatch between educational output and the requirement of labour market. The basic assumption is that students are not prepared for the world of work.

A national survey of 10,000 school leavers to determine their employment status showed that over 70% of them were unemployed (Federal Ministry of Education, 2006). Experts have reported the cost and dangers of youth unemployment both to the individual and the society. The level of employment has continued to increase and the recent global economic recession has further increased unemployment in a large scale.

With a national unemployment rate of more than 21%, there is urgent need to take steps to improve the creation of jobs especially among graduates. Unemployment is at the heart of poverty in Nigeria as the 37<sup>th</sup> largest economy in the world.

Government has proved incapable of creating jobs to cater for the over 3 million that join the labour market every year. Nigeria has about 90 million people between age bracket 21 – 40 and able to work, but about 70 million of them have no gainful employment. According to him, an unemployment issue is a very critical one and can be very catastrophic on the person and the country.

The minister of Trade and Investment put the unemployment rate at 14 – 16% while the Finance Minister put it at 21%. The overall conclusion here is that Nigeria has a very high rate of unemployment compared to many developing and developed economy that has one digit.

The number of graduates that join the market yearly is on the increase far beyond the current demand for them by labour employers. Basically, this has been blamed more often on the disconnection between the skills possessed by the graduates and what is needed by the employers. You see now what I was saying? What is the difference between this sentence and the second sentence in the first paragraph? There should be a shift from academic qualification that no longer guarantee employment offer on graduation, to the development of skills and positive attitude towards the dynamic global knowledge driven economy. One of the effective ways of reducing unemployment suggested by economists is self employment. Entrepreneurship (How is self employment linked to entrepreneurship? The reader should be guided to understand that both are related . Otherwise you cannot just jump from self employment to entrepreneurship) has been acknowledged by many studies as a solution to the troublesome issue of graduates' unemployment (Salmah, 2006; Othman & Ishak, 2009; Norasmah, 2004). Most economies today are driven by private investors and there is a gradual shift to developing future entrepreneurs and this has been reflected in the University's curriculum . Infact, this has become a common practice across the world. With this development, graduates are therefore expected not only to utilized the opportunity to explore the vast field of entrepreneurship, but be stimulated on a choice of a career (Collins & Jones 2004; Quince & Whittaker, 2003).

However, entrepreneurial education programme, when properly articulated, improves entrepreneurial attitude and overall intention to become an entrepreneur (Souitaris et al,2007); and identification of entrepreneurial opportunities (Shepherd & DeTienne, 2005). Studies further show that improving students entrepreneurial efficacy enables them to weather through challenges to achieve entrepreneurial goals (Shane, Locke & Collins,2003), and increase their intention to become an entrepreneur (Segal, Borgia & Schoenfeld, 2005).

Education plays a very fundamental role in enhancing students' entrepreneurial efficacy through their involvement in various entrepreneurial activities ; thereby increasing their desirability to not only venture into self employment, but understand the merits and values of doing so (Segal, Borgia & Schoenfeld, 2005). This is the relationship I expected you to put forward, when you open your discussion on entrepreneurship. Basically, entrepreneurial studies are very useful in encouraging and providing theoretical and practical support for students to start-up their own business.

### **Statement of the problem**

Entrepreneurship skill was recently introduced (where? At TTC?, College of Education? or University? And in which country?) as a compulsory general studies for all students including pre-service teachers. The basic intention of the introduction is to equip the students with the knowledge of how to become self-employed after graduating from school.

Luthje and Franke (2003) suggest that it is not clear whether personality traits or contextual founding conditions drive students' career decision towards self employment. Teacher education prepares young undergraduates for a teaching career. How do these undergraduates perceive entrepreneurship skills? Several factors that govern the choice of entrepreneurship, have been grouped into two broad groups : the push factors and the pull factors (Othman & Shak, 2009). The push factors include unemployment, job dissatisfaction, failure to obtain a promotion, being fired, economic downturn, and survival pressures. The pull factors include the need for freedom, role model, availability of capital skill and entrepreneurial capability, economic situation; trying new things, experience and an individual's early preparation while being employed.

Other studies have identified the influence of demographic factors such as age and gender in motivating entrepreneurship interest (Wilson, Kickul & Marlino, 2007; Gu'rol & Atsan, 2006) and self efficacy (Ajzen, 2002; Wilson, Kickul & Marlino, 2007).

Career theorists have speculated that individual's own attitude is the most important determinant in choosing a career and therefore advocated attitudinal option. Studies which studies? have shown that negative perception to a career entrepreneurship is derived mainly from graduates' lack of exposure to the different career fields.

Fundamentally, attitude has been identified as a major factor in graduate entrepreneurial career choice with major focus on attitudinal factors that influence confidence, enthusiasm, inclination, and aspiration towards entrepreneurship.

With the dynamic nature of job market and economic change, the skills acquired by graduates may yet suffer 'future shock' and suddenly become obsolete before graduation. The basic challenge therefore is to develop in our graduates, positive attitude towards the evolving and increasing complex job market(Othman and Ishak, 2009).

Pre-service teachers will graduate and expectedly get jobs at various school levels and they are expected to be able to teach entrepreneurship.(Do we have entrepreneurship at all levels of education? If yes, then you have not mention it anywhere in this paper) At the Universal basic level, entrepreneurship teaching in schools involve fostering in the pupils personal qualities such as creativity, spirit of initiative and independence that are essential ingredients to the development of an entrepreneurial attitude that would be very useful throughout their life (European Commission, 2002). In addition, the teachers are expected to raise awareness of the students about self-employment as a viable option. It is important therefore to assess the attitude of these pre-service teachers in addition to determining their entrepreneurial intention.

### Research question

What is the relationship between pre-service teachers' attitude to entrepreneurship and their entrepreneurial intention?

### Methodology

The study employed a descriptive research design. The sample comprised 280 pre-service teachers randomly selected No! see my comments on this in the abstract from the Department of Curriculum and Teaching, Faculty of Education, University of Calabar. Stratified random sampling was used in the study. The curriculum and teaching students' population was stratified into sub-population arranged according to the various units. Since there are fourteen units in the sample space, fourteen strata representing each unit were identified. From each stratum, twenty students were randomly selected to make up a sample of 280.

Data were gathered using a questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed using the five point Likert scale. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. Part A asked for the background information of the student while Part B consists of 10 items that measured the pre-service teachers' attitude towards entrepreneurship and their entrepreneurship intention.

### Findings and Recommendations

Table 1 illustrates that pre-service teachers in general have positive attitude towards entrepreneurship.

**Table1: Result of Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis of the relationship between entrepreneurial intention of pre-service students and their attitude towards entrepreneurship**

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Variable	$\sum x$	$\sum x^2$	$\sum xy$	r-value
	$\sum y$	$\sum y^2$		

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Students' attitude	6077	149507	280353	0.251
Students' Intention	11543	550081		

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$P \geq 0.05$ ,  $r = 0.138$

The major finding of this study reveals that there is a significant relationship between attitude towards entrepreneurship and the intention on entrepreneurship among pre-service teachers. Binks et al (2006) noted that understanding and developing entrepreneurship requires a combination of research and teaching effort.

Basically, a change of attitudes towards entrepreneurship education is very crucial to its adoption and adaption into the interest of students' career choice. The school plays an important role and should be responsible for the deployment of entrepreneurship especially towards self employment. The pre-service teacher must be well equipped if they are to fulfill this role within the school.

The teacher education curriculum should encourage the education and training that provide opportunities to acquire skills needed to set up and run an enterprise. Such education and training should stimulate learners' skills and spirit of enterprise throughout their training programme.

The promotion of positive attitude towards entrepreneurship can be enhanced through:

- Specific learning on how to create a business e.g. setting up a vocational school
- Integrating life history of role model of successful entrepreneur
- Raising awareness of the presence teacher of opportunities that abound in self employment.

According to Behaviour Theory Model attitude summarize an individual's feeling toward his or her own behavior and partly regulates the subsequent behavior. Teacher education is increasingly been called upon to respond to the many global challenges and changes. As the operators of the school curriculum, teachers need to be aware of these changes and future challenges. Entrepreneurial studies are seen as the veritable means to overcome unemployment and improve the overall economic and social development among our youths.

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# Factors That Influenced Marketing Ethics among the Academicians

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## **Abstract**

The main purpose of this research is to determine the factors that influenced the academicians marketing ethics. Marketing ethics is about moral evaluations of decisions and actions as right or wrong on the basis of commonly accepted principles of behavior in marketing. A survey of academicians was conducted to determine the factors that are related to the academicians' marketing ethics using these dimensions: Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance and Professional Values. From 150 questionnaires distributed to the academicians in Public University in Malaysia, 124 respondents were collected. Data were analyzed using several methods such as descriptive statistics, t-test, correlation, regression and one way Anova. The findings showed that Power Distance and Professional Values were the factors that influence academicians' marketing ethics. Further analysis showed that demographic factors such as age, gender, years of working experience, academic qualification do not have any influence on academicians' marketing ethics. Since the result of the study showed that Power Distance and Professional Values are the main factors that influence the marketing ethics of academicians, the management of the college would perhaps look into methods and ways of cultivating the professionalism among academicians in order for them to possess a good marketing ethics.

**Keywords:** Influenced, Marketing Ethics, Training, Continuing Education Academicians.

## Introduction

Much has been discussed about marketing ethics and the major factors that influences one's perceived and practiced marketing ethics. Borkowski (1998) revealed that both personal cultural value and professional value had the biggest impact towards marketing ethics and ethical decision making. Sirgy, *et.al.* (2006) suggested it is important to analyze how personal cultural values and professional values underlie the perceived marketing ethics of academician. The reason academicians are chosen is because there has been no prior research done on this group and statement claims that there will be a significant differences between the ethical behavior between nonstudent marketing practitioner and the academicians.

Yoo (1998) has suggested that for future research directions, researcher can focus on researching business professionals and academicians marketing ethics. In this research, we will investigate the factors which is measured at individual level, that affects the marketing ethics among the academicians. This research will also identify another strong value that has the same impact on marketing ethics which is the personal cultural and professional cultural value as being identified by Singhapakdi, *et.al.* (2001). The purpose of this research are to determine whether gender, age, years of working experience, academic qualification, collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and professional values influence the academician's marketing ethics.

## Literature Review

### Marketing Ethics

Ethics is an important element in marketing decisions making. Dibb. *et.al.* (2001) stated that ethics as "relate to moral evaluations of decisions and actions as right or wrong on the basis of commonly accepted principles of behavior" and marketing ethics "are the moral principles that define right or wrong behavior in marketing". Vitell. *et.al.* (1986) defined marketing ethics as "inquiry into the nature and grounds of moral judgments, standards, and rules of conduct relating to marketing decisions and marketing situations". According to Yoo (2002), "marketing is considered as the most unethical of business functions and most marketing practices have been criticized as such".

Greenman (1999) came to agreed that an individual will apply ethical guidelines based on different moral philosophies or ideologies when making decisions involving ethical problems. Dibb. *et.al.* (2001) has determined three factors that interact to determine ethical decision in marketing which are individual factors, organization relationship and opportunity. For individual factors, moral philosophies are principle or rule that individual use to determine appropriate behavior. The more people are exposed to unethical activity in the organization environment, the more likely they are to be unethical themselves. This relates to the organization relationship which directly refers to the cultural value of an organization.

### Collectivism

Collectivism pertains to people who "from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (Dunfee, *et.al.* 1999). Collectivist is likely to act as members of the groups rather than individuals. The collectivists prefer to emphasize "we" rather than "I". While individualists pursue self-interests, individual expression, and prefer loose ties between individuals in a society and organizations as compared to more formal ties (Bodkin and Stevenson 2006). Collectivists are more likely to strive for group success rather than personal achievement and they tend to adopt the ideological identity of their authorities (Beltramini. *et. al.* 1985). As collectivists are vulnerable to in-group influences and loyal to in-group norms, they are expected to consider marketing norms that are prevalent within their marketing in-group.

Collectivists value the in-group's opinions and are willing to make a joint decision with their in-group members. Hence, collectivists may be more likely to stick to organizational codes of



ethics even at the expense of personal interests since the welfare and goals of the group are of primary concern, individualists, on the other hand, may be more likely to follow their own personal codes of ethics. Consequently, collectivists care about the owners and stockholders, consumers, business partners, and other employees because they want to build harmony with related group (Vitell, Nwachukwu, and Barnes, 1993). Therefore, collectivists are likely to consider marketing ethics that assert protection of such stakeholders.

### **Uncertainty Avoidance**

Dibb *et. al.* (2001) stated that uncertainty avoidance as “the degree to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, which leads them to support beliefs promising certainty and to maintain institutions protecting conformity”. Singhapakdi.*et. al.* (1999) cited that individuals who have high uncertainty avoidance are more concerned with security in life, feel a greater need for consensus and written rules, and are intolerant of deviations from standard practices in contrast to individuals with low uncertainty avoidance. The people with strong uncertainty avoidance follow norms rigidly, whereas those with weak uncertainty avoidance are flexible.

Since those people with strong uncertainty avoidance will consider norms positively, which reduces ambiguity among various activities, procedures, and behaviors, therefore they need to control the environment, events, and situations. Thus, as with power distance, this could lead individuals who are high in uncertainty avoidance to engage in questionable actions in the belief that it was best for the company.

### **Power Distance**

According to Singhapakdi *et. al.* (1991) power distance is the degree to which the members of a group or society accept the fact “that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally”. In contrast to individuals with low levels of power distance, individuals with high levels of power distance accept the inequality of power, perceive differences between superiors and subordinates, are reluctant to disagree with superiors and believe that superiors are entitled to privileges. People with large power distance show greater reliance on centralization and formalization of authority, greater tolerance for lack of autonomy, and acceptance of inequalities in power. Also, they accept a power hierarchy, tight control over their behaviors, vertical top-down communication, and even discrimination.

Vitell.*et.al.* (2003) suggested that people of large power distance are likely to obey their superiors and follow more formal norms rather than their peers and informal norms. In contrast, people of small power distance listen more on their peers and informal norms. This implies that individuals with a high power distance may place their companies’ interests ahead of their own. In some cases, this could lead such individuals to engage in questionable actions in the belief that it was best for the company.

### **Professional Values**

Singhapakdi *et. al.* (1993) defined professional values as “values relating to one’s professional conduct that are commonly shared by the members of a particular profession.” Gunz (1998) reviewed professional values as: “It consists of those morally permissible standards of conduct each member of a group wants the others to follow even in their following them would mean he/she too has to follow them.” According to the social learning theory, an individual would develop behaviors, values, and norms for a profession through professional socialization. Another approach, developmental theory suggests that individual moral behavior is a result of how one understands the situations and reasons.

## **Methodology**

### **Research Design**

A quantitative methodology was used in this study in purpose to understand and describe the dependant variable. By analyzing the dependant variables, it is possible to find answers or solution to a research problem. To further analyze the dependant variable and to enable us to thoroughly understand it, data collected from questionnaires need to be quantified and measured, together with the independent variables that play an important role in affecting it.

### **Population/Sample**

The population for this study was academicians from various universities and higher learning institutions in Malaysia. The sample of this study was approximately 124 respondents and selected by randomly.

### **Instrument**

The questionnaire developed for the purpose of this study consists of two parts. In the first part, the respondent's demographic profiles were asked such as gender, age, race, years of working experiences and academic qualifications. The second part is consists of 48 questions. The entire questions were based on the dimension of personal and professional values underpinnings. To measure the personal cultural value, the questionnaire was adopted from Yoo et.al, (2001) and to measure professional value the questionnaire was were adopted from Singhapakdi & Vitell (1993). Marketing ethics consists of twenty four (24) questions adopted from Vitell et.al, (1993).

### **Data Analysis**

This study used both descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze the data and address the research questions: What are the factors that influenced the academician marketing ethic. Data were analyzed using several methods such as descriptive statistics (frequencies and means), T-test was used to determine the relationship between gender and marketing ethic. ANOVA test conducted to signifies that marketing ethics do not differ between age, years of working experience and academic qualification. Correlations test was used to proves that all personal and professional values has relationship with marketing ethic at all sorts of level (low, moderate and high). Regereession test was conducted to determine the independent variable that influence the marketing ethic.

## **Discussion of Findings**

### **Demographic**

From the descriptive statistics, 64 (51.2%) are female while 60 (48.0%) are male. 45 (36.1%) age between 36 to 40 years old, 31 (25.1%) who are between 31 to 35 years old, 23(18.9%) are between 25 to 30 years old and 25 (19.9%) are those 40 years old and above. 48 (39.0%) had a working experience below 5 years, 21 (26.0%) those who have 6 to 10 years of working experience and 50(40.0%) had a working experience more than 10 years. 84(68.0%) had a master degree, 27 (22%) hold a PhD and only 13 (10.0%) hold a first degree qualification.

### **Hypothesis Testing**

**H1: There are no relationships between demographic factors with academicians marketing ethic.**

**Table 1 T-test between gender and marketing ethics**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Difference	t	Significant
Male						
60	4.321	0.2134		0.5232	0.654	0.542
Female			64	4.176	0.2710	

The level of significant is at 0.542 is very much greater than the acceptable of 0.05. Therefore, the gender does not make an impact on academicians marketing ethics.

**Table 2 One way ANOVA between age, years of working experience and academic qualifications and marketing ethics**

F	Significant	
<b>Age</b>	<b>1.21</b>	<b>0.223</b>
<b>Working experience</b>	<b>0.87</b>	<b>0.479</b>
<b>Academic qualification</b>	<b>0.35</b>	<b>0.521</b>

The age factor analysis shows, F value is at 1.21 with significant value of 0.223. F value for years of working is at 0.87 ( $r = 0.479$ ), and F value for academic qualifications is at 0.35 ( $r = 0.521$ ). The level of significant is very much greater than the acceptable of 0.05. Therefore, the age, working experience and academic qualification does not make an impact on academicians marketing ethics.

**H2: There are no relationships between collectivism, uncertainty avoidance and power distance with the academicians marketing ethics.**

**Table 3 Correlations between Personal cultural value and academicians marketing ethics**

	Pearson Correlation( r )	Significant
<b>Collectivism</b>	<b>-0.063</b>	<b>0.421</b>
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance</b>	<b>0.066</b>	<b>0.320</b>
<b>Power Distance</b>	<b>0.615</b>	<b>0.003</b>

We can conclude that:

- i. Collectivism and academicians marketing ethics are not related where  $r = -0.063$ , and  $p = 0.421$ .
- ii. Uncertainty avoidance also not related with academicians marketing ethics where  $r = 0.066$  and  $p = 0.320$ .
- iii. Power distance and academicians marketing ethics are related with a moderate relationships where  $r = 0.615$  and  $p = 0.003$

**H3: There are no relationships between professional values with the academicians marketing ethics.**

**Table 4 Correlation between professional values and academicians marketing ethics**

	Pearson Correlation (r)	Significant
<b>Professional Value</b>	<b>0.427</b>	<b>0.000</b>

Professional value and academicians marketing ethics are related with a moderate relationship where  $r = 0.427$  and  $p = 0.000$ .

