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Assessment of Rail Transport Operations and Management in Nigeria

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Abstract

This study analyzed rail transport operation and management in Nigeria. The study sought to determine the major paths of rail operation that improve the effectiveness of rail management in Nigeria. Data was gathered from 100 passengers of railway randomly selected in Lagos, South western Nigeria, with the aid of a questionnaire, while descriptive and non-parametric statistical tools were applied for data analysis. Findings revealed that rail transport has significantly improved feasibility of revenue generation by management. In addition, the users of the rail transport indicated high dissatisfaction with operation and the unstable changing of the management which has an effect on the continuity of project in driving the rail operation. It was recommended that government should invest more on rail transport system because adequate funding of the rail system will help to improve the patronage of the system and increase the economic activities coupled with the enabling environment.

Keywords: Rail transportation, management, public transportation, commerce

Introduction

There is hardly any human society or human settlement that can function efficiently and effectively without adequate, reliable, safe and affordable transport system. Today, transport has played a significant role in territorial administration, political development, the defense of terrorist as well as promoting regional cooperation (through the flow of people and goods along the import-export corridors of neighboring countries). Transportation implies the movement of people, goods, services and information by specific modes, some of which are roads, railways, airlines, and shipping lines (Fadare & Omole, 1991).

Hilling (1996) also observed that rail transport provides the first alternative to human portorage and brought with them some economic advantage. Early rail lines were critical to the development of commerce, the expansion of commercial agriculture and the stimulation of settlement expansion.

The federal Republic of Nigeria covers 980,000 km², it is the most populous estimated over 160 million people. These vast lands with network roads / rail and gainful economic activities greatly justify the establishment of the Nigerian Railway Corporation. The function of the Nigerian Railway Corporation is broad, it is pertinent to mention that her primary assignment is the transportation of passengers and goods from one part of the country to the other. Most of her functions have therefore, been taken over by the haulage companies in the country and most of them are doing wonderfully well hence Rail system has provided job opportunities and employment outlets for various categories of personnel and individual. It generates revenue to the NRC organization and government through various forms of tariffs, rate, licenses, registration and demurrage as well as all forms of rents. Moreover during, the colonial era, the colonialist had lots of problem on transportation; they were handicapped because of inadequate transportation facilities.

The colonialist had lots of plan to establish different organization in different territories but the means is not available. Subsequently, they decided to construct a western rail line from Lagos in 1898. The eastern rail line was also constructed from Port Harcourt (see pix II). More so, they also laid the foundation of national road grid system with first motorable road in Nigeria built in 1906 from Ibadan to Oyo. Many of the roads built up to late 1920s provided local feeder connections to the railways. They partly developed seaport and river ports, but to identify the problems in order to affect lasting solutions in the overall interest of the country decline in volume of expert traffic (agricultural commodities) increasing domestic consumption and local industry consumption, technical problems associated with track / speed limitation, poor telecommunication facilities, inadequate motive power and rolling stock, maintenance problems traceable to inadequate supply of (imported) space parts and materials and poor level of technical skills.

Shortage of working capital resulting in heavy reliance on government for financial assistance on a rather frequent basis has cost the reduction in inflectional and rising costs resulting in increase in operation. Nigerian Railway corporation management plays a major role, Series of articles have been written on our National dailies about the bad management of the Nigerian Railway corporations



Fig 1
Fig 2



Fig 3



Nigeria Railway map

It is on record that CANAC, one of the foreign firms while investigating the railways concluded that the only way out was to allow foreigners to run the affairs of the corporation for five years. The report further recommended the urgent needs for modern principles and practices of administration; that there was no correct channel of communication, delegation of authority and chain of command.

Objectives of the study

The broad objective of this study is to examine the analysis of rail transport operation and management in Nigeria, taking a critical look at the operation of the Lagos district and the significantly role to the nation.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- i. Highlight the major paths of rail operation that will improve the effectiveness of rail management in Nigeria.

- ii. Evaluate the need to check and balance the operation on the rail transport system.

Research Questions

The questions to be addressed in this paper include:

- i. Could rail transport enhance revenue generation management?
- ii. Does rail transport operation have positive effect on promotion of trade and commerce?

Research Hypotheses

The basic research hypothesis formulation for this study is:

H₀₁: Rail transport has not significantly improved the accessibility of revenue generation management.

H₀₂: Rail transportation operation has no positive effect on the promotion of trade and Commerce

Significance of the study

Rail transportation is probably the oldest mode of transportation in Nigeria. It started in Lagos in 1898. Since this period, it has traveled across the geographic space of Nigeria; rail transport over the year is known to have exerted a lot of positive contributions to the economic transformation and development of the country. Therefore this paper intends to cover the relevant gap in the operation and management of the rail transport in Nigeria.

Literature Review

The Nigerian Railway Corporation (NRC) is the organization in charge of railway transport mode; it monitors, manages and controls its operations. Railway transport attracts attention and even generates enthusiasm across a wide range of people such as historians, economist, engineers, geographers, travelers, politicians and so on. It is a parastatal under the Federal Ministry of Transport, and it sets the framework for implementing rail policies and programmes, as they relate to the efficient and effective movement of passengers and freight.

Therefore, this study critically examines the concept and past review of the impact of rail transportation in Nigerian economy. So many concepts or theories assertions and literature have been made on rail transport, they include;

Concept of System Analysis

A system can be defined as 'an organized combination of parts which form a complex entity, with inter-relationship or interactions between the parts and between the system and environment'. It is a set of subsystem, all inter-related and interdependent in the articulating and actualization of the defined organizational goals and objectives. The Nigerian Railway Corporation can be likened to a system to the extent that it is an assembly of functionally related components (called division and departments) interacting on the basis of identifiable process and all working towards the realization of corporate goals and objectives. The Nigeria Railway System has stations' which function as a system with its own inter-related component that interacts to form a complete circle. This system has different departments which do not operate in isolation but which are interdependent and inter-related. It includes:

- a) Administrative department which is responsible for the day-to-day administration of the entire corporation
- b) Operational department which is responsible for the railway operator throughout the system
- c) Finance department which is responsible for procurement, disbursement, account and advice on all financial matters in the corporation.
- d) Civil Engineering department which is responsible for civil engineering work including building of track, land and surveys
- e) Mechanical and electrical engineering department which is responsible for all mechanical and electrical engineering works.
- f) All these department work hand in hand for example, the operational department cannot work if it is not well financed, so also, if there is no railway operation, money will not come in i.e. there is no finance.

From the above explanation, general system theory is a form of functional analysis which seeks to explain character of the system as a whole. In other words, the system approach connotes the inter-relationship between the components or sub-system making up the larger structure or system. By this description, it suggest that the railway station can be described as a system because railway can be seen to function as a system with its own inter-related components that now interacts to form a complete circle. For example, activities in the railway do not operate in isolation which means there is a great deal of interdependence and inter-relations.

Management by Objective (MBO)

Management by organization is a means of integrating organizational goals, such as profit and growth, with the needs of individual managers to contribute to the organization and to their own self-development. A system of management by objective therefore enables the management of an organization to concentrate their efforts on obtaining results from the key areas of the business. It provides an opportunity for managers and their superiors to collaborate in identifying the key areas for results establishing appropriate performance standards against which results can be measured. It also lays foundation for a scheme of management development reviews which follow on from the setting of tasks and performance standard. The four major components that make up the installation of MBO and target setting which are basic and inter-dependent are:

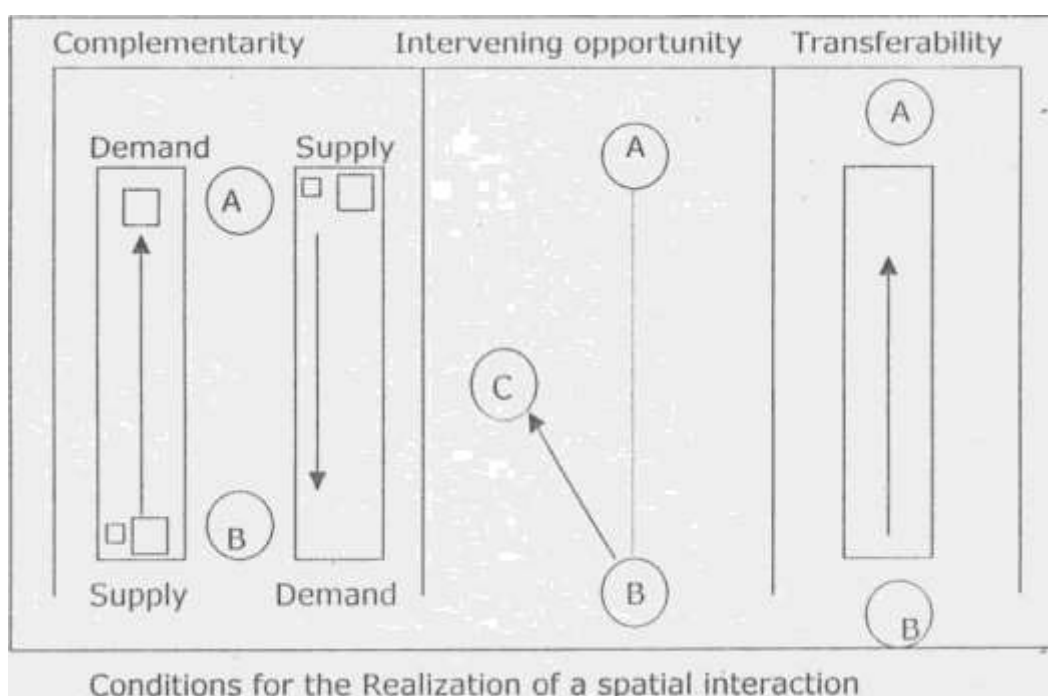
- i. Organizational role
- ii. Situation Analysis
- iii. Goals and Action Plans
- iv. Progress Review

The MBO theory becomes relevant to this study because it emphasizes the need for railway operational goals to be that which will ensure efficiency, reliability and attainment of positive economic growth and development and enhance cheapest mobility of passengers and commodity so as to pave way for standard of living in Nigeria.

Theoretical Framework

Interaction Model

Interaction model is the flow of products, people, services, or information among places, in response to localized supply and demand. It is a transportation supply and demand relationship that is often expressed over a geographical space. Interaction model usually include a variety of movements such as travel, migration, transmission of information, journeys to work or shopping, retailing activities, or freight distribution. Edward Ullman (1890), the leading transportation geographer of the twentieth century, more formally addressed interaction as complementarities (a deficit of a good or product in one place and a surplus in another), transferability (possibility of transport of the good or product at a cost that the market will bear), and lack of intervening opportunities (where a similar good or product that is not available at a closer distance).



Source: Brett J, 2006.

Rail and Management surveys have identified a few pieces of work related to rail, the common set is typically, Strasser (1996) and Ciancimino et al. (1999) presents a general approach to management and identifies areas where management can be applied – it does not explicitly deal with rail.

Ciancimino et al. (1999) appears to be the first published piece of work to deal with revenue management for passenger rail services and Campbell and Morlok (1994) and Campbell (1996) to be amongst the first that deals directly with revenue management for freight services. The Nigerian Railway System has to gain from a sound national comprehensive transport and coordination policies. With effective management of the corporation and gives proper framework for the future, the railways should process with technical modernization, radical marketing drivers/initiatives, improved informatics systems, well grounded professionalism organizational

improvement, planned skilled manpower development and 'spatial restructuring of the inherited colonial rail network system.

Haines and Margo (2006) used panel data set of counties for 1850 and 1860 to examine the economic impact of gaining access to a railroad on local economic development in the US. Difference in Difference approach was adopted to compare outcomes from a treated group (counties that gain rail access in the 1850s) with a control group (those that gain rail access before and after 1850s). Results showed that rail access appears to have increased the percentage participation in the service sector, decreased agricultural yields, and reduced the share of improved acreage in total land area. Also as stated by Cullingworth (1974) "the train service variables are safety of service, cost of service, accessibility of service, reliability of service, efficiency of service and the comfortability of service.

Herranz-Loncán (2011) agree on the role of railways in export-led growth of Uruguayan economy between 1870 and 1913 using OLS estimation. The results showed that Uruguayan railways did produce some positive effects. They helped to integrate the national market while also promoting the political and administrative unification of the country.

In conclusion, the review reveals an inconclusive argument in the literature as to the contribution of rail transport to economic growth, both in the developed and developing countries. Therefore, this study intends to contribute to the existing literature by examining the impact of rail transport on economic growth in Nigerian as an example of a developing country.

Methodology

The purpose of research is to discover answers to the questions through the application of scientific procedures. The research design used in the research is Exploratory and descriptive research. The exploratory research is used for collecting secondary data from magazines and journals and descriptive research is used to collect the data, which is through questionnaire in order to know the Survey research approach has been used, using questionnaire and it was analyzed using percentages which is descriptive while the hypothesis were tested using Chi-square method. The scaling technique used is Likert scale 1-5.

The researcher administered questionnaires on 100 passengers of railway or general public that uses railway as alternative mode of transportation out of these, 82 were dully filled and returned. The data collected from the questionnaire was analyzed using the descriptive analysis. The simple percentage is calculated by dividing the total number of questions answered by the total number of questions and then multiply by 100. For inferential purpose, the chi-square is employed. The chi-square method is calculated as thus:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E)^2}{E}$$

Where:

X^2 = Chi-square

O = Observed frequencies

E = Expected frequencies

In case $X^2 = 0$; it shows agreement between the observed and the expected frequencies. However, if $X^2 > 0$, there is no agreement. In essence, the greater the value of X^2 , the greater is the variation between the observed and the expected frequencies.

Data Presentation and Analysis

Table 2: Descriptive Analysis of Assessment of Rail Transport operation and Management

SNO	Statements	Strongly Agree (%)	Agree (%)	Undecided (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)
1	Nigeria railway Corporation exits to provide services and ultimately make profit	17 (18.2)	9 (10.9)	10 (12.1)	15 (20.7)	31 (38.1)
2.	There is sufficient economic activities, that is turning around the NRC system	32 (39.0)	21 (25.8)	9 (10.9)	13 (15.8)	7 (8.5)
3.	Do you believe that the cost of transportation by rail is comparatively cheaper than that of Motor transport	42 (50.5)	25 (30.4)	2 (2.4)	8 (9.7)	5 (6.)
4.	The adequate effect is made by the NRC management to find out the customer's need to boost the rail operation	37 (45.1)	25 (30.43)	4 (4.8)	10 (12.1)	6 (7.3)
5.	The Nigeria railway system is adequately funded	16 (19.5)	12 (14.6)	9 (10.9)	19 (23.1)	26 (31.9)
6.	The Nigeria Railway Corporation has failed in her primary assignment of transportation of good and passenger and operation	21 (25.6)	32 (39.2)	10 (12.1)	11 (13.4)	8 (9.7)
7.	Do you agree that the Nigeria railway Corporation management	15 (18.2)	17 (20.7)	4 (4.8)	26 (31.7)	20 (24.6)

	be left alone in decision and management of its affair?					
8.	The incessant change of the chief executive of NRC has a negative effect on her operation	17 (18.2)	9 (10.9)	10 (12.1)	15 (20.7)	31 (38.1)
9.	Non-payment of Staff has contribute to poor operation of staff in the Nigeria railway system	37 (45.1)	25 (31.9)	2 (2.4)	7 (8.5)	10 (12.1)
10.	More NRC system in each district of the country can be made to reposition itself	32 (39.0)	21 (25.8)	9 (10.9)	13 (15.8)	7 (8.5)
11.	The Nigeria railway cooperation could enhance the generation of revenue for her operation	21 (25.6)	32 (39.2)	10 (12.1)	11 (13.4)	8 (9.7)
12.	NRC operation has positively promote the trade and commerce of the economy	32 (39.0)	27 (33.1)	6 (7.3)	10 (12.1)	7 (8.5)
13.	NRC has created employment and improve Nigeria growth domestic product	15 (18.2)	34 (41.7)	3 (3.6)	18 (21.9)	12 (14.6)
14.	Poor management strategies and lack of communication has fail the NRC operation	39 (48.9)	16 (19.5)	11 (13.4)	9 (10.9)	6 (7.3)
15.	Lack of inadequate coaches and inquires do affect the operation and revenue generation.	37 (45.1)	25 (31.9)	2 (2.4)	7 (8.5)	10 (12.1)

Source: Field Survey, 2015.