**H4: Personal values and professional values do not influence the academicians marketing ethics**

**Table 5 Multiple Regression Analysis of Professional value and Personal value with academicians marketing ethics**

**Model Summary**

Model	R	R square	Durbin- Watson
<b>1</b>	<b>0.521</b>	<b>0.279</b>	<b>2.060</b>

**Coefficients**

Model	B	Beta	t	Significant	VIF
Constant	2.343		6.211	0.000	
Collectivism	0.066	-0.233	-1.233	0.230	1.168
Power distance	0.214	0.402	3.776	0.000	1.056
Uncertainty Avoidance	0.043	0.126	1.222	0.245	1.133
Professional Value	0.240	0.356	3.211	0.001	1.072

The 'Model Summary' showed that the four independent variables that are entered into the regression model, the R (0.521), which is the correlation of the four independent variables with the dependent variable. After all the inter-correlations among the four variable has been taken into consideration, the R square is only 0.279. This explained that only 27.9% of the four variables influence the dependent variable which is the marketing ethics. To further elaborate what is mean by the R-Square value is that 27.9% of the variance in academicians' marketing ethics has been significantly identified by the four independent variables.

The Coefficients Table helps us to see which among the four independent variables plays the most important role in explaining the variance of in academicians marketing ethics by focusing on the 'Standardized Coefficients' with the 'Beta' value. It is seen that the highest number in the column is 0.402 for Power Distance which is significant at 0.000 level followed by Professional value with a value of 0.356 and is significant at 0.001. This suggests that among the four variables, both Power Distance and Professional Values play a very significant role in influencing the academicians' marketing ethics. The VIF value indicates that the variables were not effect by multi co linearity and the values of Durbin-Watson also shows that the variables were not affected by the autocorrelation. As a conclusion, the results showed from the analysis indicate that two variables, namely Power Distance and Professional Values were important in determining the factors that influences the academicians' marketing ethics.

**Conclusion**

According to Yoo (2001) and Rallapalli (1993), both Personal Culture Values and Professional Values play an important role in influencing the marketing ethics. This research study reveals that only Power Distance value and Professional value are related and make an impact on academicians marketing ethics. The regression analysis

indicates that 27.9 percent of marketing ethics are explained by the independent variables namely Professional Values and Personal Cultural Values which consist of Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance and Power Distance. This means that there are still other factors that influences the academicians marketing ethics which might not yet been identified. Further study should looks into other possible factors that might be influencing the academicians marketing ethics on top of Personal Cultural Values and Professional Values.

### **Recommendations**

The findings of this study are significant on both theoretical and applied level. On a theoretical level, they add to our knowledge of relative importance of various dimensions of values that influences the marketing ethics of academicians (Personal Cultural Values and Professional Values) in this study. The result of this study indicates that both Personal Cultural Values and Professional Values play a role in influencing the academicians' marketing ethics. On the applied level, the results provide information on whether an academicians' will posses and behave ethically when they are involve in marketing activities such as helping their respective college in marketing the college brands and programmers.

### **Draft an ethical marketing decision**

The result on this study shows that the Power Distance values play an important role in determining the marketing ethics of academicians. Management, under this circumstance, should be able to use this factor as a tool to ensure that the academician possesses a positive and good marketing ethics. With a strong relationship between Power Distance and marketing ethics, this reveals the culture of academicians still willing to follow the instructions of their immediate superior or the top management. With this in mind, once the top management drafted an ethical marketing decision, the academicians will be following on this decision and this will ensure that the academicians are behaving ethically.

### **Cultivate a positive professionalism**

Another factor that influences the marketing ethics of academicians is the Professional Values possesses by the academicians. This study indirectly reveals that academicians do understand the profession that they are in hence it creates awareness towards the academicians that they should behave professionally. The level of education possessed by the academicians lead them to understand the professional value better and this will definitely influences their ethical behavior and decision making. The management should have cultivate a positive professionalism within all academicians and thus created academicians that has a good marketing ethics and are able to make an ethical decision whenever there is conflict arises. The result of this study brought implication towards the management of education institution.

Since both Power Distance and Professional Values are influencing the marketing ethics of academicians, the management should play a role in cultivating positive professional values within the institutions to ensure that the academicians practices good marketing ethics whenever they involves in marketing activities such as road shows or education fairs to promote their institution. Power Distance is related to marketing ethics in the sense that if Power Distance is high within the education institution, the management can play a role in influencing the academicians to practice a good marketing ethics and pro-long the good marketing practices in business and marketing ethics related subjects to the students.

### **Future research**

Future research can also focus on having various location of study. It is said that in Malaysia, the perceived cultural value between communities and regions are not the same as being explained earlier. Future researcher might be interested to look into how the academicians from different location perceived themselves on marketing ethics. The outcome might be not same for different location and a comparison can be done from there. Academician plays an important

role in educating future marketers and other business professional. Their perception towards marketing ethics plays an important part as it will influences the effectiveness of how ethical related courses to be delivered and to be taught during lectures.

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# The Failure of Global Governance Praxis in the Darfur Crisis

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## **Abstract**

Darfur is an area in the western part of Sudan occupied by mostly Muslims of both black-African and Arab-African origins. The region suffered political, economic and social neglect while Sudan was under the control of the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium. The conditions were worsened when Sudan gained independence in 1956, with the institutionalisation of an Arab-supremacy agenda. Though the official policies of neglect and marginalisation affected the whole of Darfur, however, the Arab apartheid policies target only the black-Africans. As the black-African Darfurians sought to redress their situation, they were repelled not just by the authorities in Khartoum, but also by Arab-Darfurians, who had elected to support their kith and kin on the basis of Arab solidarity. The terror unleashed by the combination of government forces and the Arab-Darfur janjaweed militia on black-African Darfurians places the Darfur crisis as one of the greatest human tragedies of the twenty-first century. Under the circumstances, there were questions as to the nature of intervention provided by the United Nations. Remarkably, the UN response was not just slow in coming, it was merely limited to the provision of humanitarian assistance. Pragmatism, as evinced by the politics of the power structure of the permanent membership of the Security Council, and the need for the protection of national self-interest turned the UN into a 'toothless bull-dog' while an earth-scorched agenda was being perpetrated in Darfur.

**Keywords:** Genocide, Janjaweed, National-Interest, Realism, Veto

## **Introduction**

The concept of global governance deals with the articulation of processes for conducting both inter-state and intra-state relations through the definition of boundaries that restrain the excesses of state-actors. Inherent in the philosophy is the assumption that the international system and its units should be protected from bellicose states or regimes, who must be held accountable in case of misdeeds by a global coalition of forces, through collective security mechanism.

Against the backdrop of the global governance philosophy, the United Nations is expected to always arise in favour of a peaceful, secure and harmonious world. However, since its establishment in 1945, the UN task of guaranteeing a secure world has remained arduous. This article draws insight from the Darfur crisis in an effort to present the failure of the UN to be alive to its most important responsibility.

The body of this article traces the origin of the Darfur crisis to the multifarious nature of segmental cleavages and the divisive identity politics that was entrenched in Sudan at independence. The atrocities perpetrated during the crisis are chronicled in order to highlight the fact that a UN action, beyond humanitarian assistance was required to end the crisis.

## **The UN Security Council and the Reality of International Peace and Security**

The emergence of a novel world security order with a focus on a system of collective security mechanism after the devastation caused by the Second World War was presumably the panacea to global security challenges. Unlike the preceding Euro-centric balance of power arrangement, the system of collective security was embedded in the establishment of a permanent institution for the purposes of maintaining international peace and security. In the pursuit of the collective security agenda, the United Nations utilises both multilateral diplomacy and the global governance approach to seek solution to the challenges of the post second world-war system. The dynamism of the international system notwithstanding, the UN has since 1945 attempted to provide measures through which international security can be guaranteed.

Though the UN parades global membership, the determination of what constitutes threat to international peace and security, and the specific actions to be taken against threat to international peace and security, are determined by the Security Council (UN Charter). As the power nucleus of the UN, the Security Council's decisions lay the fundamental basis upon which major policies concerning international security are initiated and implemented. However, within the fifteen-member Security Council, each of the five permanent members possesses veto power, therefore, the powers of the five permanent members are the most crucial to decisions on "substantive matters", hence, the "Great Power Unanimity" enjoyed by this group of states. Invariably, a concurrence of interests among the permanent members of the Security Council is mandatory for the effective deployment of the functions and powers of the United Nations.

The contextual differences among the five permanent members of the Security Council in the determination of acts constituting threat to international peace and security and the related position of the UN on such matters continually diminish the power and influence of the UN as the institution charged with the maintenance of international peace and security. In reality, the pursuit of the national interest of individual permanent members of the Security Council often times conflict with the pursuit of the objectives of the UN. By fact of "political realism" (Morgenthau, 1978), each of the permanent members of the Security Council prioritises the pursuit of national interest over the actualisation of the UN agenda.

The on-going crisis in Syria speaks volume of the extent to which the individual permanent members of the Security Council are willing to trade the pursuit of the objectives of the UN for the pursuit of their national interest. The Syrian case remains a hard-nut to crack because China and Russia used their veto power to prevent a profound UN policy on the matter. Just as in Syria, the Darfur crisis is a festering thumb for the UN. The UN vacillation on the crisis, caused by the lack of consensus on policy directions by the five permanent members of the Security Council led to the

creation of one of the greatest atrocities committed against an ethnic group in the twenty-first century. To surmise therefore, the conflicting rationality (Morgenthau, 1978) in the foreign policy objectives of each of the five permanent members of the Security Council prevented a necessary and decisive action by the UN to end the Darfur crisis.

### **Sudan's Trajectory of Socio-Political Conundrum**

Sudan has cast its name in history as the infamous theatre of war in Africa. Described as "The Turbulent State" (de Waal, 2007: 1), the country's history is replete with tumultuous experiences of social dislocation, political upheavals, and economic underdevelopment. From inception as an independent political entity, the state has demonstrated the lack of capacity to manage its huge challenges of forging a united front among its various ethnic groups.

The country shed its colonial status under the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium by becoming an independent state on 1<sup>st</sup> January, 1956. Prior to the secession of South Sudan in July 2011, the country was described as a "microcosm of Africa" (Badmus, 2009) owing to its racial, cultural, social and religious diversity. The complex character of the diversity became unmanageable as soon as independence was achieved. The problems stemmed from "structural impasse and complex challenges of identity" (de Waal, 2007: 38) whose origins are traceable to the colonialists' insensitivity to the future of their political creation.

After independence, the ethnic mosaic nature of the state provided a veritable ground for identity conflicts, bothering on racial and religious differences. While the Arabs who had been empowered by the colonialists sought to entrench their hegemony across the political, social and economic spectrum of Sudan, the black Africans agitated against the unbridled dominance and the neglect that had become their lot. Kebede (1997) notes:

*"Almost all the economic infrastructure and development projects were concentrated in the agriculturally endowed north-central region. Very few economic, social and administrative structures were built in the South".*

After independence, the first signal of a volatile future was the refusal of the Arab-dominated government to pursue the policy of a federal Sudan, which would have granted some level of political autonomy particularly to the southern part of the country. In disregard of the sensitivity of other groups, the Arab-led government based in Khartoum, sought to create an Islamic state by commencing a vigorous campaign of 'Arabisation', not minding the rights of the 25% animists and that of the 5% Christians from the south of the country. The racist and religious agendas were fortified with the institutionalisation of the policy of neglect and marginalisation. The consequence of the indiscretion was the creation of an insurgency group, called Sudan Peoples Liberation Movement/Army, by indigenes of the southern part of Sudan. The group's main agenda was to secede from a country who had shown its lack of capacity for managing diversity from the outset. The SPLM/A engaged in a bitter civil war with Khartoum until a peace agreement was signed in 1972.

The agreement mandated Khartoum to cede some level of authority to the south in its own affairs, while equally expunging the 'Arabisation' and 'Islamisation' policies from state institutions. By implication, Khartoum was meant to respect the south's religious freedom. However, not done with its desire to transform the whole of Sudan's demography to an Arab land, Khartoum eventually reneged on the peace agreement that ended the civil war in 1972. Once again, the autonomy was withdrawn from the south and there was a renewed clamp-down on non-Muslims with the introduction of the Sharia Legal System across the country. The southern part of the country was forced to return to the trenches and begin the last phase of its war of liberation.

Under the auspices of the Sudan People's Liberation Movement/Army, the south embarked on a long-drawn armed struggle with the Sudanese government which lasted until a Comprehensive Peace Accord was signed in Naivasha in 2005. The most important part of the accord was the clause that provided for a referendum in 2011 to determine whether the southern part of Sudan should

secede and become an independent state or remain as part of Sudan. At the appointed time, the citizens opted for secession, and by July 2011 South Sudan emerged as an independent state, thereby permanently altering the demography and geography of Sudan as was created in 1916.

The civil wars between the former south of Sudan and the Government of Sudan in Khartoum was just one of the debacles that confronted a country that institutionalises divisive identity politics. While the former southern part of the country has gained its hard-won freedom, the western-part of the country continues to reel in the devastating effects of the racial politics of the GoS. Though black Africans in Darfur share the same Islamic beliefs with the Arabs in government, yet, Darfur is not immune to the harsh realities of racial discrimination bothering on the Arab supremacy policy unrepentantly pursued by the powers that-be in Khartoum. Lacking the sophistication of armed mobilisation that the former south of Sudan possessed, Darfur's feeble attempts at insurgency took a long time in coming. Eventually the armed insurgency broke out in 2003, with black Darfurians determined to institute a better bargain in their relationship with Arab Sudan.

### **The Content and Context of the Darfur Crisis**

Darfur is located on the Western part of Sudan. The territory is occupied by people of both black African (Fur, Massalit and Zaghawa) and Arab (Rizeigat, Beni Halba and Habbaniya) origins, all of whom are adherents of the Islamic faith (both Tijaniyya and Ansar sect). Ever since its emergence as a political entity, Darfur has been characterised by battles against oppression and subjugation from various forces. Darfur's battles also include fierce internal confrontations arising from the divisions between the two major groups. Indeed, pre-colonial Darfur was a four decade in which "by the sanguinary standards of Sudanese and Sahelian history, stand out, ... as an age of "turmoil and bloodshed" (Flint & de Waal, 2005: 12), characterised by "exceptional dislocation and hunger, of unparalleled forced migration and wanton destruction" (Flint & de Waal, 2005: 12).

The history of Darfur as a subservient political entity commenced with the political conquest of the Sultanate by the Turco-Egyptian imperialists around 1821. Darfur's political dependence was deepened with the take-over by the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium around 1896 until it was merged with Sudan in 1916. The new status of being a province within Sudan only added to the bounty of political, economic and social trauma that Darfur would face throughout its existence as a periphery of the centre in Khartoum.

The incorporation of Darfur into Sudan by the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium in 1916 established the basis for administrative, economic, social and political control from Khartoum. Unfortunately for Darfur, the territory did not have any special appeal for the Anglo-Egyptian authorities (Daly, 2007: 9). The take-over was perhaps borne out of political expediency aimed at warding-off France's further intrusion into Central and East Africa after France's colonisation of Chad, Central African Republic and Congo, all of which border Darfur. The lack of interest was evident in the neglect suffered by Darfur under the administration of the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium that colonised Sudan. The trend became institutionalised by the Government of Sudan (GoS) based in Khartoum at independence in 1956 and continues in the twenty-first century.

The institutionalisation of Darfur's systemic neglect and marginalisation in global Sudanese politics was perfected after independence through the restriction of access to formal education to Darfurians and the non-provision of the basic necessities of life for the region. Basic infrastructures, such as the transport system that could link remote Darfur to the rest of the country was lacking. In addition, Darfurians were allowed limited political representation to the extent that at some point, non-Darfurians were appointed by Khartoum as political heads in the murky waters of Darfur's identity politics, proving further, Darfur's irrelevance in Khartoum's political calculations. In effect, "Darfur provided votes when elections were held and cheap migratory labour but was still the ignored wild west, an underdeveloped corner of one of the world's least-developed countries" (Daly, 2007: 3).

The prevailing immediate post-independent conditions motivated Darfurians from all ethnic origins to forge a common front by establishing an organisation to challenge the *status quo ante*. The Darfur Development Front (DDF) was the first organisation to agitate for adequate political representation, economic empowerment and social relevance of Darfurians. The support of all Darfurians for the organisation in the attempt to extricate the region from its pitiable political and socio-economic conditions was not unconnected with the consensus on the future implications of Darfur's realities. The organisation thus provided an opportunity to articulate demands and agitate for relevance and representation as a people in Sudan.

The unity of purpose between the two major ethnic groups in Darfur never lasted long enough to achieve stated objectives. Clogs were thrown in the wheel of a common Darfur position through the rabid politicisation of ethnic and racial identities. Specifically, dissensions with reverberating consequences began to appear when central political power-play infiltrated the ranks of the DDF. In Prunier's (2005: 41) account of the commencement of identity conflicts in Darfur, the rival political parties at the centre played the ethnic card in Darfur to attract support for their political aspirations. In effect, "... electoral tactics forced them to exaggerate the kind of racial-cultural rhetoric which had begun to grow". The unhealthy development of ethnic and racial dichotomy partly gained fuller currency through the dangerous political power-play in Khartoum. Furthermore, the external dimension of racial contestations exacerbated by the geo-political interplay of Arab supremacy and the resistance of people of African origin in the region, involving, Chad, Libya and Sudan pushed Darfur's racial question to the height of extremism. Prunier (2005: 42) perceptively submits:

*"But the legacy of its ethnicisation of Darfurian provincial politics was to grow during the following years when the province would become a key element of the fight between Nimeiry and the Mahdists. The overspill of the Chadian civil war and the proxy intervention of Libya, which used the province as a staging post to fight the Nimeiry regime, would only make matters worse"*.

In close proximity to Chad and Libya, Darfur could not escape the destabilisation caused by Chad's political instability and Gadaffi's ambition and insistence on unifying Arab Africa- the annexation of Darfur was the first step in realising that ambition. Thus, the complex web of the deprivation suffered, and conflict experienced by the people of Darfur particularly when racial identity-based politics had been introduced as a divisive weapon by the centre was fortified by the external dimension of the politics of Arab supremacy. In reiterating the negative consequences of Darfur's contiguity to the base of Arab's supremacist agenda, Daly (2007: 4) notes:

*"Whereas gradual assimilation of both Arabs and non-Arabs into the "Sudanese" culture as defined in the Nile valley had been progressing for years, suddenly Darfur- "the abode of the Fur"- was proclaimed an "Arab" land, whose non-Arab usurpers could rightfully be dispossessed"*.

In summary, the Libyan authorities' racial and xenophobic predilections, Chad's political instability and Khartoum's lack of allegiance to blacks in Darfur combined to compel the seasons of destabilisation and degradation in Darfur as a whole. Further ethnic polarisation of the province was achieved when Libya initiated and supported the creation of Tajammu al-Arabi (Arab Union), "a militantly racist and pan-Arabist organisation which stressed the "Arab" character of the province" (2005: 45). Thereafter, the relationship between the two main groups in Darfur continually degenerated and eventually took a dangerous nose-dive for the worst. The divisions in the land of the Fur, occasioned by ethnic and tribal profiling had by now set the stage for uncompromising positions between the Africans and the Arabs on any issue concerning Darfur. The two groups of people began to disagree on a unified course of action even when the central government's neglect of the area had negative consequences on all. Rather than pursue a common front in the face of common disaster, the two groups continue to dissipate energy on the disagreements arising from their racial identity conflicts.

One of the greatest natural disasters to afflict Darfur was the drought and desertification of the late 1970s and early 1980s which led to famine and pestilence in the land. From the benefits of hindsight, the consequences of the drought may have been minimised if Khartoum had been alive to its responsibilities in Darfur. For as long as it pleased Khartoum, the GoS played down the severity of the drought and its implications on the people of the province, thereby causing unprecedented damage to human and agricultural lives in the area. Specifically, the government ignored the famous “famine letter” sent by Governor Diraige of Darfur province to warn about impending danger. Rather than nip the danger in the bud, the government focussed attention on the sustenance of troops in Darfur in order to be relevant in the Chadian conflicts for its own geo-strategic survival. In August 1984, it became impossible to further mask the enormity of the degradation in Darfur, thus the government was compelled to proclaim Darfur a “disaster zone” after severe damages and preventable deaths had been caused by the devastation of the famine.

After Khartoum’s admission of incapability of handling the drought situation in Darfur, the international community, notably the US, rallied to assist in mitigating the consequences of the drought. Although, relative stability was achieved through the provision of food and basic essentials, the major challenges of Darfur; the neglect by the GoS, and the antagonisms between the blacks and the Arabs had by now become the two defining character of Darfur. The blacks who were at the receiving end of Darfur’s unedifying conditions resolved to transform their circumstances by engaging the government in Khartoum. Time and again, the government had demonstrated its preference for armed engagement in the course of political and socio-economic transformation as evidenced in the case of the former southern part of Sudan. However, unlike the case of the former southern part of Sudan, the organisation of a coordinated resistance was very challenging for Darfur because of the multi-tribal composition of the blacks, and particularly because the Darfur Arabs are sympathetic to the cause of their kith and kin in Khartoum.

The initial signs of a looming insurgency surfaced with the publication of the “Black Book” (Badmus, 2009: 352) in 2000. The book details the practical realities of Sudan as perceived by the black Africans. It chronicles the divisions along class, ethnic and racial cleavages, and equally dwells on the neglect and marginalisation suffered by a huge segment of the Sudanese populace. The courage of the publishers and the activities of Sudan People’s Liberation Movement/Army against the Khartoum government combined to galvanise the black tribes in Darfur to action against the Arab-dominated government of Sudan. Subsequently, the blacks formed the Sudan Liberation Army (SLA) and the Justice and Equality Movement (JEM) for the purpose of “foiling Arab supremacist policies in Darfur” (Flint & de Waal, 2005: 76).

The SLA-JEM’s first major assault on the government was the April 25, 2003 attack on the al Fashir airport. With the attack, the rebels did not only subdue the air base, they equally inflicted eternal damage on the image of the Sudanese military, and indeed, its capacity to repel the rebellion. The al Fashir event and the subsequent raid on Kutum, Mellit and Tina presented two major facts in bold relief; one is the fact that Khartoum’s on-going war with the southern part of Sudan had stretched the military’s capacity, thus winning a civil war, especially in the far-flung western part of the country was difficult. Secondly, the successes of the attacks showed the unpreparedness of the Sudanese army for a desert warfare (Flint & de Waal, 2005: 101). It became obvious to Khartoum that sheer military might may not win the war over the Darfur rebels, hence, the need to adopt a tactical approach that preyed on the lingering enmity between the major groups in the region. The Darfur-Arabs were willing accomplices of Khartoum in this unconventional warfare, for this was an opportunity to completely annihilate the black-people from Darfur and turn the area to the land of the Arabs. The objectives of both Arabs; Khartoum and Darfur were similar, and thus the GoS systematically unleashed terror on black-Darfurians through an unprecedented janjaweed-supported assault.

### **The Janjaweed as Khartoum's Response to Darfur Insurgency**

The emergence of the janjaweed is traceable to the tribal conflicts and economic grievances in Darfur in the early twentieth century (Flint & de Waal, 2005: 42). The janjaweed is originally composed of a group of northern 'Arab' camel nomads (Ben Halba Fursan) and the Libyan Islamic Legionnaires (Badmus, 2009: 355). As an armed group, janjaweed is known as the main promoter of Arab supremacy in Sudan. This position has always accorded with the central government's plan for Sudan. Having become allies, the government has been known to collaborate with the janjaweed on many occasions and even seek the support of the group when the need arises. As observed by Haggar (2007: 113), the government's association with janjaweed is reflected in the warm relationship between janjaweed and some six pro-government armed groups. The janjaweed's "behaviour was defined by its unbound criminality" (Flint & de Waal, 2005: 104) because of the protection provided by the government.

The janjaweed was actively involved and instrumental to Khartoum's efforts at taming the determined and irrepressible forces of the SLA and JEM in their determination to ensure fair and just representation from the government, and also protect the blacks from the Arab supremacist agenda in Darfur. The warm relationship between the GoS and janjaweed can be understood within the context of the common Arab-origin connection and the determination of both sides to undermine and weaken the resolve of the blacks in Darfur. The GoS used the janjaweed to shield its complicity in the crisis and by employing a massive propaganda agenda the government sought to present the Darfur crisis to the international community as one of the regular inter-tribal clashes in Darfur. The technical and tactical collaboration between government forces and the janjaweed resulted in severe agony for the black race in Darfur. On land and in the air, the government and janjaweed destroyed villages, killed humans and livestock, destroyed farmlands, abused, assaulted and degraded a generation of black race in Darfur. Indeed, the GoS pursued a "scorched-earth" (Badmus, 2009: 343) policy in Darfur.

The government's method of prosecuting the war against the Darfur rebels was crude and unwholesome. Having upgraded the janjaweed to "a full paramilitary force, with communications equipment as well as plentiful new arms, some artillery, and military advisors" (Flint & de Wall, 2005: 106), the government's actual involvement was consigned to air-bombardment and military intelligence. In a recount of the gruesome operational modalities of the government-janjaweed attacks on black civilians in Darfur, Prunier (2007: 100) reports:

*"When the air attacks were over, the janjaweed would arrive, either by themselves or in the company of regular Army units. The militiamen would be mounted on horses and camels and often be accompanied by others riding in "technicals". They would surround the village and what followed would vary. In the "hard" pattern they would cordon off the place, loot personal belongings, rape the girls and women, still the cattle and kill the donkeys".*

The government's cooperation with, and support for the janjaweed against the blacks was unwavering because both parties were agreed on the need for the total annihilation of black Darfurians. The intention is reflected in a communiqué issued by government officials directing the leadership of janjaweed on the plans of government to exterminate the blacks in Darfur. Part of the communiqué reads: "You are informed that directives have been issued... to change the demography of Darfur and empty it of African tribes" (Flint & de Wall, 2005: 106).

The strategy of the government-janjaweed coalition was so effective that few years into the crisis, a total of 300,000 people had been killed, while an estimated 2.7m people had been displaced. Quite alarmingly, despite the severity of the situation, the Darfur crisis did not immediately attract the attention of the rest of the world, and especially the UN. The disconnect between the severity of the crisis and the lack of immediate response and assertive commitment of the UN to stabilise the situation raises concerns about the logic of global governance in the face of conflicting national interest of states.

### The UN Security Council's Permanent Members' Reactions to the Darfur Crisis

The Darfur crisis suffered two fundamental blows; one was the fact that it took an unprecedented length of time before the international community could appreciate the magnitude of atrocities being committed in that part of the world. Secondly, the reaction of the rest of the world in seeking either political/diplomatic or military solution to the problem has been incoherent and uncoordinated and largely unsuccessful. As the beacon of hope for the maintenance of international peace and security, the UN's reaction to the crisis has been very uninspiring. Weschler (2010: 6) perceptively avers:

*"Initially, the UN attitude to the conflict in Darfur was marked by considerable reluctance to take action and a tendency towards half measures. More recently, it has been characterised by an air of impotence and resignation".*

It is indeed an indictment on the system, that a crisis of such horrendous magnitude could be perpetrated within one of its units without the ability of presenting an assertive position to halt the crisis. It would however not be out of place to condemn the activities of the five permanent members who had since after the San Francisco Conference of 1945 become the "duly authorised custodians of the world's security" (Bosco, 2009: 38). The challenge is about the structure of mechanism designed to attend to global security challenges. The UN as argued by Burton (1965: 60) is not different from the inept League of Nations, just as collective security system is essentially a balance-of-power arrangement. Burton argues that:

*"In practice, as the history of collective security clearly shows, it has been balance-of-power in disguise. Collective security has been a device through which status quo Powers have been able to carry through the system of alliances and of favourable balance-of-power, under the respectable cloak of a League of Nations or a United Nations".*

The inherently contradictory and self-centred positions of the permanent members of the UN have been continually exploited by groups in conflicts, since the emergence of the organisation. In the case of the Darfur crisis, the needs to protect political alliances and economic interests of each of the five permanent members of the Security Council have been fundamental to the lacklustre response and the inability to agree on a common solution to the crisis. One of the fundamental issues that initially dwarfed the importance of the Darfur crisis was the then on-going peace settlement deal between the former southern part of Sudan and the GoS. The international community ignored Darfur partly because of the concern that the Government of Sudan might resent another accusation of wrong-doing, and thus, nullify the peace settlement being worked out with the south of the country. An end to the uprising between the former southern part and Khartoum, as reasoned by the international community, would go a long way in bringing peace to the region and contemporaneously have positive impact on global oil prices.

However, the attention of the world was eventually turned to the Darfur crisis through the aggressive efforts of various non-governmental organisations, and an active international media coverage. In reaction to the global coverage of the horrendous activities, the GoS still attempted to distort facts through its propaganda machinery which claimed that the crisis was one of the usual inter-tribal crisis that Darfur was known for. In response to the gross violation of human rights, the UN established a hybrid peace-keeping mission with the stretched and relatively incapable African Union, which had earlier placed its poorly-kitted AU Mission in Darfur. The African Union/United Nations Hybrid Operation in Darfur (UNAMID) was equally bogged down by logistical, bureaucratic and political challenges. Arising from the deficiencies of global governance mechanism, it is pertinent to assess the roles played by each of the permanent members of the Security Council.

Before the latter day assertiveness and the calls for UN sanctions against Khartoum and some specific officials of the GoS, the US was initially unresponsive to events in Darfur. This position is understandable given the need to protect US' interest in the region. To start with, there had always been a special relationship between Sudan and the US because of the US' drive for allies in the



Muslim world, and Sudan's position as the country with the largest population of Muslims in central Africa was welcoming. Furthermore the US had used Sudan as "bulwark against Ethiopia's communist and Gaddafi's rogue dictatorships" (Prunier, 2005: 52) in the past. The relationship between the two countries was even more emboldened when Khartoum sacked Osama bin Laden from its territory in the wake of his terrorist's engagements; a US payback of this gesture through respect for Sudan's sovereignty was seen as a moral obligation. Another factor that may have caused the reluctance of the US in getting involved in the Darfur crisis could be the unwillingness of dissipating energy on another war and the consequences of both the domestic and international controversies it may generate. From the economic perspectives, the fundamental cause of Washington's non-immediate reaction may have been the volume of benefits derivable from having a cordial relationship with Khartoum. The US had shown interest in having a large share in Sudan's two-billion barrel oil reserves, furthermore, US companies aspire for investment opportunities in Sudan's massive deposit of copper and the country's large deposit of natural gas.

These circumstances ensured a special relationship between both countries; it is therefore understandable that the US was cautious in denouncing Sudan's actions, especially when those actions were interpreted as domestic challenges. The US position however changed when domestic public opinion caused by the media frenzy pushed the Washington out of its cocoon to once again lead the fight against human rights violations. The US was the first country, through former Secretary of State, Colin Powell to not just condemn the atrocities in Sudan, but also refer to it as genocide. The consequences of the term, genocide, is understood by all! If the members of the Security Council had unanimously agreed that genocide had taken place, the provisions of the relevant article of the 'Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide' would have been invoked. The US failed to rally the UN to reach a consensus, and the country could not equally initiate a unilateral action against Khartoum, in order not to be deemed an aggressor-nation, and avoid the negative consequences of such status. In as much as the US attempted to extract the mandate of the UN to take a decisive action against Sudan, China and Russia continued to thwart the efforts through their veto power. The US merely ended up as the symbol of the campaign for strict sanctions against Khartoum, but was unable to rally at least two members of the Security Council to its side.

As expected of a true and long-term ally, Britain supported the US position of a robust UN response to the Darfur crisis. Britain's support for US' position can be understood against the background of the role played as one of the two nations that drafted the Atlantic Charter, "a wartime statement of purpose which included a pledge to create a "wider and permanent system of general security" (Bosco, 2009: 13). Based on this, Britain traditionally feels obliged to support the US ideals of a UN action against belligerent or rogue states. Nothing more testifies to Britain's support of the US initiated policy for the UN in Sudan than the outward condemnation of the GoS by both Prime Ministers Tony Blair and Gordon Brown. Tony Blair had on 17<sup>th</sup> September 2006 written an open letter to the European Union calling for a unified response to the Darfur crisis, while Gordon Brown referred to the Darfur crisis as "the greatest humanitarian disaster the world faces today".

In contrast to London's position, Paris elected to pursue a cautious approach to the Darfur crisis, as against the robust military action proposed by the US and Britain. France's policy on Darfur was shaped by the country's foreign policy objectives of seeking diplomatic and political solutions to crisis challenges around the world. France refused to be drawn into the genocide concerns of the US, though agreed that there may be gross violation of human rights taking place in Darfur, therefore, the country supported a non-aggressive approach that considered the sovereignty of Sudan. As argued by Shurkin (2005), France's position is not different from its age-long policy of careful suspicions of US global intentions. Furthermore, it was also connected with France's overall African policy of strategic partnership and engagement with African states. Invariably, as the US urged international sanctions against Khartoum, France "appears to be protecting Sudan, forcing the passage of a much weaker Security Council resolution that threatened Khartoum only with eventual "measures" to be taken if it did not crack down on the militias blamed for the violence in Darfur" (Shurkin, 2005).

Fundamentally, two major points can be discerned from France's position on the issue. Firstly, it is argued that France was attempting to check America's 'unprecedented escalation of its military and political presence in the region ...' which occasionally put both countries at daggers' drawn. Secondly, France remained consistent on the pursuit of its African policy, thus applied "a general rule to a specific case rather than responding to particular circumstances" (Shurkin, 2005). Aside of politics, there is also an economic interest dimension to France's policy on Sudan. France's oil interest as captured by TOTAL's ownership of the largest oil concession in Sudan ensures Paris' cordial relations with Khartoum.

The most critical antagonisms against US' position, and by implication, UN's lack of capacity to act militarily in Sudan came from China and Russia. China's position is borne out of both its broad foreign policy pursuit, and the expansive political, diplomatic and economic relations with Sudan. China is notorious for being a major arm-supplier to Sudan. According to Amnesty International (2012), "the Darfur conflict is sustained by the constant flow of weapons from abroad". "Chinese-manufactured weaponry" was a regular sight in the war-torn areas. The clandestine sale of arms continued in flagrant disregard of the UN embargo to that effect. Against the tide of popular sentiments, China also trains pilots for the special aircrafts used for aerial bombardment by Sudan against the Darfur rebels. Furthermore, China either abstained or elected to veto proposed sanctions against Sudan or even members of the government accused of committing atrocities in the course of the crisis.

China's position on the Darfur crisis can be understood within two broad context; one of which is related to the country's overriding positions on multilateralism and specifically on the activities of the UN Security Council. Whilst China would welcome an end to the Darfur crisis, the country is also conscious of confrontational actions or sanctions by the international community to compel the GoS to end the crisis. The reason for the non-confrontational approach in the face of gross violation of human rights, is borne out of the burden of China's unenviable domestic human rights records. China's condemnation of an oppressive regime would be suggestive of double-standards, and a contradiction of the political climate in the country. The backlash that would follow a confrontational position against an oppressive government is simply a global questioning of the domestic human-rights records of Beijing. Hence, China preferred to focus on strengthening its good relationship with the Sudanese government, claiming that such gesture would help the country in its economic recovery and development efforts. In this regard, China maintains the record of being Sudan's largest trading partner (Nwazota, 2006).

Russia's position on the crisis was very much like that of her ally, China. As Sudan's biggest economic partner in Europe, Russia plays an active role in Sudan's economy, hence, it is inclined to support the status quo, since the benefits derived from their economic engagement is made possible by the government in power. Similar to the Chinese position, and in disregard of UN resolution on the matter, Russia was deeply involved in the sale of arms and ammunitions to the government, thereby, contributing to the prolongation of the crisis and increasing the number of casualties.

In effect, while France may have taken a moderate position, the US-Britain bloc and the China-Russia bloc maintained opposing views about the process of solving the Darfur crisis. The existence of the two blocs remain a common feature of international relations even after the end of the cold-war. According to Bosco (2009: 256),

*"At times, Moscow and Beijing have linked arms in their effort to counter American ascendancy, and they share a rudimentary geopolitical ideology that emphasizes state sovereignty and non-intervention and downplays many Western concerns, including human rights, democratisation, and non-proliferation"*

The lack of consensus among the permanent members of the Security Council who are "entitled to special position(s) on the Council by virtue of their exceptional responsibility for world security" (Russell, 1958: 440) undermined the powers of the UN to articulately and promptly decide on the right sort of action or policy to pursue as it concerned the Darfur crisis. In the final analysis,

the UN could only provide humanitarian assistance through UNAMID. Invariably, the main challenge of the UN is how to accommodate the national self-interest of the five permanent members within the context of global interest such that the council would not be 'politically impotent' and yet, international security can be assured.