The table above shows that 39.0% of (32 respondents) strongly agreed, 25.8% of (21 respondents) agreed, 15.8% of (13 respondents) disagreed while 8.5% of (7 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above. This indicates that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that if Nigeria Railway Corporation System can be in good shape and effective, it will increase the level of economic activities in Nigeria because is cheaper and free from traffic problem. The frequency results above was in line with the assertion of Herranz-Loncán (1920) who examined the role of railways in export-led growth of Uruguayan economy between 1870 and 1913 using OLS estimation. The results showed that Uruguayan railways did produce some positive effects. They helped to integrate the national market while also promoting the political

and administrative unification of the country. This implies that good rail transportation system improve economic activities of a country. Analysis in Table 2 shows that 51.2% of (42 respondents) strongly agreed with the statement, 30.4% of (25 respondents) agreed, 9.7% of (8 respondents) disagreed while 6.0% of (5 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above. This means that majority of the respondents strongly agreed and believed that the cost of transportation by rail is comparatively cheaper than that of road transport. Table 2 shows that 45.1% of (37 respondents) strongly agreed, 30.4% of (25 respondents) agreed, 12.1% of (10 respondents) disagreed while 7.3% of (6 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question. This shows that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that the management of Nigerian Railway Corporation should find out how they can satisfy their customers so as to encourage more people to patronize rail transport system; this can be done via their research department. Table 2 indicates that 19.5% of (16 respondents) strongly agreed to the statement, 14.6% of (12 respondents) agreed, 23.1% of (19 respondents) disagreed while 31.7% of (26 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question that Nigeria rail system is adequately funded. This means that majority of the respondents strongly disagreed that Nigeria government does not adequately finance and invest on rail way infrastructure.

Furthermore, Table 2 reveals that 25.6% of respondents (21 respondents) strongly agreed the statement, 39.2% of (32 respondents) agreed, 13.4% of (11 respondents) disagreed while 9.7% of (8 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above that Nigeria Rail Corporation has failed in her primary responsibility of transportation of goods and passengers and generally operation. Table 2 indicates that majority of the respondents agreed that Nigeria Rail system has failed in their primary objectives. Analysis of the respondents view shows that 18.2% of the respondents (15 respondents) strongly agreed, 20.7% of (17 respondents) agreed, 31.7% of (26 respondents) disagreed while 24.3% of (20 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question. This means that majority of the respondent view and agreed that the Nigeria Railway Cooperation management should not be left alone in decision and manage of her affair, that the government, agencies, association and scholars should interfere in their management and decision making. The results in Table 2 indicates that 20.7% of the respondents (17 respondents) strongly agreed, 10.9 % of (9 respondents) agreed, 18.2 % of (15 respondents) disagreed while 37.8% of (31 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question. This shows that majority of the respondents disagreed that the incessant change of the chief executive of NRC does not has any negative effect on its operation. The respondents views from Table 2 shows that 45.1% of respondents (37 respondents) strongly agreed, 30.4% of (25 respondents) agreed, 8.5% of (7 respondents) disagreed while 12.1% of (10 respondents) strongly disagreed to the survey question that non-payment of employees had contributed to poor operation of staff in the Nigeria Railway Corporation. This means that majority of the respondent conceived that the employees of Nigeria Railway Corporation are not committed to their jobs due to delay and non-payment of their salaries and wages within the appropriate time. The table above shows that 39.0% of (32 respondents) strongly agreed, 25.8% of (21 respondents) agreed, 15.8% of (13 respondents) disagreed while 8.5% of (7 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above. This indicates that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that more railway system in each district of the country can be made to reposition itself. With this view of the respondents rail transport will have more patronage.

Also, analysis in Table 2 also shows that 25.6% of (21 respondents) strongly agreed, 39.0% of (32 respondents) agreed, 13.4% of (11 respondents) disagreed while 9.7% of (8 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above. This indicates that majority of the respondents agreed that if Nigeria railway Corporation System can be in good shape, effective and meet up customer expectations there will be increase in revenue generated by the railway corporation through increase in patronage by the people. The respondents views show that 39.0% of (32 respondents) strongly agreed the statement that NRC operation has positively promote the trade and commerce of the economy, 32.9% of (27 respondents) agreed, 12.1% of (10 respondents) disagreed while 8.5% of (7 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above. The frequency table indicates that majority of the respondents strongly agreed the statement which means Nigeria government should improve railway system infrastructure facilities which will encourage businessmen or trader that cannot afford other means of transport to increase their business through rail transport because is cheaper than other means of transport. The frequency table above shows that 18.2% of (15 respondents) strongly agreed, 41.7% of (34 respondents) agreed, 21.9% of (18 respondents) disagreed while 14.6% of (12 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question above. This indicates that majority of the respondents agreed that Nigeria Railway Corporation has created employment and improve Nigeria gross domestic product. Table 2 shows that 47.5% of (39 respondents) strongly agreed questionnaire statement, 19.5% of (16 respondents) agreed, 10.9% of (9 respondents) disagreed while 7.3% of (6 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question. This show that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that the Poor management strategies and lack of communication has fail the NRC operation. The respondents view from the frequency table shows that 45.1% of (37 respondents) strongly agreed that inadequate coaches and inquiries affected the operation and revenue generation status of the Nigeria railway system, 30.4% of (25 respondents) agreed, 8.5% of (7 respondents) disagreed while 12.1% of (10 respondents) strongly disagreed on the survey question.

Hypothesis Testing

In this study, two alternative hypotheses as stated in section one were tested. The test statistics was the chi-square test. To test hypothesis one, item 11 of the questionnaire was used. The item is: “The Nigeria railway cooperation could enhance the generation of revenue for her operation”. However, the hypothesis is stated below as:

H_{01} : Rail transport has not significantly improved the accessibility of revenue generation by management.

From Table 3, the calculated χ^2 is equal to 24.707 and is significant at $p < 0.05$. As a result, the null hypothesis is rejected, thereby accepting the alternative. By implication, it means rail transport has significantly improved the accessibility of revenue generation by management.

To test the second hypothesis, item 12 of the questionnaire was used. The hypothesis is stated below as:

H_{02} : Rail transportation operation has no positive effect on the promotion of trade and Commerce.

The χ^2 test was also used for this hypothesis. The null hypothesis was rejected because the calculated χ^2 of 37.634 is also significant at 5% significant level and degree of freedom of 4. This is shown in Table 3. Consequently, the alternative hypothesis was not rejected. In effect, rail transportation operation has positive effect on the promotion of trade and Commerce.

Table 3: Chi-square test statistics

	The Nigeria railway cooperation could enhance the generation of revenue for her operation	NRC operation has positively promote the trade and commerce of the economy
Chi-Square	24.707 ^a	37.634 ^a
Df	4	4
Asymp. Sig.	.000	.000

a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected frequencies less than 5. The minimum expected cell frequency is 16.4.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study focused on analysis of rail transport operation and management in Nigeria. Findings showed that rail transport has significantly improved the accessibility of revenue generation by management. This means that rail transport has significant impact on increasing revenue generated by management. This increment in revenue is subject to the effectiveness and efficiency of rail transport system. In addition, the study revealed that rail transportation operation has positive effect on the promotion of trade and commerce in Nigeria. However, the study revealed that 75% of the users of the rail are not satisfied with operation and the unstable changing of the management which has an effect on the continuity of project in driving the rail operation. About 67% of the respondents indicated that the poor management strategies and lack of communication has failed the NRC operation.

It is therefore recommended that Nigeria government should invest more on rail transport system. Adequate funding of the rail system and prudent management control will help to improve the patronage of the system and increase the economic activities coupled with the enabling environment, in which this can turn the Nigeria railway cooperation around and create disciplinary measure against undisciplined and fraudulent staff. Furthermore, government should provide necessary instruments and way to tackle the problems disturbing the perfect operations of the railway system in Nigeria.