### **Conclusions- The Triumph of Pragmatism over Morality in Global Governance**

The treatment of the atrocities committed during the Darfur crisis belie the fundamental principles upon which the UN philosophy was laid. The reluctance of the UN to be decisive in its involvement stemmed from the contradictions inherent in the dual pursuit of national interest and global interest. As envisaged, "when the Five are united, there is almost no limit to what they could do" (Bosco, 2009: 35) but just like in Darfur, "if one of the Five dissented, it appeared the council could be paralysed" (Bosco, 2009: 35). This seems to have been the trend since the end of the cold-war, for the council "failed to respond to genocide in Rwanda, ethnic cleansing in Bosnia, and massive crimes in Darfur" (Bosco: 2009: 253).

It is a matter of fact that "the veto power cemented at Yalta tilted the body dramatically toward being a concert of great powers rather than a global governing body" (Bosco, 2009: 31); the effectiveness of the UN in guaranteeing international security was undermined by this provision. Thus, the prospects of international security in the twenty-first century can only be feasible if ...

*"... leaders should employ the Security Council whenever possible... They should bear in mind the council's genuine political value while at the same time resisting the legalistic view that the council offers the only possible route to legitimate or productive international action" (Bosco, 2009: 44).*

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# Dental evidence in Forensic Investigations: What we see and what we don't.

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## **Abstract**

The primary objective of forensic investigations during disasters (both natural and man made) is to identify or confirm the identity of the victim based on matching ante mortem records and post mortem evidence. Dental evidence is an important yet effective method of identifying people. Interpol considers dental information collected from the victims as adequate to identify an individual by itself, when done properly. The primary aim of a DVI programme and an associated system is to obtain a volume of information that would lead to identifying individuals within a short working period in the event of a disaster. Uniqueness in structures and traits in human teeth help in the identification process. This can only be achieved through greater knowledge of features that lead towards uniqueness. This article outlines some of the key DVI systems that have been used, focuses on features that are normally identified and recorded, emphasizes on limitations of Ante-Mortem and Post-Mortem forms and also dental features that may be present but not usually registered in those forms. The authors insist using the “Invisible features” and suggest that these features if and when extracted efficiently, may lead to an efficient and a thorough identification of disaster victims.

**Key words:** Disaster victim identification, DVI , Dental Identification, Dental Disaster Identification, Invisible features

## **Introduction**

Forensic investigations during disasters are primarily carried out either to identify or confirm the identity of the victim based on matching ante mortem records and post mortem evidence. This holds true for forensic odontology as it is one of the primary identifiers along with DNA and fingerprints. The process is usually simple but the procedure requires a great level of expertise to execute it with efficiency. (Hill, Hewson, & Lain, 2011)

Any investigation requiring a forensic intervention does so for a number of reasons. Some of the situations involving forensic investigations may be identification of victims in disasters, confirmation of death of individuals allowing remarriage of the partners, monetary reasons such as applying for pensions, insurance claims, a social responsibility of identifying an individual before his final rites, and finally the most important thing would be to bring closure to families of the deceased. (Pretty & Sweet, 2001) Advancement in technology has enhanced the quality of data both in the processing stage as well as transmitting stage that is often used in victim identification procedures. (Torpet, 2005)

The objective of this article is to key out softwares that have been applied in Disaster Victim Identification (DVI) in the past to record dental findings from victims during a disaster and emphasize the deficient information criterion included in the Ante-Mortem and Post-Mortem forms. There are no specific number of points or features used to identify a victim after a disaster. It is necessary to extract the maximum number of features in order to establish a positive identification. The simple reason that it is not printed on the form does not mean one must not look for these features. The authors suggest a few features that may be looked for in a routine DVI examination as a guide when DVI victims need to be identified.

## **Objectives of DVI and DVI systems**

The primary aim of a DVI process and an associated system is to obtain a volume of information that would lead to identifying individuals within a short working period in the event of a disaster. The objective is to utilize minimal resources and faster and efficient data management systems enabling better administration of data that has been collected. (Interpol, 2002) Based on the information collected, identification of the individuals is carried out. The outcomes of the identification can be classified into four categories and is based on the findings recorded in the AM and the PM databases. Table 1 shows the four categories of outcome of identification.

## **Interpol and Dental evidence**

Dental evidence is an important yet effective method of identifying people. Interpol considers dental information collected from the victims as adequate to identify an individual by itself, when done properly. (International Criminal Police Organization, 1997) Most antemortem data can be obtained from the dental history of the victim, but this can only happen when the victim is known or suspected to be someone in particular. Interpol also dictates use of radiographic units and special photography units to record and document details. Interpol suggests that a large number of specific details can be compared between the Ante-Mortem and Post-Mortem records to arrive at positive identifications. (International Criminal Police Organization, 1997) Uniqueness in structures and traits in human teeth help in the identification process. This includes but is not limited to restorations, root canal treatments and other procedures. Anatomical and morphological traits must be researched in order to achieve higher standards of comparison especially when no dental treatments are present. (International Criminal Police Organization, 2009)

Interpol proposes accuracy in storing and documenting findings collected from victims at the disaster site. Ante-Mortem Documentation of evidence has been computerised for sometime now. It is faster and can store a lot more information in it. A large number of computer programs have been recommended and some have been used successfully. The following sections discuss the database

design, the user interface, the data entry process, the matching procedure and system requirements. (Clement et al., 2006a)

### **Documentation of dental evidence**

Ante-mortem dental information may be collected from a large number of sources and in various formats. The following section lists some of the formats and sources but the authors would like to indicate that it must not be limited to the list and adjuvant sources must be identified based on an individual scenario. The formats include but are not limited to dental records from the dentists office, radiographs of teeth, jaws or the skull, dental casts if available, and old dentures or dental prosthesis if any. (International Criminal Police Organization, 2009) Apart from the dentists office, information may also be gathered from dental technicians that may have repaired or made new dentures, school dental services if victims are of a younger age group, hospital dental services, biopsy services in case of presence of any oral pathology, dental health insurance companies and military organizations if the victims are known to be from a military background. (International Criminal Police Organization, 2009)

Data that is collected must be stored in a format that is easy to retrieve and match in cases that require matching. Interpol has suggested use of computers for matching Ante-Mortem and Post-Mortem records as it speeds up the identification process. (International Criminal Police Organization, 1997) Various computer based dental databases have been used in DVI over the years, each of them records a wide array of features. (Lake, James, & Berketa, 2012) These databases serve as comprehensive comparison facilities between dental features that have been collected ante-mortem and post mortem. This information should be such that it is in coded format and is able to search or match persons according to particulars entered. Not all databases have all information required to identify a person entirely on its own entries. Most often post mortem data collected is generic with visual information being crucial. (Lake et al., 2012) Some of the databases have been outlined in Table 2.

### **Discussion**

The database systems may include a range of various oro-dental features that may help in identifying victims. A copy of the dental section of the DVI system used by INTERPOL in disaster identifications (Fig 1) has been included in this article. It includes features such as crowns, bridges, dentures, implants as specific data and occlusion, attrition, anomalies, smoker/periodontal status in the further data section in both the Ante-Mortem and Post-Mortem forms along with spaces for notes on individual teeth. As mentioned earlier, some features may be present but as it is not visibly evident or simply because it hasn't been printed. An elaborate dental check must be carried out to perform a successful analyses. Table 3 presents some features that can be looked for but a forensic investigator must not be limited to them. All efforts must be taken to include detailed findings of features that may not be evident initially.

Along with features outlined in Table 3, features such as the alveolar bone, trabecular bone pattern, residual root fragments, sinuses, canals, ante mortem injuries if any and TMJ have also been previously mentioned. (Pretty & Sweet, 2001) However, one must remember that these systems neither have the level of automation, requiring excessive human involvement (Ramteke, Patil, & Patil, 2012) nor they include features that are not seen either clinically or radiographically. Features that can be seen or have been treated can be noted down but features that are not yet treated are missed out. For example, the victim may have spoken to a family member about having toothache or swelling or discomfort which might not have been checked or recorded by the dentist. That must be kept in mind when an investigator is looking at lesions that haven't been treated yet but are evident on inspection. Some other features that may be present or may have to be checked for are:

Signs of micro-leakage on radiographs must be taken into consideration when missing teeth are seen in patients, this may be the reason for the tooth to be missing. Patients with fluorosis may be easy to identify in an area exposed to fluoride even when they may not have any treatment history.

No visible signs of dental treatment may not essentially mean there has been no treatment. Signs of bone movement after orthodontic treatment must be a consideration for previous orthodontic treatment. Metal abrasion caused by removable partial dentures or orthodontic appliances must be looked for in cases where the denture is missing from the victim. Radiographs must also be checked for sialadenosis or calcium formation in glands which may also be a reason for visiting a dentist or might have planned to visit a dentist.

A well restored composite restoration may appear like a normal tooth unless looked into carefully. This would also establish the socioeconomic status of the person as they may be someone who is concerned about their appearance. Bone changes after a periodontal surgery with no traces of other dental treatment must be kept in consideration too. Ante mortem and post mortem records look for similarity in features but more than often there are more discrepancies than similarities. These might be due to the time elapsed between the time the ante mortem record was prepared and the post mortem incident. These discrepancies are called explainable or non-explainable. Explainable discrepancies include but are not limited to a restored tooth in the ante-mortem record and an extracted tooth post-mortem. Any feature that is not present in the ante mortem record but is seen on the post-mortem record are said to be non-explainable discrepancies. There may be features that's not seen in a radiograph. The authors would like to call them the "invisible features". A forensic odontologist must have thorough knowledge of what is available and what could be extracted out of it and only such knowledge will establish a job as well done. The authors suggest use of a glossary of above mentioned dental findings along with every Ante-Mortem/Post-Mortem form such that the investigators can look up other features that aren't on the form and extract more information resulting in a successful and accurate positive identification.

## **Conclusion**

A large number of mass disasters have been witnessed in the past and most of these disasters involved a fair number of casualties. The Aberfan disaster in 1966 resulted in 144 victims including 28 adults, the Pan Am Flight disaster in 1988 resulted in 270 deaths, the more recent WTC disaster in 2001 resulted in more than 3000 deaths. (Hackman, 2010)

The list just goes on but what is important is the number of victims involved in such disasters which makes it vital to utilize very little evidence to obtain a lot of information of any individual. A forensic odontologist must make sure all possible information is extracted from the victim in order to arrive at a proper and correct identification. One must not always depend on visual evidence and a combination of visual and methods such as detailed questionnaires may answer several questions and in turn help in the identification process, especially in mass disasters involving large numbers of victims It must always be remembered that there is no specific or minimum number of features that are expected to come out with a positive identification. The range lies between a single tooth being able to identify a person(ex: gold Inlay, tooth tattoos etc) to not being able to identify the person even with a full mouth orthopantomogram. (Pretty & Sweet, 2001) This must also involve asking leading questions to family members that may know more than what the radiograph can tell. One must be sure that all information is extracted from the evidence available in order to make positive identifications. Apart from the usual forms, these forms must also be made tablet and mobile device friendly , such that they can be used on tablets and mobile phones if need be.

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Appendix

**Tables**

**Table 1 showing the four categories of outcome of a DVI process**

Positive Identification	Items compared are sufficiently distinct in both the AM and PM records such that no prominent differences are identified.
Possible Identification	Common features are seen in both the AM and PM records but major information is absent from either of the sources that would enable a positive identification.
Insufficient Identification evidence	The suspected identity of a person cannot be ruled out, however the information is insufficient to arrive at a conclusive identification, hence viewed as inconclusive.
Exclusion	Major discrepancies are observed between the Am and the PM records hence deeming it a non-match. (Avon, 2004)

**Table 2: Computerized DVI database systems**

Software	Description
CAPMI (Computer Aided PM Identification System)	It is one of the well known identification systems that utilizes characteristics of dental work as codes instead of the dental features. This software basically compared AM codes with PM codes using AM records. This software then returns a list of individuals with characteristics that match the ones found on the victim and a conclusion is arrived at after elaborate visual identification.(Ramteke et al., 2012) This programme even had the versatility of comparing the AM data with the PM data or vice versa. However this programme required the operator to have a sound knowledge of the codes and the abbreviations of the programme installed rather than the dental knowledge. This programme also rejects records that don't match based on the sex entry. (Arneman, 1991)
Win ID	It is another such computer that utilizes both dental and anthropometric features found between the deceased and the possible matches. This software also accommodated for addition of features like physical appearance to its database.(Ramteke et al., 2012)
Makela had used TOOTHPIC and IDENTIFY	This database compared data from two models. The identical search compared information from all surfaces on each tooth with the available evidence to find the exact match. The programme also suggested a list of potential matches based on the findings but did not compensate for operator errors made at the data entry level. (Arneman, 1991)
Arneman had used IDENTIC	This software used minimalistic coding which meant personnel with minimal knowledge on dental restorative materials or procedures. It operates by running both a narrow and broad search for data based on tooth status, restorations and materials used to restore. Comparisons between ante-mortem and post-mortem findings are done and matched accordingly. (Arneman, 1991)
Brown had used OdontID.	OdontID features full on screen odontogram graphics of Interpol standards, which also includes FDI notation system texts. These texts can also be modified for systems other than FDI. Users can visualise and examine both ante-mortem and post-mortem odontograms and reports can

	be prepared in suitable format. (K.A Brown, 1987)
Disaster Victim Identification System International	<p>DVI systems International consists of two forms the AM/PM form 1 or F1 and AM/PM form 2 or F2. The F1 is a yellow form is made up of ante-mortem data from the victim and the pink post-mortem form 1 is used to record condition of the victim which is necessarily carried out by the Forensic Odontologist.</p> <p>Form 2 is used to number teeth based on the FDI system but users are allowed to shift between FDI, Universal or Haderup systems. This system has a default tooth numbering for permanent teeth but can be changes to primary teeth if necessary. This system is used to change the tooth number into the odontogram. (Torpet, 2005)</p>
CRISIS	Casualty Recording, Information Sorting and Identification System, was developed in 1985 as an initiative by the West Yorkshire Police in the United Kingdom. It is a main frame based computer programme which utilizes an onscreen odontogram for comparison between ante-mortem and post-mortem data. (Arneman, 1991)
DAVID (1997)	Disaster And Victim Identification was an Australian contribution to the disaster identification process. This database contained all ante-mortem information, the odontogram by the dentist, post-mortem details, disaster details and also details of the dentist. All information included is based on the Interpol DVI form. Due to uniformity issues, the software was never put into use. (Clement et al., 2006b)
IDENT	It is a computerised dental identification system developed in Sweden.
DIP3	Dental Identification Package (DIP) was first described by Kogan et al in 1974 (Al-Amad, Clement, McCullough, Morales, & Hill, 2007) and the DIP3 is a revised version of the original DIP . This software is made of 3 search modes. The first mode uses a Matching Factor or MF where the operator selects a particular output and the results are compared and matching is done. The second mode is a Selective Search where the operator has the freedom to search for dental features, age sex and other parameters. This search basically lets the operator choose identifiers and look for those features in the whole database. The third mode allows the operator to select any Missing Person or MP file and compare it with an Unidentified remain (UNID) and come up with an identification based on the similarities in features. (Kogon, Arnold, Wood, & Merner, 2010)

DVI International System / Plassdata	This is the most recent and advanced system proposed by the Interpol for DVI purposes. This system is designed such that it is able to present detailed and complex dental information and is even possible to share or transfer details of individuals information between countries making it very accessible. This system also enables automatic batch matching based on collective dental information available and a graphical dental comparison is presented that is easy to interpret.(PLASS, 2006)
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**Table 3 Dental features used in forensic analyses and identification**

Features	Items recorded
Based on eruption	Erupted, Un-erupted, Impacted
Based on presence or absence of teeth	Congenitally absent, Ante-mortem loss, Post-Mortem Loss
Based on tooth type	Permanent, deciduous, mixed, retained primary supernumerary
Based on tooth position	Malposed, transposed,
Based on crown morphology	Shape and size, thickness of enamel, point of contact
Based on crown pathology	Caries, Attrition, Erosion, presence of enamel pearls, peg laterals
Based on root Morphology	Dilaceration, Root fracture, hypercementosis, root resorptions, root hemisections.
Root canal morphology/ pathology	Size, number, shape Pulp stones, calcification, RCT, apicectomy.
Periapical pathology	Abscess, granuloma, cysts, cementoma, condensing osteitis
Restorations	Metallic, non-metallic, Full coverage, non-full coverage, implants, bridges, removable or fixed prosthesis, partial or full prosthesis
Based on gingival morphology	Contour Recession present or absent Enlarged or not enlarged Inter-proximal craters present or absent
Based on gingival colour changes	Inflammation present or absent Pigments present or absent If present: Pathological or physiological or racial
Plaque	Present or absent
Calculus	Present or absent
Periodontal ligament	Widened or normal (Pretty & Sweet, 2001)

**Figure 1 showing the AM (yellow) and PM (pink) dental sections of a DVI victim identification form**

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# The power of triangulation in social sciences research: Theory and practice

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## **Abstract**

The purpose of the paper is to present research undertaken on the Malaysian Public Service (MPS) performance appraisal decision. A qualitative and a quantitative approach were used. Semi-structured cognitive mapping interview techniques using a cognitive mapping protocol represent the qualitative approach in this study. For quantitative approach, questionnaire survey was used. The resultant causal cognitive maps are explored for what respondent understanding on cognitive processing model (CPM) steps as applied in appraisal decision-making. Respondent attitudes on the practice of CPM step was measure using a specific statistical test. This paper highlight the method used in this study and their significance in management research. From the research finding, it is clear that the use of triangulation was successful in exploring raters' understanding on their performance appraisal practice and attitude to it. Finally, the study discusses the implication of the research using triangulation for management research and also its strength for the future.

Keywords: cognitive processing models, decision-making process, performance appraisal system, public service, semi-structured interview, triangulation

## **Introduction**

The purpose of this paper is to analyse the use of triangulation in social sciences research. This paper also intends to elucidate and justify the methodological approach used, examine the assumptions underlying the use of a particular research approach, and provides argument for the preference of the methodology used. It is hoped that this will contribute to the understanding of the nature and validity of the research undertaken. This paper begins by reviewing the theoretical issues of research approach, the main features of the qualitative and quantitative methodologies, the significance of triangulation, and finally, tries to relate with what was practised in this research.

## **Research background**

Research is essentially an attempt to increase a body of knowledge through the discovery of new facts and relationships by a process of systematic enquiry (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). The research investigation must be logical, systematic, scientific, and concerned with seeking solutions to problems and answering research questions (Allison, 1994). As a result, one key to good research lies in selecting the most powerful research design and methods. Designing a research study involves a choice of research approach. There are three general categories of research approaches, namely exploratory, descriptive, and causal (Sekaran, 1992). Each category differs from the others in terms of research purposes, research questions, the precision of the formulated hypotheses, and the data collection methods that are used. It is important for the researcher to choose the most appropriate research approach to suit his/ her study. It is important, because it will affect the reliability and validity of the research outcomes.

The choice of methodology in social sciences generally has become a problematic issue. For example, Hardy (1985) claim that there is no perfect methodology. The existing methodologies tend to produce different results and perform different actions (Mintzberg, 1983). This leads to the debate on which methodologies are appropriate to a particular piece of research. Two types, which are widely practised in any social research, are the qualitative approach and the quantitative approach. However, what type of approach is to be used depends on several factors like the nature and objective of the research (Hardy, 1985), the context of a particular research setting, and the specific problem (Burgess, 1993). In this paper, a brief overview, only the nature and characteristics of the quantitative and qualitative research approaches are discussed.

## **Triangulation**

Both the qualitative and quantitative methods have relative strengths and weaknesses. Whilst the arguments and differences in views still continue, more moderate views are arising to propose integration and complementation of the qualitative and quantitative methodologies, instead of fighting each other over their relative supremacy (Bulmer, 1984; Rodrigues, 1987; Brunnen, 1992). The researcher may thus use different approaches in different parts of the study to collect data. The decision about using a combination methodology may be based on the point of intellectual breadth and rigors offered by this method (Silverman, 1985).

The proponents of triangulation (i.e., combination of the qualitative and quantitative approaches) argue that as each of the methods has its weaknesses, the combination of both could offset the weakness of one against the strength of another (Sieber, 1973; McClinock *et al.*, 1983; Miles, 1983; Rodrigues, 1987; Brannen, 1992). A combination of two methodologies can offer good data and results because both are mutually exclusive of each other (Butrons, 1989).

## **Definition**

The term triangulation has been borrowed from the field of navigation and surveying. Triangulation uses a minimum of three reference points to determine the location of an object (Gill and Johnson, 1993). However, that does not mean that triangulation only uses three types of methods or perspectives, because in practice more than that can be utilised (Janesick, 1994). More practically, triangulation is the use of two or more research sources, methods, investigators or theories to

examine the same problem (Robson, 1996). Triangulation shows the use of multiple data sources. Watson (1997) names it as a pragmatic pluralist approach, and sees benefits for management research by using insights from a variety of social science disciplines to explain human and individual action and behaviour in organisations. This multi-disciplinary research is relevant to explain and provide understanding for the functional activities of management practice (Knights and Willmott, 1997).

### **Types of Triangulation**

Denzin (1978) recognises that there are four basic types of triangulation.

1. Data triangulation – involves using a variety of data sources. Patton (1987) provides some guidance by mentioning that this may involve interviewing people in different status positions, or with differing points of view. In an advance, Easterby-Smith (1993) suggests that data triangulation refers to the collection of data from various time frames and sources.
2. Investigator triangulation – several investigators are used to gather and compare data.
3. Theory triangulation – multiple perspectives and theory are used to examine and understand a single set of data or problem.
4. Methodological triangulation – multiple research methods are used to study a single problem. To illustrate, qualitative and quantitative methods may be used, such as interviews, observations, questionnaires and documents for examining the same research problem (Patton, 1987; Easterby-Smith, 1993).

However, Janesick (1994) suggests that there is one in addition to the above, namely interdisciplinary triangulation. By this, he implies that the triangulation is mainly entrenched in psychology, whereas broadening the investigation to use other disciplines such as sociology, history, anthropology, and geography can enhance the level of understanding.

### **Advantages and Disadvantages of Triangulation**

Robson (1996) pointed out that multiple methods offered by triangulation can enhance interpretability of the data. It means that the findings from a primarily quantitative study can be better understood when complemented by a qualitative narrative account. Similarly, predominantly qualitative data can be enhanced when supported by quantitative evidence, which has the potential to buttress and possibly consolidate emergent themes. Moreover, using triangulation provides a means of testing one source of information against other sources. For example, if two sources of data give the same messages, then to some extent, they cross-validate each other. If the opposite happens, this may stimulate the investigator to examine the reason why. This view is supported by Brannen (1992) and Easterby-Smith (1993), who respectively assert that triangulation of theories can reveal insights not evidenced from one data source, and research problems can be better formulated by using multiple methods.

Some data sources have weaknesses, and triangulation can overcome that problem. In particular, Jankowicz (1991) states that the survey method is reliant upon verbal or written accounts which may be inaccurate for a number of reasons. For example, the respondent may wish to impress the researcher, so relays information they feel required of them, rather than what is accurate. Moreover, a respondent's memory and recall of events may be incomplete, and need supplementing of interviews with non-survey methods, such as archival review and structured observation (Jankowicz, 1991).

Triangulation is felt to increase the validity and reliability of research findings. This is because other methods of data collection can be used to complement the data on one specific issue. Sapsford and Jupp (1996) recognise that comparing data from observations with subsequent participant interviews can lead to 'respondent validation'. For example, the thoughts, motives and perceptions of the participants enable the researcher to place behaviour in a social context, which may not have been the case otherwise.



With regard to investigator triangulation, one of the advantages is that a multi-disciplinary research team can provide an opportunity for the individual investigators to examine the same situation (Easterby-Smith, 1993). Moreover, these investigators are able to compare, develop and refine themes using insights gained from their different perspectives. In relation to that, Eisenhart (1989) pointed out that investigator triangulation provides stronger substantiation of constructs and hypotheses.

More specifically, multiple investigators have two key advantages in that they enhance the creative potential of the study, and by way of converging observations, the confidence of the findings. Eisenhardt (1989) recognises that convergent perceptions add to the empirical grounding of the hypotheses, and increase the likelihood of surprising findings. Multiple investigators may also minimise the risk of missing findings, in the sense that the same investigators may not have a maximum access to the data. Hence, when a pattern from one data source is corroborated by the evidence from another, the finding is stronger and better grounded (Eisenhardt, 1989).

A further significant advantage of triangulation is that combining of research methods enables the researcher to design the study according to the purposes and circumstances of the research problem, rather than any methodological or philosophical requirement of the quantitative or qualitative standpoint (Hammersley, 1992).

Despite triangulation being an attractive option to the researcher, there are some disadvantages of the approach which need to be taken into account before reaching a decision. Hall and Hall (1996) argue that, in spite of its intuitive appeal, the suggestion that quantitative and qualitative research may be combined for the purposes of triangulation is by no means as unproblematic as it initially appears. This is probably because some authors, supportive of triangulation, omit to mention any difficulties with implementation. For instance, Grenfield (1996) describe triangulation as a process of checking whether different data sources and methods allow the researcher to reach the same conclusions.

One issue regarding methodological triangulation is that it is not conclusive that quantitative techniques actually tap into the same sort of information as qualitative ones (Hall and Hall, 1996). This view is echoed by Easterby-Smith (1993) who asserts that the positivist perspective seeks a single, objective and stable truth which is not compatible with the social constructionist, whose view of reality is flexible, fluid, and continually renegotiated. Therefore, Easterby-Smith (1993) advises researchers to use different methods within the same paradigm whenever possible, and proceed with care when moving across paradigms.

Additional disadvantages of triangulation are that it is time consuming (Gill and Johnson, 1991), and expensive (Patton, 1987; Gill and Johnson, 1991). Any research has its own constraints, and one of the important things is time. The researcher must prepare a suitable schedule to run the research with the specific methods. As a result, a lot of time, expense and energy will be used. In practice, the researcher always prefers a specific approach of research, because of the speciality and expertise he/she has. In relation to that, researcher bias may occur, and result in one of the accounts being used to undercut another (Silverman, 1985).

### **Research Methodology Chosen in This Study**

It is always a dilemma for a researcher to decide initially the type of research methodology to use. Both the qualitative and quantitative methodologies have relative strengths and weaknesses. The quantitative methodology allow measurement of the perceptions, reactions, and attitudes of a great many people by a limited set of questionnaires, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of data. By contrast, the qualitative method typically produces details about a small number of cases, which increases understanding of the cases and the issue studied, but reduces generalisability (Patton, 1987). The quantitative methodology relies on the use of standardised instrument, enabling the researcher to reach out to a large numbers of respondents, providing data

representativeness and data generalisability. This type of data collection method is appropriate where the purpose of the study is to determine how many, what, when, and where (Higson, 1987).

In order to get most information out of the situation, triangulation was used in this study based on the strengths and alternatives offered. Integration of the two methodologies therefore can offset the weaknesses of one against the strengths of the other, since different styles of research complement each other (Sieber, 1973; Miles, 1983; Jack, 1983, McClintock *et al.*, 1983; Bulmer, 1984; Silverman, 1985). That means that in this study qualitative and quantitative methods are used to optimise the data within the topic of the cognitive processing model (CPM) in the performance appraisal system (PAS) in the Malaysian Public Service (MPS). By incorporating the two methodologies, this research gathered information from multiple sources and respondents, thereby aiming to gain depth and generalisability, and to provide a higher degree of confidence of results. The quantitative methods allow measurement of the perceptions, reactions, and attitudes of a great many people by a limited set of questionnaires, thus facilitating comparison and statistical aggregation of data. It is qualitative in the sense that it involves interviews and analysis of the interviews by using non-statistical tests. The qualitative method typically produces details about a small number of cases, which increases understanding of the cases and the issue studied. It is quantitative in the sense that it comprises a comparative analysis of the performance appraisal process by the employees.

In the field of performance appraisal research, both the qualitative and quantitative approaches are used. It is common practice in public sector performance appraisal to discuss the conceptual framework, developments and comparative analysis of performance policy and practice through a qualitative approach. On the other hand, the survey association, disclosure and perceptions of the users have been conducted through quantitative survey (Daniels and Daniels, 1991; Mignot and Dolly, 1996).

In this study, data were collected in two phases. Cognitive mapping technique (semi-structured causal interview) was used in Phase One to explore raters' understanding of the CPM. Decision Explorer (a cognitive mapping software tool) was used to map raters' models of their own performance appraisal process, and these were explored for evidence of the CPM which underlay their appraisal decision-making. Phase Two was to examine the attitudes of raters and ratees regarding the CPM of the raters in the MPS PAS and the appraisal process itself. Data on attitudes of the raters and ratees were collected through a questionnaire survey, and was examined by a set of research hypotheses.

In this study, three basic types of triangulation proposed by Denzin (1978) were followed. Data triangulation was applied in this study. Data were gathered from respondents of different status (Principal, Deputy Principal, Afternoon Coordinator, Senior Teacher and Teachers), and of course they provide a different point of view. Theory triangulation was covered by an extensive discussion on performance appraisal theory and cognitive processing theory. For methodological triangulation, this study used semi-structured interview, cognitive mapping techniques, questionnaire survey, and also documentation analysis. This study also used interdisciplinary triangulation suggested by Janesick (1994). A combination of at least three disciplines of knowledge was used in this study, i.e. human resource management, applied psychology, and cognitive science. Only investigator triangulation was not practised in this study. This is because researcher himself conducted all the data collection process in this study.

## **Results and Discussion**

Different types of methods were used to collect the data in this study. All the research questions were answered by using data from semi-structured interview and cognitive mapping techniques. In general, the research findings show those raters (novice and expert) have different types of cognitive map, and different types of emphasis in term of concepts used, concept links, complexity, and style. From the research findings, it is clear that the raters have a positive attitude on the importance of CPM steps in the decision-making process. It is clear too that the raters in the

Malaysian Public Sector have a CPM in performance appraisal decisions that are parallel with the CPM offered by the literature. Quantitative methodology provides rich data which were collected by questionnaire survey. The results from hypothesis testing support the qualitative findings by showing that there is no significant difference towards the practice of CPM steps in the raters' decision-making process. As mentioned above in discussion of triangulation, this methodology has a substantial power to explain and explore the focus of the study. Multiple methods offered can enhance interpretability of the data (Robson, 1996). Better understanding on the issue was offered by a combination of both types of data and in line with suggestions by Brannen (1992) and Easterby-Smith (1993), who respectively assert that triangulation can reveal insights and evidence on research problems by using multiple methods of data collection.

One of the big advantages of using triangulation is felt to increase the validity and reliability of research findings. This is because other methods of data collection can be used to complement the data on one specific issue. In this study, the results from semi-structured interview using cognitive mapping techniques were checked and confirmed by comparing the notes in Post-It noting and details from the tape recording. To validate and confirm the reliability of the data in the qualitative approach, data from the questionnaire survey were used. Consequently results from both type of data collection approaches were used to compare and contrast the results.

One of the significant advantages of triangulation is that combining research methods enables the researcher to design the study according to the purposes and circumstances of the research problem. In this study, during the semi-structured interview, the researcher used a Post-it note to record the important key words used by the respondents in explaining their task. At the same time, the researcher used a tape recorder to record the interview. However, not all respondents (50%) were willing have their conversation recorded on tape.

### **Limitation**

Although the research has generated important and interesting findings, there are limitations in this study while using the triangulation approach. Several problems arose during the use of cognitive mapping techniques. Face-to-face, semi-structured interviews call for a lot of skill to conduct them. During the interview session, it was hard to memorise and catch the key words or concepts produced by the respondents. If this issue is not handled properly, this may lead to misunderstanding of the main points of discussion. To avoid this type of problem, the researcher asked permission from the respondent to tape record the discussion. More than 50% of respondents were not happy for the researcher to do so. As an alternative for the researcher to get genuine information from the respondent, the researcher used 'Post-it-note' techniques to record the interview details. Sometimes, the researcher could not make a note of what the respondent said, and use of a tape recorder was helpful to overcome this problem.

Another limitation was because of the narrow scope of the issues identified (the cognitive processing models), the time sensitivity of models, and the fact that the elicitation process inevitably led to changes in the cognitive maps studied. The narrow scope of the study in one aspect was good in terms of being clearly specific about what issue wanted to be explored. Sometimes, it limited the interview process itself, because the issue is quite hard and very difficult to explain in words. Maybe it is right to say that this issue was dealing with the internal mental processes of the respondent, which happen automatically and are very hard to explain. These problems limit the generalisability of the results presented here. The CPM model itself is still in the process of being established and developed. Sometimes, scholars and researchers employ the terms and concepts used to discuss the process interchangeably. It can maybe cause confusion, and needs a long time to really understand them. The elicitation process can of course be done in different ways, and maybe there are better techniques to offer strength to certain aspects of the process. These problems further limit the generalisation of the results.

This study was attempting to look for evidence of different patterns and styles in the cognitive maps of the raters in the CPM steps. Cognitive maps of the raters were compared and these

were quite limited ones. Small sample size was the main limitation of the analysis. Additionally, the small sample size adopted (11 novice raters and 11 expert raters) and the voluntary nature of their participation means that these results may be open to response bias, and the analyses must be interpreted with caution.

Finally, as mentioned in discussing the research method, a descriptive analysis adopted in this study has its own limitations, which may also limit the findings of the study. Descriptive analysis was merely used to analyse and interpret qualitative data. Although Decision Explorer Software was used in the first place, all the interview data must be analysed by the researcher. The researcher used key words or concepts in the coding process. During that process, the respondent's words during the interview session were analysed and then translated into English. In this process, sometimes the researcher felt it quite hard to find the exact word in English with the same meaning as the Malay word. In this case, the solution was to find suitable or appropriate words which more or less explained the same things.

### **Directions for Future Research**

This study highlights several issues that need further research, particularly on the cognitive approach in the performance appraisal decision. This study was more on a short-run scale, using only semi-structured interview. It is suggested that future research on cognitive maps can be conducted in a longitudinal design. It is hoped that this will provide a powerful idiographic method to analyse the diversity of individual trends of change in the process of decision-making. This research has successfully explored cognitive maps of the raters, and their attitude on CPM concepts in the decision-making process. Maybe in-depth study should be made to explore every single step in CPM specifically. It is hoped the internal and external processes of those steps can be explained and give better understanding about them.

Second, this study highlights research on CPM steps in the performance appraisal decision, particularly in the Malaysian context. In addition, further research should be carried out in another context, maybe in another type of service classification, another type of decision-making task, in another place like the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) countries, and maybe in a Western or other setting. Maybe research findings from the research can be used to confirm the findings of this research, whether similar findings do occur, or whether the findings here have occurred by chance.

### **Conclusion**

The paper started with a discussion on research background and then explained the cognitive mapping techniques chosen. Discussion on the results showed the cognitive maps of the raters in MPS can be explored using this appropriate and significant technique. This paper also give consideration of the implications of the used of this technique in management research. In this paper, the emphasis has been upon the used of cognitive mapping techniques to study the decision-making process. This paper offers a new perspective to understanding performance rating by looking at the cognitive processing models of the raters by using a qualitative approach. As a result, the research should contribute to a better understanding of the performance appraisal process as undertaken by raters. By explaining the cognitive processing models of the raters, the research offers an input for policy-making and practice to improve the accuracy of performance rating.