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***Technique of Launching a New Product
in the Services Sector Applied Study on
Launching the 4G Product of the National
Telecommunications Company, Algiers***

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Maitre de conférences "A"

abdelatif Maamir

Mastère II

Introduction:

Experts and researchers in the field of marketing confirm that the core element in the marketing mix is the product, since it links between the company and consumer. Companies would not be able to achieve their marketing goals unless they launch new products that fit with the needs and requirements of consumers. Thus, a product should not be seen as worth buying from the companies' perspective but rather from the point of view of consumers.

The product, like any other output of the company, does not last so long. It passes through a life cycle that determines its release, and how long would it hold in the market before the first problems affecting the sales volume begin to appear, affecting subsequently the company's profits. Many studies, particularly in developed countries, have shown that more than half the number of new products is changing or being substituted by other products; and that some of these new products, when entering the market, are subject to failures, or consumer's dissatisfaction.

On this basis, the company considers what would keep their products away from different problems and obstacles. One of these methods is new products launch techniques. The importance of this process, often appears in the late stages of the product life cycle, resides in its objectives : to remedy the problem of consumers abandoning the purchase of the product and to avoid a drop in sales or profits volume.

Thus, new products launch is not an easy phenomenon or process: It requires a set of high cost procedures and equipments, which a company may not afford; it also goes through some stages and steps that require joint efforts and great potential within the company. Besides, the new product techniques are not available to the company at any time, nor are they in the hands of all companies, as only a few of them put among their goals to launch new products on the market.

I. Research's Problem:

The present research's problem revolves around identifying the most important techniques followed while launching new products in service companies. We shall focus on analysing the case of the "Mobilis' Telecom" in Algiers when launching its "new product 4G". And so, the problem has been reformulated in the following main question:

What are the key techniques followed by companies while launching new products, Telecom Company in Algiers as a model? We can also ask the following sub-questions:

1. What is the concept of a new product?
2. What are the basic stages of launching a new product?
3. What are the factors and characteristics which lead to a new product viability or failure within the service companies?
4. What are the techniques used in launching the product «4G» within Telecom Company in Algiers?

II. Reasearch's Hypotheses:

To answer the above questions, the following hypotheses were adopted:

1. Adopting the appropriate technique in launching new products enables the service company to achieve its objectives in the market.

2. Introducing new products means revolutionizing the launched product.
3. The goal of developing the product is to guarantee the company's endurance and persistence in the business sector.
4. Copying and imitating the competitors' products is the most commonly used method in the development process at the research population company.

III. Significance of Research: the significance of this research resides in:

1. Defining the new techniques of product offering in the service sector, and more specifically within telecommunication corporation "Mobilis" in Algiers, that has launched its new product "4G".
2. The subject of this study has is of great importance, given its relevance to the practical reality of any economic institution seeking to grow and survive. Not any company can endure without permanently promoting its products (goods and services), on the condition of creating some add-on services and enhancements to these products.

IV. Aims of the Research:

The present study aims to present the strategies and techniques of launching the new product "4G" in the Telecom Company «Mobilis» in Algiers. They include some add-on services and improvements intended to meet the customers' demands and wants and persuade them to buy this new product.

In order to achieve its specific objectives, the study is divided into two main axes:

Axis I: it includes the theoretical part of the study.

Axis II: it is allocated to the applied Study.

Axis I: it is divided into the following sections:

One: What is a New Product?

Defining a new product makes us absolutely consider the causes that may lead a company to launch or offer its product in the intended market, so as to attain the given objectives planned for in advance. For this purpose, most of companies had created a research and development department (R&D), that works on developing their products and giving them an added value.

1. Definition of New Product:

Realising its marketing strategic objectives, the product, in itself, is one of the most important marketing mix elements to the company: Many businesses rely on the product viability to reach their goals in success and outperforming their competitors. Given the stiff rivalry in the labor market, it becomes essential for those businesses to constantly improve their products in terms of quality, function and marketing strategies. In this way they can break into the market, get the customers' satisfaction, and subsequently raise the average order size for these products.

A new product is a product that is technically different from the other existing products. The degree of difference varies according to how individuals are perceiving it: the new product is seen and regarded as so by the user himself¹.

It is also the outcome of a development process: the result of integrating a new element from a particular place of business, whether technical or marketing,... etc, in order to improve the quality of the product offered to the consumer².

“Philip Kotler” sees a product as: anything that can be offered to a market for consumption, use, acquisition or something that can satisfy a need or want. Therefore, a product can be a physical good, a non-physical service, a person, a place, an organisation, or even an idea. It is a unit with a set of distinctive attributes including: volume, price, design, color, taste,...etc³.

It is defined also as anything that can be changed, added, improved or developed depending on the attributes of the product, whether tangible or intangible, or the services that go with it ; and leads to satisfying the present or future needs and wants of customers in target market segments. This product is then new to the business, market, customers or all of them⁴.

Thus, the previous definitions cover the true meaning of a new product:

- It is a developed product : a product upon which some adjustments or developments have been done to bring about new benefits that weren't reachable before.
- Invented product : not existing on the market before, it is an original product that is devised for the first time.
- Adjusted product: a product upon which radical modifications have been inducted, whether in terms of combination or design, to make it obviously different from its previous form. For this reason it is seen as distinctive from the developed product.

2. Characteristics of New Products:

- Compatibility of the new product with the existing consumerism (social approval).
- A new product should have the principle of comparative advantage.
- Consistency of the new product with the market demands as well as with the company's potential.
- The extent to which the degree of renewal in the new product is obvious.
- The new product should be easy to use.

3. Categories of of New Products:

Due to the different points of view about the concept of new products, it becomes difficult for most of researchers in the field of marketing to reach an agreement that determines a precise, comprehensive and unified category of the new products. The distinction between those products is usually made depending on the degree of their development and innovation, whether to the marketplace or the company. On this basis, we have adopted Philip Kotler's model that has identified six categories of new products⁶.

- **New-to-the-World Products:** Product new to the company and the market. It is launched as a result of inventions and innovation (New products that create an entirely new market).
- **New Product Lines:** The product is new to the company, but not to the market. This new product is considered as an essential part to the company's current products lines that are absolutely different from the established (existing) ones. This investment is a real market opportunity (New products allow the company to enter an established market for the first time).
- **Improvements and Revisions of Existing Products:** The company improves or adjusts the existing product to give a good image and extra value to the new product that is to be offered or launched in the marketplace (Improvements in features and benefits of a product).
- **Additions to Existing Product Lines:** The company supplement its established product lines with new products that are close in description or other marketing transactions to the existing ones (package sizes, flavors and so on).
- **Repositionings:** The company resorts to this method when it finds or discovers new uses, new markets/ market segments; or when it changes the client's impressions in the market (there must be some changes in the existing product to suit the new markets targeted).
- **Cost reductions:** It is a new product providing similar performance at lower cost to the company. It may be not considered as a new product to the clients because no improvements or new benefits are brought about.

Two: Importance and Reasons of New Products Offering:

It is in the interest of any company to maintain its high position on the market : it has to work hard to satisfy the consumer's current and future needs. It has also to achieve a robust profit through increasing its market share and sales volume ; or by developing / improving its products.

4. Importance of New Products Offering:

We can summarise the importance of a new product offering in the following points⁷ :

- A new product is an essential requirement for the subsistence and development: when a company realises more sales volume (through launching a new product), this leads to increasing the company's sales and doubling its market share, contributing, subsequently to the company's survival.
- Maximizing the consumer's choices: developing the products offered on the market gives more and important chances for the final customer in choosing among the existing products.
- It maintains the company's high position and good image: the company wishes to avoid the consequences of fatal product obsolescence resulting from competitors seeking to develop and renew their products.
- The customer's increasing impact and role in determining the attributes of the product.
- Achieving the company's goals: they are divided into financial goals such as: increasing the market share, the company's sales and profits volume; and non-financial goals.