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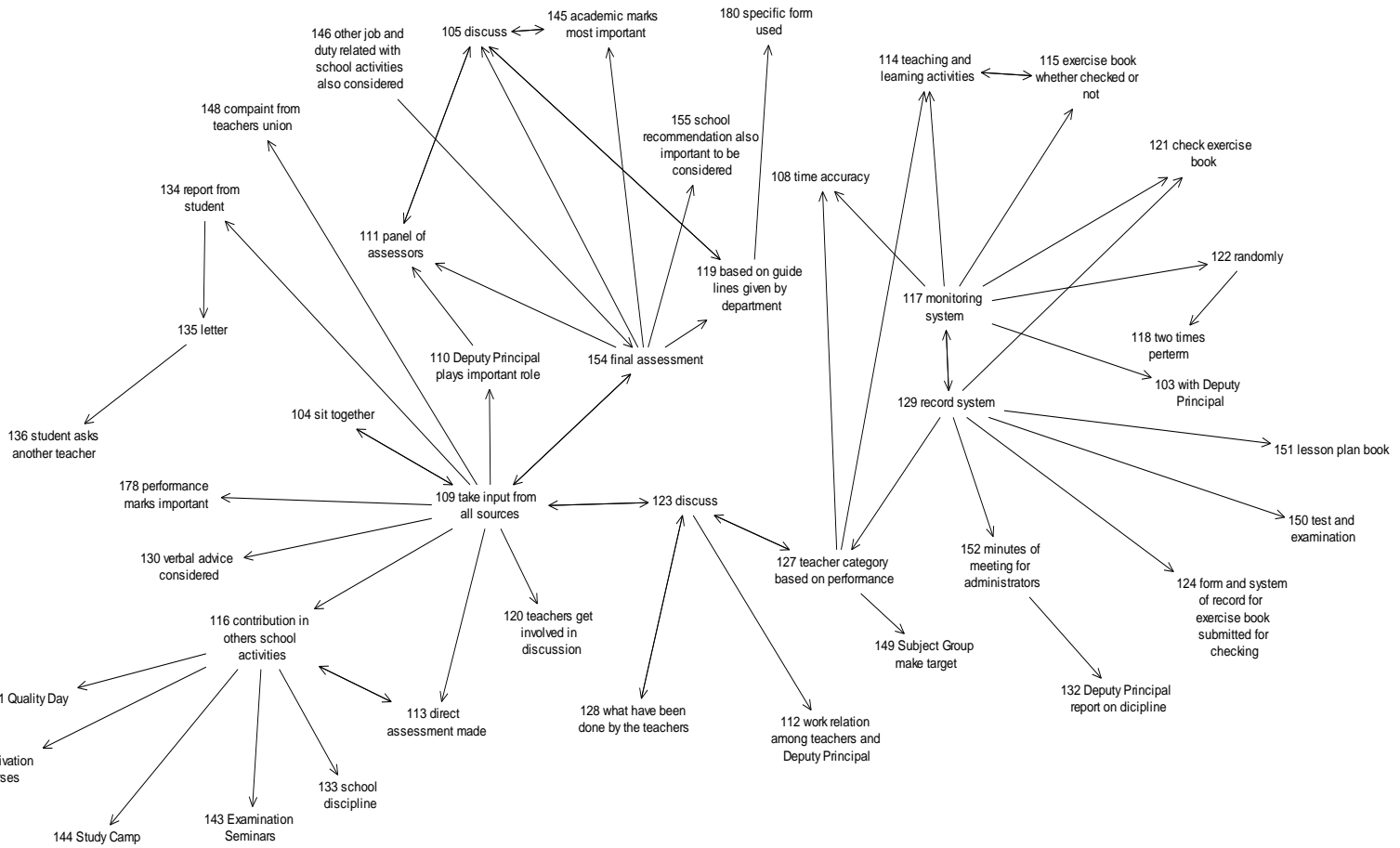
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**APPENDIX:**

**Appendix A: Novice 1 CPM in Performance Appraisal**



**Appendix A: Expert 1 CPM in Performance Appraisal**





**Table 2 Novice Raters' Map Links**

Rater Steps	Obs link	Cat link	Sto link	Ret link	Int link	Dec link	Total
N1	9	1	5	5	20	10	50
N2	18	3	5	10	2	16	54
N3	15	7	(1)	5	14	18	58
N4	19	2	9	10	11	14	65
N5	14	(1)	3	0	11	3	32
N6	3	14	10	6	32	13	78
N7	8	1	2	2	15	28	56
N8	1	1	0	3	2	7	14
N9	10	0	5	3	8	11	37
N0	11	0	10	10	12	6	49
Total	108	29	49	54	127	126	493
Mean	10.8	2.9	4.9	5.4	12.7	12.6	49.3

Key: Obs = observation, Cat = categorisation, Sto= storage, Ret= retrieval,  
Int= integration, Dec= decision

# Understanding *Koinonia* and *Agape* in the New Testament: Implications for Ecumenism in Urhoboland of Delta State, Nigeria

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## **Abstract**

The understanding of *koinonia* and *agape* in the New Testament relates to fellowship and love. While the Greek translation *koinonia* means fellowship, *agape* on the other hand means love. Using the church community hermeneutics paradigm which fell within the inculturation model as a methodology, this work aimed at the exposition of the New Testament understanding of *Koinonia* (fellowship) and *Agape* (love) as against that of Urhobo traditional understanding of the subject matter and seeks to challenge the church in Urhoboland of the need to fellowship together occasionally as one body in Christ within the understanding of ecumenism and to see the need to build peace and jointly carry out community development. The study showed that *koinonia* and *agape* are synonymous with *orhukwugbe* and *eguono* respectively. Being that the New Testament concept of *koinonia* and *agape* are similar with the Urhobo concepts of *orhukwugbe remo rhi Christi*, *imonhi rh evu rhi Christi*, *ekwhomagbe rhe emo rhi Christi* and *eguono*, it could be easily understood by the Urhobo Christian as basis for healthy ecumenism. For Christians to embrace ecumenism in Urhoboland there is the need for a down to earth understanding of the biblical meaning of fellowship and love. Based on this, the study was concluded on the presupposition that a biblically based fellowship that is anchored on the understanding of the love of God through Christ can promote ecumenical unity in Urhoboland.

**Key Words:** Ecumenism, the Urhobo, *Koinonia*, *Agape* and New Testament

## 1. Introduction

The early church contended with issues especially that of dichotomy between the Jews and Gentiles and persecution from the Roman government. There was no denominational system in the early Church. Today in Urhoboland, denomination of churches have sprang up from nooks and crannies claiming Christ as the head of the church yet they regard each other as rivals not as co-workers in the vineyard of one Christ. In the New Testament, believers in Christ were held together by way of fellowship. They came together in one place to worship. The act of coming together was referred to as fellowship. The New Testament word for fellowship is *koinonia* (κοινωνία) and it means communion by intimate participation. The word is used frequently in the *New Testament* of the *Bible* to describe the relationship within the *Early Christian church* as well as the act of breaking bread in the manner which Christ prescribed during the *Passover meal* (John 6:48-69, Matthew 26:26-28, 1 Corinthians 10:16, 1 Corinthians 11:24). As a result, the word is used within the Christian Church to mean participation in church activities such as prayers, communion, ecumenism, etc.

Although, the contemporary church in Urhoboland is made up of denominations, the need to relate with one another as co-Christians is very key to peaceful coexistence among Christians. It is mind-bugging to see that these churches who claim Christ are divided. They find it difficult to come together to worship or carry out issues of common interest even though they pretend to be tied together by ecumenical affinities like, Christian Association of Nigeria, Pentecostal Fellowship of Nigeria, Christian Council of Nigeria, etc. It is on this basis that this paper aims at challenging the church in Urhoboland of the need to fellowship together occasionally as sign of being ones in Christ within the understanding of ecumenism and to see the need to build peace and jointly carry out community development. The methodology adopted for this work is the church community hermeneutics paradigm and this falls within the Inculturation Hermeneutics model. This methodology has to do with interpretation of the bible from a local church perspective so as to bring the meaning of biblical texts in the cultural attire of the people of such locality in such a way that the text become very easy for the local people to understand.

## 2. Some Clarifications of Terms

**2.1 Ecumenism:** According to the Encarta Dictionary (2008), ecumenism refers to a movement for worldwide cooperation and unity among Christian churches. The term ecumenical is derived from the Greek word *oikoumenē* ( which literally means the whole inhabited world); thus, ecumenical councils of the church, the first of which was held at Nicaea in 325 AD, were so designated because representatives attended from churches throughout the known world (Till 1972, 15). In the 19th century, the term ecumenical came to denote to the Roman Catholic Church a concern for Christian unity and for a renewal of the church. To Protestants who have pioneered in and advanced the modern ecumenical movement since the early 20th century, the term has applied not only to Christian unity but, more broadly, to the worldwide mission of Christianity (Akhilomen 2011, 229). Until the 20th century, only sporadic efforts were made to reunite a Christendom shattered through the centuries by schisms, the Reformation, and other disputes pressured toward unity was aided in the 19th century by the development of such organizations as the missionary and Bible societies and the Young Men's Christian Association and Young Women's Christian Association, in all of which Protestants of varying denominations joined in support of common causes. In the early 20th century, the unity movement was almost exclusively Protestant.

Till, B. 1972. *The Churches Search for Unity*. Britain: Richard Clay Ltd., 15.

**2.2 The Urhobo:** The Urhobo are Africans and they are located in Nigeria in West Africa. Just like any other Africans they have their cultural heritage. The Urhobo according to Ottuh quoting Otite “form an ethnic group in Delta State of Nigeria who speak Urhobo language” (Ottuh 2012, 1-21). Ottuh, also quoting Henigie says that the Urhobo are a major ethnic group in Delta State and are located in over eighty villages and towns including a few cities like Warri, Effurun, Sapele, Ugheli,

etc (Ottuh 2013, 20-21). The Urhobo nation is made up of different subgroups-tribes such as Ugheli, Isoko, Agbon, Uvwie, Okpe, Abraka, Udu, Idjere, Oghara, Orogun, Agbasa to mention but a few. Their major occupation includes farming and fishing. The land is blessed with mineral resources like crude oil. They are found in the Niger Delta Area. The Urhobo are people of southern Nigeria, near the northwestern Niger River delta. Delta State is one of the 36 states of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Apart from Urhobo language, the Urhobo people communicate in Pidgin English. The Isoko and Urhobo are related in language and culture ([www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urhobo\\_people](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urhobo_people)). The Urhobo now live in a territory bounded by latitudes 6° and 5°, 15° North and Longitudes 5°, 40° and 6°, 25° East in the Bendel State of Nigeria. Their neighbours are the Isoko to the South East, the Itsekiri to the West, the Bini to the North, Ijaw to the South and Ukwani (kwale-Aboh) to the North East. The territory is covered by a network of streams whose volumes of water and flow are directly concerned with the climatic season; wet season; April–October and dry season, November–March ([www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urhobo\\_people](http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urhobo_people)).

### **3. The Contemporary Situation of the Study**

The situation of the church in relation to ecumenism in Urhoboland is an aftermath effect of historical antecedence of ecumenical development in Nigeria. In this line of thought, Akhilomen (2011, 228) states:

*After a century of the birth of the modern ecumenical movement in the Edinburgh Conference of 1910 and at the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth-first century, the scandal of Christian rivalry and disunity of churches remains embarrassingly rife in Nigeria. Despite the advances in inter-faith dialogues and ecumenical endeavours, nationally and globally, the vexed problems associated with the divisive character of the church stares all in the face. Apart from the scandalous effect on missionary enterprises, the divisions and disunity among churches have brought the Christian faith to ridicule in the eyes of non-Christians; especially with the increasing proliferation of churches in Nigeria mainly accountable to schisms.*

Mindful of the imperative of Christian unity as requested in Jesus Christ's prayer in John 17:21, the ideal of *oikoumene* had remained desirable hence prior to the twentieth century, efforts were made at repairing divisions and restoring Church unity. In the council at Jerusalem (AD 49), the great ecumenical councils of Nicea (AD 325), Ephesus (AD 431), Lyons (1274), Ferrara-Florence (1438-39) and the colloquy of Marburg (1529) futile efforts were made at dealing with the differences among christians and striving at realizing a visible organic unity of the church (Akhilomen 2011, 232). The above issues raised by Akhilomen especially that of schism is still prevalent in the church community in Urhoboland.

Therefore, the contemporary situation of the interpretation and application of the New Testament terms *koinonia* and *agape* is the situation of disunity, discrimination and hate aroused by the immaturity in the operation of church denominationalism in Urhoboland of Nigeria. Denominationalism has divided the church in Urhoboland like the relationship that exist between cat and rat. This disunity is enhanced by the outright display of superiority of one church denomination over the other. This has brought bitterness and unconstructive competition and rivalries. Some times, fight breaks out among Christians of different denominations over issues of land. At the end, the matter is taken to unbelievers to resolve. Marriage between one member of a church and a member of another denomination is technically prohibited due to doctrinal nuances. Such marriage is even being termed by these churches as inter-faith marriage not intra-faith marriages. Although, they call themselves Christians yet they refer to themselves as people of inter-faith denomination in words and action.

Some times, the fight is between the orthodox churches and the Pentecostal churches. While the Pentecostals feel too hot to mingle with the Orthodox churches, the Orthodox churches on the other hand feel too theologically and administratively superior to mingle with the Pentecostal churches. This understanding makes it difficult for all the churches in the area to come together for

an interdenominational service or relationships. Although, interdenominational services do take place in Urhoboland, discrimination do exist in disguise. The Christians in Urhoboland find it difficult to speak in one voice. They accused one another and wash their dirty linen in the public. Moreover, people of the same denomination discriminate against each other on the bases of ethnic affinity. Positions are shared based on ethnic relevance. This has not augured well among Christians especially those who are victims of such discriminations. Although, all the church denominations claim to be tied together under the umbrella of Christian Association of Nigeria (CAN), the evidence of Christian unity and fellowship is yet to be attained. This is why the New Testament concept of *koinonia* and *agape* must be culturally understood and interpreted against the above background.

#### **4. New Testament Usage of *koinonia* and *Agape*: An Exegetical Study**

Broomall (2004, 218-220) states that the Greek words "*koinonia* and *metoche* (and their cognates) are the principal terms expressing fellowship in New Testament literature." He buttressed further that both in classical and biblical usage these terms express joint participation in person project and secondarily association or mutuality of spirit. The essential meaning of the Greek word *koinonia* (Christian fellowship) embraces the concepts conveyed in the English terms community, communion, joint participation, sharing and intimacy. *Koinonia* (Christian fellowship) can therefore refer in some contexts to a jointly contributed gift (Thayer, 1885:352). The word appears 19 times in most editions of the Greek New Testament. The New American Standard Exhaustive Concordance says that in the New American Standard Bible, the word *koinonia* is translated "fellowship" (twelve times), "sharing" (three times), "participation" (two times) and "contribution" (two times). In the New Testament, the basis of communion begins with a joining of Jesus with the community of the faithful. In this context, such union is also experienced in practical daily life. The same bonds that linked the individual to Jesus also link him or her with other Christians. The New Testament describe those bonds as so vital and genuine that a deep level of intimacy can be experienced among the members of a local church (Richards 1985, 275-276).

The first usage of *koinonia* (fellowship) in the Greek New Testament is found in Acts 2:42-47, where we read a striking description of the common life shared by the early Christian believers in Jerusalem:

*They devoted themselves to the apostles' teaching and to the communion, to the breaking of bread and to prayer...All the believers were together and had everything in common. Selling their possessions and goods, they gave to anyone as he had need...They broke bread in their homes and ate together with glad and sincere hearts, praising God and enjoying the favor of all the people.*

Communion itself was the breaking of bread and the form of worship and prayer. It was in the breaking of the bread that the Apostles "recognized" Christ and it was in the breaking of bread (called Communion) that they celebrated Christ's Passion, Death and Resurrection in obedience to his Last Supper instruction: "Do this in memory of me." A special New Testament application of the word *koinonia* (fellowship) is to describe the Communion that existed at the celebration of the Lord's Supper. For example, 1 Corinthians 10:16 (KJV) use the English word "communion" to represent the Greek word *koinonia*. The cup of blessing which we bless, is the communion of the blood of Christ and the bread which we break, is the communion of the body of Christ. Any common meal certainly could represent a "sharing." The *koinonia* (fellowship) is viewed as much deeper, however, when the meal is associated with a spiritual purpose. Joining in the Lord's Supper is uniting oneself with other believers in the objective reality of Christ's death and resurrection (Robinson 1979, 752-753).

The word fellowship (*koinonia*) has such a multitude of meanings that no single English word is adequate to express its depth and richness. *Koinonia* has its etymology (root word) from the Greek word *koinos*, meaning common. *Koinonia* (fellowship) is used to indicate building a community or teamwork and as such it embraces a strong commitment to *Kalos k'agathos* meaning "good and good", an inner goodness toward virtue, and an outer goodness toward social relationships. In the context of outer goodness, translated into English, the meaning of *koinonia* holds the idea of joint

participation in something with someone, such as in a community, or team or an alliance or joint venture. Those who have studied the word find there is always an implication of action included in its meaning. The word is used in a variety of related contexts such as:

- i. Sharing: In Acts chapter 4, the concept of *koinonia* as sharing was implicit and it reads:  
*Now the multitude of those who believed were of one heart and one soul; neither did anyone say that any of the things he possessed was his own, but they had all things in common. And with great power the apostles gave witness to the resurrection of the Lord Jesus. And great grace was upon them all. Nor was there anyone among them who lacked; for all who were possessors of lands or houses sold them, and brought the proceeds of the things that were sold, and laid them at the apostles' feet; and they distributed to each as anyone had need (Acts 4:32-35, NKJ).*

Another Greek noun form for fellowship is *koinonos* in this context, means 'a sharer' as in to share with one another in a possession held in common. It implies the spirit of generous sharing or the act of giving as contrasted with selfish getting. *Koinonos* also denote a partaker or partner and in I Corinthians 10:20 it is used with *ginomai* to read communion with, fellowship with etc (Vine 1996, 233). When *koinonia* is present, the spirit of sharing and giving becomes tangible. In most contexts, generosity is not an abstract ideal, but a demonstrable action resulting in a tangible and realistic expression of giving. Its Old Testament equivalent is *maharesa* and it means sharing or plowshare as could be seen in I Samuel 13:20 (Strong 2001, 1412). In this context, it means sharing something through the aid of an object either for the benefit of all or parting. In classical Greek, *koinonein* means "to have a share in a thing," as when two or more people hold something, or even all things, in common. It can mean "going shares" with others, thereby having "business dealings," such as joint ownership of a ship. It can also imply "sharing an opinion" with someone, and therefore agreeing with him, or disagreeing in a congenial way. Only participation as a contributive member allows one to share in what others have. What is shared, received or given becomes the common ground through which *Koinonia* becomes real. The Church of today must learn from the early church in the aspect of sharing. Although the church in Uthmaniyah as it stands today may not be able to operate absolute communism, the church must uplift the spirit of sharing with one another both in material things and ideas.

- ii. Relationships: In the New Testament, brotherhood is used as tie of fellowship with one another as could be seen in I Thessalonians 5:14-15-

*"Now we exhort you, brethren, warn those who are unruly, comfort the fainthearted, uphold the weak, be patient with all. See that no one renders evil for evil to anyone, but always pursue what is good both for yourselves and for all."*

**The word brethren in the Greek word is *adelphos*** and it means a brother (whether born of the same two parents or only of the same father or mother), people having the same national ancestor, belonging to the same people, or countryman, a fellow believer, united to another by the bond of affection or association or Christians (Harrison 2004,105-106). The *adelphos* (brethren) give the connotation of *koinonia* (fellowship). *Koinonos* in classical Greek means a companion, a partner or a joint-owner. In this context, *koinonia* can imply an association, common effort, or a partnership in common. The common ground by which the two parties are joined together creates an aligned relationship, such as a fellowship or partnership. *Koinonia* (fellowship) in this understanding can also mean connection with another or common interest. In the **New Testament**, in **Luke 5:10**, James, John, and Simon are called partners (*koinonia*). The joint participation was a shared fishing business. Two people may enter into marriage in order to have "*koinonia* of life, that is to say, to live together a life in which everything is shared in common. *Koinonia* was used to refer to the marriage bond, and it suggested a powerful common interest that could hold two or more persons together. The term *koinonia* (fellowship) can also relate to a spiritual relationship. In this sense, it means something that is held and shared jointly with others for God, and it also speaks of man's relationship with God. The early Christian community also saw fellowship as a relationship with the **Holy Spirit**.

In this context, *koinonia* highlights a higher purpose or mission that benefits the greater good of the members as a whole. The term enthusiasm is connected to this meaning of *koinonia* for it signifies incitement with the Spirit of God in us. To create a bond between comrades is the meaning of *koinonia* when people are recognized, share their joy and pains together, and are united because of their common experiences, interests and goals. Fellowship creates a mutual bond which overrides each individual's pride, vanity, and individualism, fulfilling the human yearning with fraternity, belonging, and companionship. This meaning of *koinonia* accounts for the ease by which sharing and generosity flow. When combined with the spiritual implications of *koinonia*, fellowship provides a joint participation in God's grace and gives the understanding of common possession of spiritual values. Thus, early **Greco-Roman Christians** had a fellowship in God, in which they shared the common experience of joys, fears, tears, and divine glory. In this manner, those who shared believed their true wealth lay not in what they had, but in what they gave to others. Fellowship is never passive in the meaning of *koinonia*, it is always linked to action, not just being together, but also doing together. Fellowship brings about a close and intimate relationship, sharing of ideas, good communication, and frankness, as in a true, blessed interdependent friendship among multiple group members. It is against this background that Christians in Urhoboland are to understand the true meaning of ecumenism.

iii. Community: The concept of *koinonia* as community of believers in Christ is present Galatians 3:26-29 and I Corinthians 12:12-13 among others:

*For you are all sons of God through faith in Christ Jesus. For as many of you as were baptized into Christ have put on Christ. There is neither Jew nor Greek, there is neither slave nor free, there is neither male nor female; for you are all one in Christ Jesus. And if you are Christ's, then you are Abraham's seed, and heirs according to the promise (Galatians 3:26-29, NKJ). For as the body is one and has many members, but all the members of that one body, being many, are one body, so also is Christ. For by one Spirit we were all baptized into one body-- whether Jews or Greeks, whether slaves or free- and have all been made to drink into one Spirit (I Corinthians 12:12-13, NKJ).*

The word community in this context is the community of believers in Christ. The community of believers in Christ is also being referred to as *ekklesia* (Church). This Church consists of those who have accepted Jesus Christ as Lord and saviour and were baptized by one baptism of the Holy Spirit (Robinson 2004, 123-126). The idea of community denotes a "common unity" of purpose and interests. By engaging in this united relationship a new level of consciousness and conscience emerges that spurs the group to higher order of thinking and action, thus empowering and encouraging its members to exist in a mutually beneficial relationship. Thus community and family become closely intertwined, because aiming at a common unity strives to overcome brokenness, divisiveness, and, ultimately gaining wholeness with each of the members, with their environment, and with their God. By giving mutual support, friendship and family merge. Both fellowship and community imply an inner and outer unity. Nowhere in the framework of community is there implied a hierarchy of command and control. While there is leadership, the leader's task is to focus energy, and align interests, not impose control. *Koinonia* (fellowship) creates a brethren bond which builds trust, honesty, virtue and honour. When this is attained among believers in Christ, the fears of insecurities, betrayal and being demeaned will disappear. The community of believers in Christ work collectively and individually for the purpose of the master's business and edification of the body of Christ. This can be done by sharing God's word, material things, praying together, etc. Thus loftier goals and dreams are more easily manifested in the mind and achieved in reality. The team's sense of Purpose became manifest.

In a similar vein, the New Testament concept of *Agape* gives the understanding of love. *Agapao* and the corresponding noun *agape* present the characteristic word of Christianity, and since

the Spirit of revelation has been used to express ideas previously unknown, inquiry into its use, whether in Greek literature or in the Septuagint, throws but little light upon its distinctive meaning in the New Testament. However, from the Old Testament, Leviticus 19:18 and Deuteronomy 6:5 gives some insights into the issue of love especially as it relates to God and His worshippers. Some Old Testament Hebrew equivalents for *agape* include *ahab*, or *ohab* or *ahaba*. All of them mean to love, friendship, like, to be loved, covenant loyalty, etc (Strong 2001, 1356). *Agape* and *agapao* are used in the New Testament to describe the attitude of God toward His Son (John 17:26); the human race in general (John 3:16; Rom. 5:8); and to such as believe on the Lord Jesus Christ in particular (John 14:21); to convey His will to His children concerning their attitude one toward another (John 13:24); and toward all men (1 Thess. 3:12; 1 Cor. 16:14; 2 Pet. 1:7); to express the essential nature of God as recorded in 1 John 4:8 (Vine 1996, 381). In this understanding, *agape* (love) can be known only from the actions it prompts. God's love for instance is seen in the gift of His Son (1 John 4:9, 10). But obviously this is not the love of complacency, or affection, that is, it was not drawn out by any Excellency in its objects (Rom. 5:8), rather, it was an exercise of the divine will in deliberate choice, made without assignable cause save that which lies in the nature of God Himself. *Agape* in this context had its perfect expression among men in the Lord Jesus Christ as can be seen in 2 Corinthians 5:14 and Ephesians 2:4; 3:19; 5:2. In Galatians 5:22, Christian love enumerated the fruit of the Holy Spirit (the spirit of Christ). According to Vine (1996, 381), "Christian love, has God for its primary object, and expresses itself first of all in implicit obedience to His commandments (John 14:15, 21, 23; 15:10; 1 John 2:5; 5:3; 2 John 6). Christian love, whether exercised toward the brethren, or toward men generally, is not an impulse from the feelings, it does not always deal with the natural inclinations nor does it spend itself only upon those for whom some affinity is discovered but it seeks the welfare of all (Romans 15:2), and works no ill to any (13:8-10); seeks opportunity to do good to all men, and especially toward them that are of the household of faith (Galatians 6:10; 1 Corinthians 13 and Colossians 3:12-14). In respect of *agapao* as used of God, it expresses the deep and constant love and interest of a perfect Being towards entirely unworthy objects, producing and fostering a reverential love in them toward the Giver, and a practical love towards those who are partakers of the same, and a desire to help others to seek the Giver (Smith n.d, 186). *Agape* is also rendered as charity in the King James Version of bible translation in this redition, it connotes the idea of sharing with those in need especially within the church community as practiced in Acts 4:31-37. In 1 John 4:8,16, the was made to understand that "God is love." In this context, *agape* is used to enjoin the exercise of love on the part of believers. By implication, there is the admonition of vertical (God-man prelateship) and horizontal (human-human relationship) in the church community. While the former introduces a declaration of the mode in which God's love has been manifested (vv. 9, 10), the later introduces a statement of identification of believers with God in Character. This connote Christians should relate well with God and fellow man especially those of the household of God (Vine 1996, 382). According to Carnell (2004,332-333), in I Corinthians 13:4-7 *agape* is fellowship between persons and an act of self-surrender. God is seen at the central object of love and as such love is the true point of contact between God and man. It is against this backdrop that one can fault disunity and ranchos within churches in a community. If such churches see Jesus Christ at the central point of the church, love will fellowship will flow from one denomination to the other.

##### **5. The Interpretation of *Koimonia* and *Agape*: An Urhobo Church Community Interpretation**

There are words used for *Koimonia* in Urhobo Language. Such words include: *orhukwugbe*, *imonhi* and *iniovo*. These grammars carrying within them the understanding of fellowship in the church community in Urhobo land. These words are very familiar with the members of the ecumenical community but they are not Christianly applied.

The word *orhukwugbe* in Urhobo grammar connotes doing things in common. The prepping factor for doing thins in common is unity. Therefore, another meaning of *orhukwugbe* is unity. This type of unity is expected in Urhobo culture to be both in mind and deeds.



Also, *imonhi* is another Urhobo grammar that can be used for *koimonia*. *Imonhi* means people of the same descent or parents. *Iniovo* can also be read into the meaning of *koimonia*. Both *iniovo* and *imonhi* are commonly used literary to men people born of the same mother and as such, the affinity is normally very strong. When applied in the Church community, Christ is added to it so that it can read: “*imonhi rh evu rhi Christi*” brothers in Christ. *Orhukwugbe* is also used with Christ to read: “*orhukwugbe remo rhi Christi*”, meaning the fellowship of the Children of Christ. This understanding also refers to the Church.

Another Urhobo grammar for *koimonia* is *ekwhomagbe* meaning coming together. When it is used for Christian fellowship, it can read: “*ekwhomagbe rhe emo rhi Christi*”, meaning the coming together of the Children of Christ. Another Urhobo grammar associated with *koimonia* is *ugbeya* and it means friendship. Another meaning outside the context of *koimonia* is wrong movement or waywardness. But when *ugbeya* is used in the context of fellowship it means friendship. In this case, the ecumenical Church were to live together as friends, brothers and one in Christ not the other way round.

*Egueno* is an Urhobo grammar for *agape* and it means love, affection and good relationship among humans of a community. *Eguono* is even expressed in an Urhobo traditional folklore composed in a satiric form thus: *eguono mhe yovwi-o, ejo who owho guono who owho eguono mhe yovwi*. This satire depicts and critiques the disunity and hatred that exist therein among brothers and sisters in the society and a call for unity and love. This is the meaning being portrayed by the message *agape* express as *eguono* in Urhobo church community.

## 6. Implication for Urhobo Christians

- I. **Peaceful Coexistence Among Christians:** while the Christian show love and relate with unbelievers in the society, such Christian must learn not to be yoked with them for scripture says: “do not be yoked together with unbelievers. For what do righteousness and wickedness have in common? And what fellowship can light have with darkness?” (2 Corinthians 6:14 NIV). In other words, Christians are not expected to do the evil the unbeliever does. Christians must not relate with unbelievers in such a way that they will be influenced to sin. This scripture is often some times miss-interpreted among inter-denominational Christians in such way that one denomination see the other as not holy enough to be related with. The spirit of *orhukwugbe*, *imonhi* and *iniovo* will help to keep Christians together in the Urhobo community and beyond.
- II. **Brotherly Ties through Ecumenism:** Galatians 3:28 made it clear that ecumenism cuts across church denominations, cultural, gender and social affinity. All those who are Christians are one in Christ. Christ is the center of the relationship. While Christians share love and intimacy with one another in Urhoboland they must not give room to sin and lust or discrimination (I Thess.5:22-23). All Christians across denominations should learn come together under Christian Association of Nigeria to carry out inter-denominational fellowship. Christians should identify with one another as brothers and sisters in Christ.
- III. **Unity in Diversity:** The churches in Urhoboland are made up of many denominations and people of divers ethnic extractions. In the midst of these diversities, Christian fellowship brings all together without discrimination and feeling of superiority of one denomination over the other. This is what the understanding of *koinonia* and *agape* are portraying. Christians in Urhoboland should understand that Christians are not just coming together based on ethnic and social affinities but on the basis of love and fellowship.

## Conclusion

The New Testament understanding of *koinonia* and *agape* are pivotal in the inter and intra-relationship of local churches in the early church community. *Koinonia* and *agape* is predicated on

the biblical understanding that Christians are tied together under the Jesus Christ as the head of the Church through His love and fellowship. In the New Testament, particularly I Corinthians 13 God is seen as the central object of love and as such love is the true point of contact between God and man and in Acts 4:31-37 fellowship was understood as communion between believers in Christ Jesus. It is within the above context that *orhukwugbe remo rhi Christi*, *imonhi rh evu rhi Christi*, *ekwhomagbe rhe emo rhi Christi* and *eguono* is used synonymously with *koinonia* and *agape*. With this understanding in the church community in Urhoboland, the church is expected to radiate *koinonia* and *agape* within and without.

### **Recommendations**

Having considered the duo New Testament Concept of fellowship and love, there is the need to recommend the following in addition to what has been discussed above.

- I. In order to operate a true Christian ecumenism, the church denominations in Urhoboland should come together periodically to pray together.
- II. In order to keep their bond of love stronger, the churches in Urhoboland should jointly organize love feast at least twice a year.
- III. In order for the churches in Urhoboland to make its impact more felt in the community, the Churches should come together to flot a common project like pipe bore water, school or skill acquisition center for youth and women empowerment.
- IV. The churches in Urhoboland should team up to address both political, church, and traditional leadership on the need for good governance.

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# Theory of Equity and Distributive Justice: Application to Income Tax Policy In Nigeria.

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## **Abstract**

Most economists argue that economic growth could be achieved through increased private sector participation and increased government expenditures on infrastructural provisions to provide support for the private sector. But the bulk of the government revenue comes from taxation that may work against the objective of private sector and economic welfare of the society. The understanding of the relationship of tax on growth and economic welfare of the society pose problem to tax policy designers when theory of equity and distributive justice of taxation is considered. The pertinent question raised in this paper is-has the theory of equity and distributive justice any application to income tax policy in Nigeria? Therefore, to provide answer to the question, this paper critically examined various taxation theories, tax system in Nigeria as well as shades of opinions and findings of various scholars and verifiable facts and figures, and found that Nigeria Tax system is grossly deficient and the theory of equity and distributive justice has little application to income tax policy in Nigeria. This paper suggests, among others, that tax laws and policies should be in simple, clear and unambiguous language and the principles of 'intergeneration equity' and 'pareto efficiency' should always be the income tax policy goal in Nigeria.

Keywords: Equity, Distributive justice, Tax system, Tax policy, tax laws, tax administration, Taxation theory.

## **1. Introduction**

The focus of many developing countries of the world and most macroeconomic theorists centre on economic growth through increased private sector participation and government increased expenditure on infrastructural provisions to provide support for the private sector. The bulk of the revenue for government comes from taxation that may work against the objective of private sector participation and economic welfare of the society. The understanding of the relationship of tax on growth, pose problem when theory of equity and distributive justice of taxation is considered. Consider, for example, the trade-off between growth and equity. Most countries want to be richer. Most also want the increased wealth to be distributed fairly. The question is - Are these objectives compatible? The pertinent question raised in this paper is – has the theory of equity and distributive justice any application to income tax policy in Nigeria? It is, therefore, the aim of this paper to examine, in more concrete terms, the theory of equity and distributive justice, its application to income tax policy in Nigeria. Therefore, to provide answer to the above question, this paper adopts descriptive and analytical methods to critically examine various taxation theories, tax system in Nigeria as well as shades of opinions and findings by various scholars and verifiable facts and figures. For purposes of clarity and sequence, after brief introduction the paper is organized as follows, In section II discusses the theoretical review of literature focusing on the taxation theories section III provide the empirical review of literature, section IV looks into the tax system in Nigeria – tax laws and organs responsible for formulation of tax policy in Nigeria, Section V deals on some observed inconsistencies in Nigeria tax system and finally, in section VI gives summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

## **2. Theoretical Review of Literature.**

In public finance literature, there exist two basic theories – the ability theory and the benefit theory. The ability theory was associated with Pigou while the benefit theory was developed by Erik Lindahl which has been refined into a modern version known as the voluntary exchange theory (by Bowen). Over the centuries, writers of public finance have developed two important approaches to taxation. These are – the Benefit Theory and the Ability Theory. The benefit approach to taxation has two merits. First, it is considered fair. Under this approach, the beneficiaries of government expenditure pay proportionately for these benefit through taxation. Second, the benefit approach determines simultaneously the tax levels and public services of different governments. That is, how extensive the individual benefit from the government should be determined along with taxation and who should pay for these services. This approach to taxation tries to limit free rider effect in public goods. The benefit principle has the advantage of directly relating the revenue and expenditure sides of the budget. It involves an approximation of market behaviour in the allocative procedures of the public sector. A person, voluntarily exchanges purchasing power in the form of taxes for the acquisition of public goods – a quid pro quo arrangement whereby individual customers pay directly for public goods from which they derive satisfaction. This approach suggests that equality is maintained if benefit principle is pursued. But the benefit approach limits the scope of government activities; the government can neither support the poor nor take steps to stabilize the economy. Again, this theory can be applied only when the beneficiaries can be observed directly. This test is not true for most public services. Equally, taxation in accord with the benefit principle would leave the distribution of real incomes unchanged.

The most important principle of taxation is the ability-to-pay approach which treats revenue and expenditure of the government separately. In this case, taxes are imposed on the basis of the tax payers' ability to pay. The ability to pay principle is conceived in terms of sacrifice on the part of the tax payers. Here, there is no quid pro quo arrangement. This approach is saddled with many controversies. Equal sacrifice suggested by this approach implies that the total loss of utility as a result of tax should be equal for all tax payers. This involves rich being taxed more heavily than the poor. Also, equal proportional sacrifice suggests that a fair tax system involves the rich not only in paying more tax but also in losing a greater absolute amount of utility. Again, equal marginal

sacrifice implies that the rich should sacrifice a greater proportion of his utility. The person with higher income should bear the most burdens. This rule recommends that taxes should be raised in such a manner that after tax, everyone has the same income. This is the most progressive tax system leading to complete egalitarian distribution of after tax income. This theory as elegant it may look, is still saddled with many limitations – First, it is not possible to measure utility and thus there are difficulties for the personal comparison of utility. Second, the assumption that all individuals in the economy where the same marginal utility (MU) schedule is quite unacceptable. This implies that all individuals have the same tastes and preferences, which is not correct. Third, though after-tax equality may maximize total utility in the short run, it may reduce utility over time.

In this theory, no attempt has been made to quantify the relationship between incentives and growth. This theory belongs to the utilitarian theory of taxation.

The benefit principle of taxation derives from the contract theory of the state as understood by the political theorists of the seventeenth century, such as Locke and Hobbes. It was later woven into the greatest happiness principle of the utilitarian, such as Bentham. It first appeared in classical economics in Adam Smith's first canon of taxation, which in a sentence combines both the benefit and the ability-to-pay approaches thus: "the subjects of every state ought to contribute towards the support of the government as nearly as possible in proportion to the revenue which they respectively enjoy under the protection of the state" (Cannan 1904). The equity and distributive justice theory consider, among others, incentives and growth issues in taxation.

Equity theorists usually assume that the economic burden of tax falls on the nominal taxpayer. Taxation according to ability to pay calls for people with equal capacity to pay the same, and for people with greater ability to pay more. The former is referred to as horizontal equity and the latter as vertical equity. The horizontal equity rule merely applies the basic principle of equality under the law. If income is used as a measure of ability to pay, income taxation is the appropriate instrument and people with the same income should pay the same tax. The vertical equity rule is also in line with equal treatment but proceeds on the premise that it calls for different amounts of tax to be paid by people with different ability to pay. Both equity rules follow from the same principle of equal treatment and neither is more basic, because equality is not always equity. Equity calls for ensuring that no one suffers poverty, but those who produce more would be rewarded more, and no individual or household would be forced to fall below some minimum standard of consumption regardless of production potential. Equity considerations may be applied across generations as well as across individuals (Bittker 1979).