5. Causes of a New Product Offering:

The nature of the current competitiveness made it of a key importance for the company's survival and development to improve and innovate its products: while distributors and customers always expect the flow of new products, companies wish with all their potential to satisfy their needs and wants. It is recognised that no product can endure in the market for so long without being changed or developed. Companies are fully aware that competitiveness conditions and changes in the customer's wants affect their market share and Competitive position, and this is what pushes them to develop their products to face competition risks. Thus, we can identify the causes of a new product launch in the following points :

- Competition: through developing its new products, the company is able to face the competition and reach its objectives.
- Technological advances: the rapid technological development led to a clear outcome : rushing appearance of new products, and disappearance of some others with a shortage in their life-cycle ; given that offering a new product is based on technology.
- Constant communication with clients: the leading major companies are looking to constantly communicating with clients whether at the level of shareholders (investing the funds and investments according to the working environment variables), or suppliers (regularly concerned with providing resources), and this leads to the inevitability of offering the new product.
- Modernizing the demand for products: markets may reach the level of saturation with products, which leaves the company with one option: moving towards the renovation with the aim of offering new innovative products that carry new thoughts about finding new marketplaces and a new demand. The following figure summarizes the causes of new product offering :

Figure N°1
Causes of New Product Offering



Source: New Product Development: Why Develop New Products for your Business?', Learn Marketing.

www.learnmarketing.net/whyNPD.htm

Three: Aims and Types of New Products Launch:

A new product launch process involves reaching, through using this promotional technique, given goals already set by the company. The new product takes different forms that will be identified in the following element:

1. Aims of New Products Launch⁸:

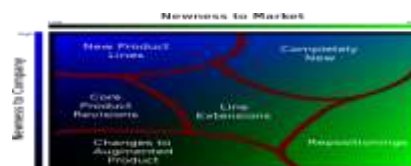
- To maintain the company's name, position and reputation, and guarantee its survival.
- To create new demand in non-consuming individuals through innovation and development.
- Enlarging the range of production and increasing the lines and depth of the mix.
- To keep a pace with the technological evolution in the fields of industry and media.

2. Types of New Products: new products take many forms, the most important of them are⁹:

- New goods produced for new marketplaces.
- Products introduced by the company to seize a share in the marketplace already in there.
- Adding new products that complete the products available currently in the company.
- Adding and introducing improvements to the existing products so as to improve their effectiveness or replace them.
- Redirecting the products to other categories of consumers.
- Goods produced at a lower cost than before.

Figure N°2

Types of New Products



Source: Jennifer Lombardo, Education Portal, 'Types of New Products : New Product Lines, Product Improvements ∞ More'.

Four: The Technical Stages of New Products Launch:

The process of a new product launch goes through many stages:

1. **Evaluating and Preparing the New Product Stage:** the aim of this phase is to make the company check the scale of its readiness to launch the new product, by recognizing its potentials in launching this new product, and its choices between doing this process and just bringing about adjustments and improvements to its current products¹⁰.

This stage includes pursuing the following steps:

- A- Analysis of the Situation:** it is like a preliminary stage for every company. It allows the company to take a decision in launching its new product on the market successfully, with a view to evaluating its capacities in launching this product through studying and analysing its competitive strategy, and the variety of products previously known.
- B- The Internal Preparation:** this stage means that the company is ready to launch its new product in the market that it has the intention to enter to. So as to guarantee the effective functioning of the process, the company resort to hiring a staff composed of members of employees and agents whose work is to launch this product, and indirectly urge the adoption of the project by all the company.
- 2. Prototype Design and Launch Stage:** the aim of this stage is to prepare a prototype: it is a trial product that is allowed to be used in the next stage which is “testing”. The prototype should have all the specifications of a new product to be launched on the markets that companies want to have access to. During this phase, logistical, technical and scientific studies are taking place, and the company is required to provide necessary resources to ensure the success of this stage. This should be conducted through: studying the target market (market, different attributes of the product, sources of information concerning the target market, consumer's opinion) and analysing the competition, operational provision related to the product's marketing¹¹.
- 3. The Trial Stage:** the product is tested by a limited number of consumers, so as to assess its characteristics and the extent to which it responds to the customers aspirations. These tests are implemented before launching the new product in the market that the company aims to have access to.
- The trial stage tests give a chance to the company to put the new product in the hands of customers, with the aim to determine the extent of its expectations validity about this product, consistency of the new product's attributes with the customers' requests and the level of the customers' readiness to buy this product. This stage is of a key significance to the company: before launching any of its new products in the target markets, the company resort to correct and make up for the potential deficiencies in those products¹².
- 4. The Product Launch Stage:** the new product launch stage is considered as a stereotyped process. The company follow seriated stages in this process: it is required to find a balance between internal factors concerning the company in itself and external factors represented in the market, starting from data collected in the trial stage.

Five: Factors of New Products Viability and Failure:

1. Factors of New Products Viability:

One can not consider any new product launched for the first time in the market as a successful product. Experts and specialists in the field of marketing see that just one idea out of tens of

new ideas can actually be transformed into a new product that is to be introduced to the market. Some of the cases in which new products can be successful are as follows :

- Consistency of the product with the existing consumption patterns: the more the product presented to the customer is within the framework of a mass consumption pattern, the more successful the new product is, i.e. technological devices offered to the consumer from time to time.
- Product's comparative advantage: some new products give, clearly and permanently, an advantage to the consumer in using it with consistency of this product with the market's demands as well as the company's efficiency.
- The company's competitive environment and organizational set-up characterizing the market and the company.
- Existence of opportunities to test and try the products: e.g. food, big campaigns that give people a chance to taste new food. The same thing applies to detergents free samples.
- The clarity of the degree of innovation in the product.
- User friendly.
- Use of evaluation steps in a circulating manner that fits the new product.

2. Factors of New Products Failure:

New products may face in many cases unhappy endings, and this may result from:

- Difference in the area of activity: some of these fields are attempts of renewal; therefore, they are subject to failure. E.g. consumer goods that call for deep and conscious marketing studies.
- Access to new markets: depending on different international environments, such as international markets. So, political and sociological changes are not taken into consideration.
- Points of weakness in the product: low level of performance and quality standards, increase in complexity of the product, the non clear differentiation from competitors.
- Decrease in the sales volume and profit margin: unexpected increase in costs whether fixed or stepped.
- Insufficient market analysis: big default in marketing efforts, absence of an adequate follow-up to the programs and particularly a shortage in marketing expertise (in the area products).
- Underassessment of product time: delay in the product launch.

Axis II: We will try in this axis to answer questions related to the techniques of new products launch, and that in an empirical study of the telecommunications company "Mobilis" in Algiers.

One: “Mobilis Company”:

1. Definition of the Company:

Ordinance No. 03/2000 of 5 August 2000, provided for independence of postal and transport sector. By this ordinance, both “Algeria Post” company (ensuring postal sector management), and “Algeria Telecom” company (in charge of developing telecommunications network) have been established in the country. “Algeria Telecom” has become an economic public institution, in the field of telecommunications, with shares and a social capital. More than two years later, and in the wake of the studies conducted by Ministry of Post and Information and Communication Technology, “Algeria Telecommunications consortium” project has become reality in 1 January 2003. The company proceeded ever since to finish what it has already started right after independence, but with completely different perspectives: the company become more independent in its management from Ministry of Post; thus, it was forced to prove itself in the midst of fierce competition (survival of the fittest), particularly with the opening of telecommunications market to competition¹³.

The consortium has as its main activities the following:

- Providing telecommunications services with what allows transferring image, voice, written messages and digital data.
- Developing, managing and ensuring the continuity of public and private telecommunications networks.
- Constructing, investing and managing internal communications with all telecommunications network's operators.

Algeria Telecom is considered as a real consortium due to the many subdivisions that were created to keep pace with developments in the field of telecommunications. After its creation, Algeria Telecom “Mobilis” has become a subdivision that is specialized in mobile phones. Soon after, it gained a reputation as the most important mobile phone operator in Algeria, thanks to its high percentage coverage that goes beyond 98% and customer quotient that exceeds 10 million subscribers.

Since its establishment, ‘Mobilis’ set as its main objectives the following:

- Providing the best services;
- Take good care of subscribers to ensure their satisfaction and fidelity;
- Creativity;
- Presenting new services that go with technological developments, and this is what enabled it to achieve important business numbers in a very short time (11 million customers in its different services).

“Mobilis” provide the following services: GSM (Global System for Mobile), GPRS (General Packet Radio Service), Wireless Internet, 3G services, BlackBerry, International Navigation service and 4G services (subject of the study). It owns more than 4200 cover stations BTS (Base Transceiver Station); its network covers some 97% of Algeria’s area ; it has more than

110 commercial agencies and 52.000 accredited selling points by the end of 2010, and assembles around 11 million clients in its different services.

“Mobilis” hope to convey a positive image of the company by providing a high quality network; diversifying and innovating the proposed offers and services¹⁴.

Since its independence from the big corporation, “Algerian Telecom Mobilis” attempted to adopt different strategies based on opportunities offered by the surrounding environment. Among these strategies are the following:

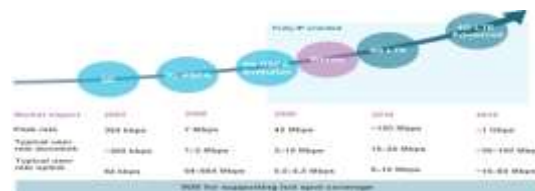
- Important market of more than 25 million customers.
- Higher demand on different offers and services.
- Market of over-educated human resources that are able to meet the challenges.
- Partnership and skills development potential.

2. What is the ‘4G Lte’ (Fourth Generation):

Algeria Telecom has officially launched its new product ‘The Fourth Generation of Wireless Internet’ (Radio Waves). The new product will enable customers to surf on internet of high flow speed that reaches up to 150 Mbps. The flow is split among the customers connecting in the same time on the same radio station (eNodeB) to enable Algerian citizens in towns, small villages and desert areas to surf on net, and download videos and huge files with very high resolution and at full speed.

Figure N°4

Ultimate Capacity of Data Download and Effective Capacity or Average Capacity of Data Download



Source: jawalak7yatak website, “what are Fourth Generation Networks 4G or LTE, and does corporations effectively offer them in the world now ?” (9 October 2013).

www.jawalak7yatak.com/4g-vs-lte-key-differences-explained.html

The 4G will not make an end to the problem of internet in Algeria as Algerians might think, since it covers only places where antennas exist. And even if there is already enough of those

antennas, the problem is still not solved considering that the 4G antenna's capacity is weak, i.e. not more than 100 participants for 1 antenna¹⁵.

Two: The Method and Tools used in the Field Research:

The practical part comprises the adopted method in this research; research population and samples, variables and tools.

1. Research Method: it includes the following elements :

Research population and sample: the current study covers a set of employees (30 employees from 'Mobilis Telecom'). The aim of the study is to identify the techniques of launching the new product "4G". For this reason, the Descriptive and Analytical Approach has been adopted.

2. Research Variables:

- Independent variable : product launch techniques.
- Dependent variable: employees views about launching the new product 4G.
- Intermediate variables: sex, age, marital status, employment status and school level.

3. Research Tools:

Secondary Data: information related to the theoretical part. It is gathered from various references in both Arabic and foreign languages: books, Ph. D. dissertations, Master's thesis, websites.

Primary Data: it is a questionnaire that comprises a serie of questions. They are divided into two sections:

Section one: it includes questions about demographic variables of the research sample: sex, age, marital status, employment status and school level.

Section two: it comprises research variables in two main dimensions: new products launch techniques (16 questions), and views of staff about launching the new product "4G" (19 questions).

"Trio Likert scale" has been used to measure population's level of response to the questionnaire's questions.

Table N° 1

'Trio Likert scale of population's level of response to the questionnaire's questions

Response	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Level	1	2	3

Table N° 2

Number of distributed and recoverd questionnaires

Statement	Employees	Percentage
Distributed Questionnaires	30	100%
Recoverd Questionnaires	30	100%
Analysable Questionnaires	30	100%

Three: Statistical Methods and Research Consistency Tool:

1. The Adopted Statistical Methods:

Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Software (spss 19) has been used to analyse the data. Therefore, we have adopted the following statistical methods:

- Coefficient of reliability (consistency) Cronbach's Alpha: to measure the degree of satability in questionnaire response;
- Arithmetic averages: to find out the degree of the interrogated people's approval to the questions;
- Descriptive statistics measures;
- Frequencies and percentages: percentages of research population's answers.

2. The Research Consistency Tool:

After setting the questionnaire questions, we have selected a measurement tool, i.e. coefficient of consistency "Cronbach's Alpha", so as to measure the degree of the questionnaire's reliability. The results obtained are as indicated in the following table:

Table N° 3

Cronbach's Alpha Testing Results on Axis I (Techniques of Products Offering)

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Questions
0.7	16

Source: prepared by the researcher depending on spss results

The table above shows that alpha value has reached 0.70, i.e. 70% of the research's population answered in the same manner once questioned over and over. This proves how reliable this population is, leading subsequently to the generalization of results in research.

Table N° 4

Cronbach's Alpha Testing Results on Axis II (New Products Launch in Services Sector)

Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Questions
0.68	9

Source: prepared by the researcher depending on spss results

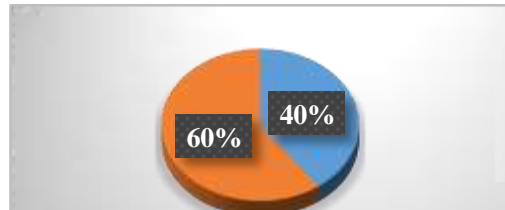
The table N°2 shows that alpha value has reached 0.68, i.e. 68% of the research's population, once requestioned, answered in the same way. This proves how reliable this population is, and leads subsequently to the generalization of results in research.

Four: Reporting and Analysing the Results of the Study:

1. Reporting the Results of the Study:

a- Describing and analysing the population characteristics in terms of sex.

Figure N°5
Population's Frequency Distribution in terms of Sex



Source: prepared by the researcher on the basis of information gathered from the investigated population, depending on spss results

It is evident from the figure above that the majority of the investigated population is from females: 18 individuals of the inquired population are females, equivalent to 60%; whereas, 12 of them are males, which represent 40% of the population in question.

b- Analysing the population characteristics in terms of age.

Table N° 5
Research Population's Distribution in terms of Age Variable

Age	Frequency	Percentage
Less than 30 (years old)	05	16.7%
Between 30 and 39 (years old)	11	36.7%
Between 40 and 49 (years old)	11	36.7%
Between 50 and 59 (years old)	03	10%
60 (years old) and more	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Source: prepared by the researcher depending on spss results

The table number 5 indicates that the category of employees whose ages range between 30-49 constitutes the highest percentage in the company with 36.7%, followed by the age category of less than 30 years old with 16.7%; and then 50-59 year-olds with only 10%, whereas there is no 60 (or more) age group. We can say then that the majority of the company's employees have ages ranging between 30 and 49 years old. By that, they represent the category of youth with a considerable amount of experience in the field.

c- Analysing the population characteristics in terms of academic level.

Table N° 6
Research Population's Distribution in terms of Academic Level

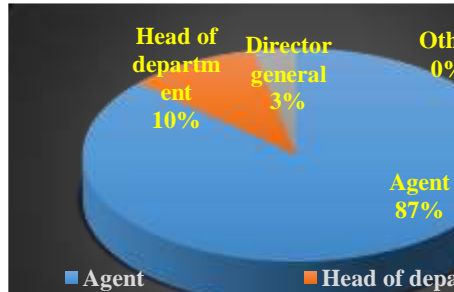
Academic Level	Frequency	Percentage
Middle School	00	00%
Secondary School	00	00%
University Level	30	100%
Others...	00	00%
Total	30	100%

Source: prepared by the researcher depending on spss results

It is evident from the table above that all the research population has a university level (100%), which means that the employees have high scientific potentials that enable them to improve the company's marketing performance.

d- Analysing the population characteristics in terms of career status.