Approaches to distributive justice are bound as are philosophical, economic as well as political thinkers. Such approaches to what constitutes a just state of distribution include:- endowment-based criteria, utilitarian criteria, egalitarian criteria and mixed criteria (Musgrave and Musgrave, 1989). They summarized the approaches thus:- Endowment-based views, sanction the distribution of income as determined by factor ownership and returns. Utilitarian views, call for a distribution of welfare so as to maximize total satisfaction. An equal distribution of income is required if individuals are assured to have similar utility functions. Egalitarian views would distribute income so as to equalize the welfare position of all individuals or so as to maximize that of the lowest. The problem of distribution is one of evaluating a change in which some one gains while someone else loses. How do we secure a state of just or fair distribution? Again, which state should be chosen as equitable or just? It should be noted that in practice the various approaches need not be implemented in pure form but more likely would be combined.

## **2a Income Tax Policy Search**

This study focuses on economic and social welfare of the tax payers. Emphases were on income of civil servants who are assumed to earn no other income except from salary income and other low income earners of the society (i.e. the least well-off). The burden and incidence of tax were borne directly by the taxpayers.

Tax policy analysts may have asked whether a theory of distributive justice requires a particular tax policy, such as progressive rates or a particular base. But progressive rates or a particular base may not tell us much about the ultimate distribution of resources, opportunities, income, or welfare in society (Sugin, 2004). A flat tax can be redistributive or not, depending on the distribution of the base and the government's use of revenues. For example, assuming equal government benefit to all, a flat tax on wealth would be highly redistributive because the truly poor would have no base to tax, and a person with modest wealth would pay a much smaller tax than would a person of great wealth. Flat taxes are not redistributive where the tax base is equal across tax payers. So a flat tax can be consistent with a redistributive theory of economic justice in a limited sense. Equally, putting flat rates together with a consumption base is less redistributive than a flat wealth tax. But it might still be redistributive. Isolating a consumption base tax can be very flexible in allocating tax burdens, and therefore, is not controlling in determining an over all level of redistribution in the society because of elements of political influence so inherent in its application as a result of its flexibility.

Utilitarians have argued for progressivity of tax on the basis that society's utility could be maximized by taxing the rich (whose marginal utility of income is low) more than the poor (whose marginal utility of income is presumably higher). All together, a progressive consumption tax could easily be designed to impose a greater burden on the rich compared to the poor than would an income tax with less progressive rates. Even a flat consumption based tax raises more revenue from the rich than the poor because rich people can generally be counted on to consume more total goods and services than poor people consume. But caution would be taken in determining the base to avoid economic and social inequity. A flat consumption-based tax on food items most favoured by the poor, than the rich, produces inequity against the poor. Again, caution would be taken to avoid negative influence on investment of consumption-based tax because the rich spend more on investment goods than the poor. There is need to balance the equation. Thus, a consumption-based tax could form part of an integrated government scheme that used revenues in a redistributive manner so as to guarantee opportunity and improve the prospects of the least well-off. If the proceeds of taxes collected are redistributed to provide the greatest benefit to the least well-off, through whatever mechanism, whether direct transfers, schools, health care, or other programmes that open opportunity and improve the prospects of the poorest-then it matters little what the tax itself looks like because the spending side of the budget corrects or adjusts the distributional consequences over all. But the mechanism chosen on the spending side is a question of effectiveness. From an efficiency perspective, direct transfers may be the most desirable mechanism of redistribution. But an efficient tax may not necessarily be considered fair and one that is considered equitable may not be efficient. Any integrated approach could achieve the over all distributional goals of the society.

### **3. Empirical Review**

Miller and Oats (2009:4) notes that due to the inefficiency of the private market, the provision of public goods such as security of life and property which the public might not be prepared to pay for directly are left in the hands of the government rather than the private market. Ahdulfattah (2010) corroborated Miller and Oats when he notes that, most south east governors in Nigeria are spending fortune to keep the police and other security agencies. Besides, every government is saddled with the responsibility of providing some basic infrastructures for her citizens; such are the provision of schools, hospitals, and construction of roads, bridges, railway lines, airports and seaports. Therefore the stabilization of the economy, the redistribution of income and the provision of services in the form of public goods are among other functions or obligations government may owe her citizens. The objectives of taxation have been summed up in Nightingale (2002) and Lyme and Oats (2010) thus: Raising revenue to finance government expenditures; redistribution of wealth and income to promote the welfare and equality of the citizens; Regulation of the economy thereby creating enabling environment for business to thrive. The above objectives

of taxation are in line with Nigeria National Tax Policy. The Nigerian Tax System according to the Presidential Committee on National tax policy (2008), among other things, is expected to-encourage economic growth and development; generate stable revenue or resources needed by government to accomplish laudable projects and or investment for the benefit of the people; provide economic stabilization; pursue fairness and distributive equity; and correction of market failure and imperfection.

#### **4. Tax System in Nigeria.**

Tax system in Nigeria is made up of tax laws, tax policy and tax administration. They are applied together to achieve the economic goal of the nation. According to Kiabel and Nwoka (2009), and Ayodele (2006) the following are some of the prevailing tax laws in Nigeria.

\_\_\_ Personal Income Tax Act (PITA) CAP P8 law of Federations of Nigeria (LFN) 2004.

\_\_\_ Petroleum Profit Tax Act (PPTA) 2007.

\_\_\_ Company Income Tax Act (CITA) CAP 60. LFN 1990.

\_\_\_ Value Added Tax (VAT) Act No 102 LFN 1993.

\_\_\_ Capital Gain Tax Act CAP 42 LFN 1990.

\_\_\_ Education Tax Act No 7 LFN 1993.

\_\_\_ Stamp Duties Act CAP 411 LFN 1990.

\_\_\_ Information Technology Development Act 2007. Tax laws in Nigeria are frequently subjected to amendments. The frequency of amendment is a manifestation of inconsistencies. Recently, the personal income tax Act (PITA) was amended to Personal Income Tax (Amendment) Act (PITAM or “the Act”), 2011.

Tax policy formulation in Nigeria is the responsibility of the Federal Inland Revenue Services (FIRS), Customs, Nigerian National Petroleum corporation (NNPC), National population commission (NPC), and other agencies but under the guidance of the National Assembly (Nigerian law making organ) (Presidential Committee On National Tax Policy, 2008).

#### **5. Some Observed Inconsistencies**

Nigeria tax system is characterized by unnecessary complex, distortionary and largely inequitable taxation laws that dominate the economy. It has been noted that the increase in value Added Tax (VAT) rate from 5% to 10% with effect from May 23, 2007 has caused huge disruptions to the economy. This is because Nigeria companies treat their VAT expenses as input costs and pass these to the consumers. For instance customers to commercial Banks in Nigeria pay VAT on maintaining/holding current account with the banks. This VAT paid by the customers to commercial banks is supposed to be paid by the banks, but the banks instead shift the VAT to customers. Equally in Nigeria, the minimum tax rate increased from 0.5% of the total income under personal income Tax Act (PITA) to 1.0% of total income under personal income Tax (Amendment) Act (PITAM) 2011, section 37.

The PITAM increased the effective tax rate of the lowest bracket of income earners (i.e; minimum wage earners) by 100%. It is doubtful whether the over all impact of the PITAM on tax payers is consistent with the National Tax Policy of reducing direct taxes and increasing the disposable income of individuals. It seems the very poor people (i.e; low bracket of income earners) would be worse off under the PITAM tax regime, though it shows more progressive tax rate, the marginal utility of one naira income of a poor person is higher than the marginal utility of one naira income of a rich person. The new income tax table under PITAM is shown below:



First	₦ 300,000	taxed at	7%
Next	₦ 300,000	taxed at	11%
Next	₦500,000	taxed at	15%
Next	₦500,000	taxed at	19%
Next	₦1, 600,000	taxed at	21%
Above	₦3,200,000	taxed at	24%

If the table above is closely observed, it would be noticed that the taxable nominal income, increases at an increasing rate while the tax rate, at first increases at a constant rate and then increases at a decreasing rate.

Again, the PITAM is deficient by not defining ‘gross income’ but ‘gross emoluments’ and used gross income extensively in the Act and never used gross emoluments anywhere in the Act.

PITAM defined gross emolument as “wages, salaries, allowances (including benefits in kind (BIKS)), gratuities, superannuation and any other incomes derived solely by reason of employment”. For application of PITAM, it would be assumed that gross income includes, at least, ‘gross emolument’ and if so assumed, ‘gross emolument’ is a term usually associated with employment income.

Also, PITAM has with drawn all tax free allowance previously enjoyed by employees under section 3(1) (b) (ii)-(xii) of the personal income Tax Act (PITA) CAP P8, LFN 2004; with the exception of reimbursement of expenses incurred by an employee in the performance of his duties, and from which the employee is not expected to derive any profit or gain. The PITAM replaces the personal relief of ₦5,000 plus 20% of earned income that was before now available under section 33 (1) of the PITA, with the Consolidated Relief Allowance (CRA). The CRA is to be computed as the higher of ₦200,000 or 1% of gross income, plus 20% of gross income. In this regard, PITA seems to be more specific than PITAM in application of the CRA to individuals other than employees. For instance, section 33 (1) of the PITA allows every individual to claim the personal relief of ₦5,000 plus 20% of earned income. To make the intention of the provision clear it defined earned income in the First Schedule as “income derived ... From a trade, business, profession, vocation or employment.

Although, ‘gross emoluments’ by definition under PITAM provides a larger base for the claim of CRA by tax payers that PITA, though it was never used anywhere in the act, rather ‘gross income’ was used throughout which was not defined in the Act, it seems PITAM provides a more leeway to salaried employment than the self-employment. But on a comparison between section 36 of PITA and section 34 of PITAM ‘gross income is used synonymously with ‘total income’, and CRA is claimable on ‘gross income’.

Logically, it then follows that CRA is fully claimable by all individuals liable to income tax under the personal income tax (PIT) regime, regardless of whether they are in self-employment or salaried employment.

Further more, Nigeria tax laws give room to multiple taxation. The fiscal autonomy granted the three tiers of government because of fiscal federalism lead to multiplicity of tax, though tax jurisdiction of the various tiers of government is spelt out in the constitution but sometimes with some overlap (Onyeukwu, 2010).

For instance, Education Tax Act No 7 LFN 1993 regulates the imposition of 2% tax on the accessible profits of companies registered in Nigeria and who are liable to pay tax in accordance with the requirements of company income Tax Act (CITA) and petroleum profit Tax Act (PPTA) (Nigeria, 2009). Education tax goes together with the company income tax. Defaulters are to pay 5% plus interest at commercial rate for non-compliance.

Looked closely, again, PITAM provides for tax exemption of income from bonds and short-term securities issued by Federal, State and Local governments, as well as on bonds issued by Corporate organizations including Supra-nationals, from income tax. Also exempts are interest earned by holders of the bounds and short-term securities, from income tax. Equally, PITAM provides tax exempts income and tax-deductible expenses in the new Sixth Schedule. The new Sixth Schedule specifies the following as tax exempt:

- i. National housing fund contribution.
- ii. Life assurance premium.
- iii. National pension scheme.
- iv. National health insurance scheme contribution.
- v. Gratuities.

Though, as elegant as the tax exemption may look, in Nigeria, the above five items provided in sixth schedules of PITAM constitute also major source of revenue for government.

The rate of contribution to these schemes and funds are usually fixed by relevant tax authority (RTA) and frequently changing upwards. Government usually draws from the pool to supplement its revenue demand.

However, tax incentives are often used to compensate for deficiencies in the investment environment. Internationally, tax incentives are used to give a country a competitive edge over other countries in an increasingly competitive global economy. Tax incentives by their very nature represent a revenue cost for the government and may become an unacceptable cost if not well focused and administered. Tax incentives, if well coordinated and implemented, can stimulate economic growth in certain areas. However, if tax incentives are not well coordinated and implemented, they could waste resources that could have been put to better use. But tax incentives alone are not sufficient to promote investment, but good governance, political and economic stability, the necessary infrastructure and social services would.

### **5a. Tax Administration in Nigeria**

Adegbie and Fakile (2011), in their attempt to explore the relationship between company income tax in Nigeria and economic development of the nation, using primary and secondary data and adopting chi-square and multiple linear regression analysis, found that there is a significant relationship between company income tax and Nigerian economic development. Tax evasion and avoidance are major hindrances to revenue generation. They noted that on-compliance with tax laws on the parts of the tax payers is also a hindrance. They point that ineffective tax administration has given enough loop holes to poor generation of revenue from tax. Tax revenue mobilization as a source for financing development activities in Nigeria has been a difficult issue primarily because of various forms of resistance, such as evasion, avoidance and corrupt practices attending to it. These activities are considered as sabotaging the economy and are readily presented as reasons for the underdevelopment of the country. This is not always true. Government exists in order to effectively collect taxes from available economic resources to correct the deficiencies of the market system and make use of the collected tax revenue to create economic prosperity such that available and willing human and other resources are gainfully employed, infrastructures provided, essential public services (such as the maintenance of law and order) put in place. If good old tests of equity, certainty, convenience and administrative efficiency are applied, Nigeria will score low considering the following points: due to inadequate monitoring, persons in the self-employed and unquoted private companies evade tax. Those working in the informal sector of Nigeria economy do not see the need to pay tax whereas they dominate the economy. To them, government does not judiciously make use of the tax revenue.

To them, only civil servants should pay tax on their earnings and this amount to over flogging the willing horse. The civil servants in Nigeria are always the worst hit and bear the burden and

impact of any tax in Nigeria. There is no hiding place for a civil servant in Nigeria in respect of tax payment.

For instance, Nigeria government injects most of the VAT revenue back into the system as consumption expenditures while the basic physical infrastructures- for transport, communications, and power and information technology- to strengthen competitiveness and expand productive capacity are lacking. Nigeria's infrastructure is of poor quality and constrains business. The increased VAT rate further disrupts the manufacturing sector that had been grappling with the problems of poor road network, multiple taxation, and epileptic and non-functional power supply. As a matter of fact, the increase in VAT rates automatically increased the inflation rate. VAT being a consumption tax affects the real income of the final consumers, especially fixed income earners. Manufacturers jolt prices of their goods and services, even where such goods and services are not expressly subject of VAT.

That is to say that tax is inequitable and unfair. Again, the language of tax legislation is often forbidden and confusing. Many of the supposed tax payers know nothing of the rules under which they are to pay tax or the range of deductible expenses and the allowance available to them. For that many cannot be at ease to disclose their taxable income. The meaning of "tax convenience" in Nigeria today is the ability of a tax payer to go to the tax office, say what he wants to pay, be assessed accordingly, pay and obtain a tax clearance certificate. This is a mark of administrative gross inefficiency. In Nigeria, illiteracy level is still high. Because of this, record keeping is poor and in most cases not kept at all.

Many tax officials are poorly trained. Tax offices in Nigeria are poorly equipped with ICT materials. Also tax officials are poorly remunerated, and they are few to cover the field (Adegbe and Fakile, 2011). Even, some revenue collection officers seem to be lenient or even connive with those in the informal sector during enforcement of tax policies (Ayodele, 2006).

### **Summary**

In 2002, the Minister of Finance established a study group headed by Prof. Dotun Phillips to review the Nigeria tax system and in its report noted Nigerian tax system as "unduly complex, skewed, low revenue- yielding, poorly administered, anti-federalism, largely inequitable, and loaded with unduly large number of overlapping taxes which have more nuisance value than revenue value." The study group also noted that Nigeria's corporate income tax rate of 30% is one of the highest in the world and diverges from the growing international trend of harmonizing the rates of personal and corporate taxes. The study group considers it to be grossly inequitable and destructive to business enterprises to tax a company realizing losses (Abiola, 2011). It is the view of Popoola (2009) that Nigeria tax administration and practice be structured towards economic goal achievement since government budget for the years centre on the oil sector. While decrying the low Productivity of the Nigerian tax system, deficiencies in the tax administration and collection system, complex legislations and apathy on the part of those outside the tax net, were identified as some of the root causes [says Ijewere (1991) and Ndekwu (1991) as cited in ... Ariyo (1997)]. It is argued that no tax system, by itself, is capable of carrying out a conception of economic justice and fairness. Only in conjunction with the myriad of other rules and policies in place in any system can we determine whether a society operates in an economically just manner.

Regardless of the progressiveness of the tax or its base, the broad combination of taxes, transfers, public goods, educational opportunities, avenues for redress of economic harms, market regulations, and the like are all part of the determination of whether, for example the poorest members of society would be provided for. Neither a progressive rate structure nor an income base can guarantee that minimum, despite their general association with redistributive policies. The tax system itself can never give us enough information to determine whether any ideal is in fact being met (Sugin, 2004).

## Conclusion

Citing (Bird and Oldman 1990, in James and Nobes 2008), Abiola and Asiweh (2012) stated as follows “the best approach to reforming taxes is one that takes into account taxation theory, empirical evidence and political and administrative realities and blend them with good dose of local knowledge and a sound appraisal of the current macroeconomics and international situation to produce a feasible set of proposals sufficiently attractive to be implemented and sufficiently robust to withstand changing times, with reason and still produce beneficial results.” Capital stock accumulated by the present generation is bequeathed as a legacy to the next one. The present generation thus benefits the future one. But dissaving, exploitation of irreplaceable natural resources and destruction of the environment place a burden upon the future. This ‘intergeneration equity’ principle would always be a principal focus as one of policy issues in income tax policy in Nigeria. This could be apparent where taxpayers’ after tax income could not provide the basic necessities of life talk more providing for education of their children. Income tax in Nigeria is unjust, inequitable and grossly deficient in administration. Only those in the formal sector of the economy pay income tax. The proposition that ‘there is a welfare gain when the position of any one individual is improved without hurting that of another is generally accepted as a policy goal. That is, the principle of ‘pareto efficiency’. But the principle of ‘non exclusion, in public goods, vitiates any attempt by government to remedy any tax policy against the poor, by providing public goods. This paper has critically examined various theories of taxation, tax system (tax laws, tax policy and tax administration) in Nigeria as well as shades of opinions and findings by various scholars and verifiable facts and figures, and found that Nigeria tax system is grossly deficient and theory of equity and distributive justice has little application to income tax policy in Nigeria.

## Recommendations

Based on the foregoing discussions and expositions, this paper makes the following recommendations.

1. Nigeria tax laws and polices should be in simple, clear and unambiguous language for easy understanding, interpretation and implementation.
2. Income tax laws and policies in Nigeria should be harmonized between the Federal, State and Local governments to avoid overlap and multiple taxation.
3. The principles of ‘intergeneration equity’ and ‘pareto efficiency’ should always be the income tax policy goal in Nigeria.
4. The tax revenues should be judiciously put into use to benefit the public and the poor especially, for them to see the need to pay tax in Nigeria.
5. Government should provide infrastructures based on the community-need-assessment.
6. There is urgent need to employ more tax officials, train the existing ones, and provide them with enough incentives to work such as ICT materials and other office equipment, to enable them cover the field.

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