Figure N° 6
Population's Frequency Distribution in terms of Career Status



Source: prepared by the researcher relying on spss results

The figure above shows that the majority of population investigated in regards to their employment status are agents, with some 86.7%. Heads of departments represent 10%, followed by director general who represent only 3.3%.

E- Analysing the population characteristics in terms of marital status.

Table N° 7
Research Population's Distribution in terms of Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	8	26.7%
Married	22	73.3%
Total	30	100%

Source: presented by the researcher depending on spss results

The table number 7 shows that 73.3% of the company's population sampling is married, which provides more psychological stability to the employees; whereas 26.7% of it is unmarried.

2. This section will discuss the results of analysing preliminary descriptive statistics measures such as: arithmetic average, standard deviation, and the relative significance of the research variables within the two major dimensions that have been designed and formulated in the questionnaire's questions. It will also discuss the results of testing the research hypotheses, and statistical inferences related to each one of them by using different statistical methods, like analysing the gentle decline to calculate the direct effect of independent variables in the proposed model on dependent variables according to each hypothesis, and for the purpose of presenting the obtained findings in a hierarchy.

a- Research findings concerning the techniques of launching the new product 4G :

The company's employees answers to this question have been analysed by focusing on the percentages of response frequencies (agree, disagree, neutral), to those items related to the techniques of launching new products, in addition to using the weighted average and standard deviation. The results of table number 8 are as follows:

Table N° 7

Percentages of Response Frequencies to the Items related to the Techniques of New Products Launch

Axis One		Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Deviation	Arithmetic Average	Tendency
Question 1	Percentage	0%	30%	70%	0.46	2.70	Agree
	Frequency	0	9	21			
Question 2	Percentage	26.7	20	53.3	0.86	2.27	Agree
	Frequency	8	6	16			
Question 3	Percentage	0	20	80	0.40	2.80	Agree
	Frequency	0	6	24			
Question 4	Percentage	0	16.7	83.3	0.37	2.83	Agree
	Frequency	0	5	25			
Question 5	Percentage	3.3	10	86.7	0.46	2.83	Agree
	Frequency	1	3	26			
Question 6	Percentage	0	10	90	0.30	2.90	Agree
	Frequency	0	3	27			
Question 7	Percentage	16.7	16.7	66.7	0.77	2.50	Neutral
	Frequency	5	5	20			
Question 8	Percentage	0	3.3	96.7	0.83	2.97	Agree
	Frequency	0	1	29			
Question 9	Percentage	1	3	26	0.46	2.83	Agree
	Frequency	3.3	10.0	86.7			
Question 10	Percentage	6.7	16.7	76.7	0.596	2.70	Agree
	Frequency	2	5	23			
Question 11	Percentage	3.3	3.3	93.3	0.40	2.90	Agree
	Frequency	1	1	28			
Question 12	Percentage	0	16.7	83.3	0.79	2.83	Agree
	Frequency	0	5	25			
Question 13	Percentage	3.3	6.7	90.9	0.34	2.87	Agree
	Frequency	00	1	332.77			

Question 14	Percentage	6.7	10	83.32.77	0.568	2.77	Agree
	Frequency	2	3	252.70			
Question 15	Percentage	6.7	10	83.3	0.56	2.77	Agree
	Frequency	2	3	25			
Question 16	Percentage	10	10	80	0.65	2.70	Agree
	Frequency	3	3	24			
Total							Agree

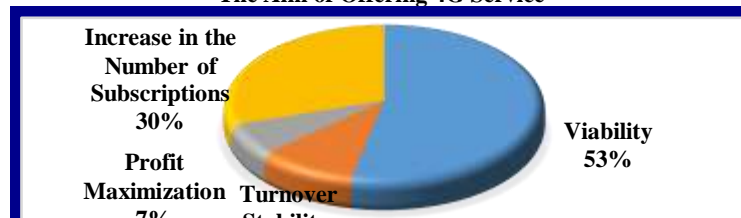
Source: prepared by the researcher depending on the findings of (spss 19) software

The table above shows that the arithmetic averages of expressions measuring techniques of new products launch range between 2.27 and 2.97, which suggests that the population sampling has agreed on the paragraphs including those techniques at medium or high levels. The table also indicates that the arithmetic average of most of paragraphs is around 3, which proves the leading position of the company, compared with its counterparts, in creating new offers and services. The company joined the 4G Technology since the day it has got the state’s approval, and now it conducts a research about the present and future clients’ needs and wants, no matter what the real or potential costs of some improvement or innovation initiatives are. In this way, the company aims to keep pace with new technologies once they come into existence.

Unlike its competitors, the company seeks to maintain its current subscribers and attract new customers by launching new services at low costs and attractive price reductions. For this reason it is considered as a leading company in the telecommunications sector.

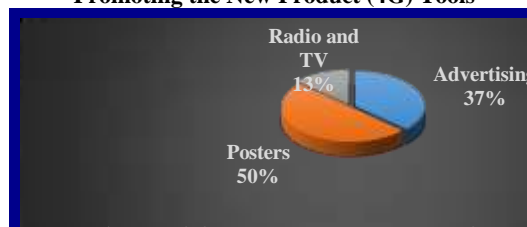
The findings of this analytical study confirm that the products’ high prices do not necessarily reflect their supreme quality. This goes back to the company’s goal from launching the new service, as well as its promotion ways, taking into account the competitors prices. And, that’s what these two figures show:

Figure N° 7
The Aim of Offering 4G Service



Source: prepared by the researcher depending on spss results

Figure N° 8
Promoting the New Product (4G) Tools



Source: prepared by the researcher depending on spss findings

We note here that the company's main goal is to increase and gain customer loyalty, by using a diverse promotion mix that comprises ads, posters; radio and TV: it has been relied more on posters with a rate of 50%, followed by advertising then radio and TV with 37% and 13% successively.

b- Research findings: employees' views about launching new products in Algeria Telecom have been measured through 9 paragraphs. The table bellow shows the following descriptive statistical measures such as arithmetic average and standard deviation.

Table N° 9

Employees' Views about Launching New Products

Axis Two		Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Standard Deviation	Arithmetic Average	Tendency
Question 1	Percentage	13.3%	76.7%	10.0%	0.49	1.97	Agree
	Frequency	4	23	3			
Question 2	Percentage	10%	26.7%	63.3%	0.68	2.53	Agree
	Frequency	3	8	19			
Question 3	Percentage	0%	13.3%	86.7%	0.34	2.87	Agree
	Frequency	0	4	26			
Question 4	Percentage	0%	13.3%	86.7%	0.34	2.87	Agree
	Frequency	0	4	26			
Question 5	Percentage	0%	16.7%	5%	0.37	2.83	Agree
	Frequency	0	83.3	25			
Question 6	Percentage	3.3%	6.7%	90.0%	0.43	2.87	Agree
	Frequency	1	2	27			
Question 7	Percentage	3.3%	10.0%	86.7%	0.46	2.83	Neutral
	Frequency	1	3	26			
Question 8	Percentage	0%	6.7%	93.3%	0.25	2.93	Agree
	Frequency	00	2	28			
Question 9	Percentage	0%	6.7%	93.3%	0.25	2.93	Agree
	Frequency	0	2	28			
Total							Agree

Source: prepared by the researcher depending on the findings of (spss 19) software

The table above shows that the arithmetic averages of expressions measuring new products development range between 1.97 and 2.93 values. All of them indicate that the population sampling agree on paragraphs measuring new products development at a high agreement levels. The table shows also that the arithmetic average value of paragraph number 1 which includes the question: 'Does 4G technology affect sales' is 1.97; whereas it reaches 2.93 in paragraphs number 8 and 9 which states: 'The company's board allocates adequate resources for the 4G distribution', and the expression 'The company's board seeks to fit in current products with the new product 4G'. It is shown in the table that arithmetic averages of all intermediate variable paragraphs, offering new products with high levels.

And so, we came to the following conclusion: to ensure its viability on the market and realize a satisfactory profit margin, the company works permanently to develop its current products by innovating new ones that meet the customers' needs and wants and keep up with their taste changes.

- c- **Hypothesis testing:** the hypothesis has been tested on the basis of SPSS software findings, descriptive analysis of the population sampling answers and the results obtained from element "B". The study ended up by providing an answer to the problem in question, i.e. what are the main techniques adopted when launching new products within service companies? 'Mobilis Company' as a sample.
- The study has proved that there is a direct relation between the techniques of launching the new product 4G and the employees views in "Mobilis Company".
 - Open several branches across the entire national territory, and accredit some agents to be near the subscribers while trying to gain new customers.
 - The company recruits university graduates to whom it provides regular theoretical and field trainings, in order to acquire different marketing skills that enable them to deal in a good way with customers. For this reason, salesclerks are considered as the most important elements of the product's promotion mix.
 - The company uses a series of tools to promote its products, particularly in launching the new product 4G. These tools have been classified by order of importance as follows: posters, advertising, then radio and TV.

Conclusion:

The present study concludes that the main reasons for developing new products within the research population is to achieve the company's goal of viability and maintain its competitive position. This research paper comes to the conclusion that the company has introduced the best offers for its products, by persuing strategies that would promote continuous technological innovation, in order to beat potential new competitors and destroy their business.

Suggestion:

- Using advanced techniques to ensure a powerful and high quality telecommunications process.
- Introducing new offers to the consumer to encourage the purchase process.
- To expand and set services, particularly the new ones.
- Promotional process intensification of new products.
- The need to focus on applying the idea of targeting marketing in order to identify available marketing opportunities, where the company's ability to serve its markets increases efficiently. This concept relies on the consumer-oriented philosophy that focuses on designing products that satisfy the customers' needs and wants.
- To study the organizational structures in-depth and find out to what extent they are suitable to the environment of excellence, innovation and reality of the environment; to see if it is possible to expand the use of modern tactics and if the use of such tactics

will lead to better results. Those studies may also be expanded to comprise looking into the extent to which there exists a relationship between the company's performance from one side, and the degree of this company's use of innovative techniques and the atmosphere of innovation and development that is providing from the other side.

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Annexe

(Questionnaire)

Questionnaire

In preparation for a research in management sciences, specialty of Marketing Strategy, for the academic season 2014/2015. I beg to offer you this questionnaire about studying techniques of launching new products within the service institution (4G). So, I'm pleased to ask from you to contribute to this study by honestly answering this questionnaire. Be sure that the answers provided are merely for the sake of scientific research. Thank you for your cooperation.

Personal information:

1. Sex: Male Female
2. Age: Less than 30 years old Between 30 and 39 years
From 40 to 49 years old From 50 to 59 years
60 years old and more
3. School level: Middle Secondary
University Others...
4. Social status: Single Married
5. Employment status: Agent Head of a Department
Director General Others (to be mentioned)...

Axis I: The marketing method of the new product 4G

You are kindly asked to answer this questionnaire following questions by putting (x) mark in the appropriate case.

1. What is the aim of offering 4G service?
Viability Turnover stability
Profits Maximization Increase the number of participants
2. What do we take into consideration when pricing 4G service?
Costs Competitor's prices
Average income Others...
3. What are the objectives the company seek to achieve with the new 4G service?
Create new offers Turnover increase
Profits Maximization Increase the number of participants
4. How do we promote 4G products?

Ads Posters
 Radio and TV Others...

N°	Statement	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
1	The company offers the 4G services in a good way			
2	Compared to competitors, 4G prices are high			
3	Compared to competitors' 4G , our company is a leader as to the number of offers			
4	Since it has been approved by the state, Your company joined 4G service			
5	Our company aims to detect opportunities and conquest markets before 4G competitors			
6	You are satisfied about the introduced 4G service			
7	High prices mean that the 4G service is of a high quality			
8	The company's 4G prices are affordable compared with the competitor's prices			
9	It offers better price reductions on 4G service compared with its competitors			
10	The 4G service exists only in some provinces of the country			
11	The company takes part in fairs to promote for the 4G product to a larger public			
12	You are satisfied about the 4G service introduced by			
13	We study the future clients' needs and wants			
14	Our company is not afraid of the potential risks that may result from improvement and innovation initiatives			
15	Our company spend a lot of money on innovating products			
16	Our company is trying to keep up with the new technologies once they come to existence			

Axis II: The employees' views about launching the new 4G product.

1. What is the reason behind launching the 4G service?

Keep up with technologies Mass media exposure
 Products line stretching

2. What is the process followed to improve the market share of 4G product?

Develop new products Improve the products' quality
 Reduce prices Sales force promotion
 Other...

N°	STATEMENT	DISAGREE	NEUTRAL	AGREE
1	Does the 4G strategy affect sales			
2	The senior management provides a conducive environment to 4G service			
3	The senior management supports launching the 4G service			
4	Collective work within your company helps gaining new customers for the 4G service			
5	There is a coordination between the administration and employees in the front row to offer 4G service			
6	Your company has adopted a clear strategy to promote for the 4G product			
7	The company's board of directors reward the employees who participate in the 4G service advertisement			
8	The company allocates enough resources for the distribution of 4G service			
9	The company's board of directors balance between the current products and 4G service			

Organised Labour's Responses to Economic Global Reforms in Ghana and Nigeria

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Abstract

The integration of Ghana and Nigeria into the neo-liberal economic process posed immense challenges for organised labour in both countries. These challenges were associated among others, with reduced public sector expenditure, privatisation of public enterprises, and low utilization of installed capacity and company closures in the private sector, casualisation of labour and job losses. These affected organised labour in the form of loss of members, low union density, reduced funds, and low mobilisation capacity. This study, therefore, examined the response of organised labour to challenges by the neo-liberal process, with particular reference to Ghana Trades Union Congress (GTUC) and the Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC). Situated in a qualitative design, the paper indicates a similarity in Union-responses to challenges of the neo-liberal process in both countries, particularly in the adoption of social movement unionism as a novel strategy. Others include voice representation in the neo-liberal reform processes, forming international labour alliances, political lobbying for favourable outcomes, training of union members, and creation of employment and recruitment of union membership. The GTUC, however, differs from the NLC in the establishment of a Labour College for workers' education, unionisation of informal sector workers, and the preference for mass peaceful demonstrations relative to strikes which enhanced sustainable development of GTUC and NLC.

Keywords: Neo-liberal reforms, Retrenchment, Privatisation, Casualisation, Labour alliances.

Introduction

This paper focuses on the response of organised labour to the threats posed by neo-liberal reforms; and, with particular reference to Ghana Trade Union Congress (GTUC) and Nigeria Labour Congress (NLC). The need for this study is hinged on the fact that no such comparative study has been conducted in both countries. Previous studies in both countries were conducted in isolation of each other – e.g., for Nigeria, Onyeonoru, 2004; Adenugba, 2004; Adewunmi, 2001; Adesina, 2000; and, for Ghana, Boateng, 2001; Anyemedu, 2000; Adu-Amakwah and Tutu, 1997. Thus, while these studies highlighted the respective response of the GTUC and NLC to the threats posed by economic globalization, they showed no comparative dynamics. This gap in knowledge seems to have undermined lessons that could be learnt from the similarities and dissimilarities inherent in the responses of both unions. But lessons from a comparative study are capable of engendering growth and development for organized labour, particularly as it relates to how unions struggle to survive and remain relevant to its members in the on-going economic neo-liberal process.

The choice of the study-locations is predicated on the comparability of organized labour in the two countries given the similarity in their historiography. Organized labour in both countries have been faced with challenges of economic neo-liberal reforms; the Unions in both countries had played important roles in the attainment of political independence; both countries share similar colonial experiences as former colonies of Britain; both have experienced military interventions on so many occasions; currently both have democratic governments; and, both operate a free-market economy with the government as the largest employer of labour. If, therefore, the two countries have been under similar ‘stimuli’ for decades, it is only exciting to investigate comparatively the dynamics of labour’s response to economic neo-liberal reforms in both countries.

The paper is qualitative; it relied on data from in-depth interviews conducted with GTUC and NLC officials and members; as well as existing documents such as historical accounts, research accounts, and union documents. The paper is divided into four sections: the first section introduces the objective of the study and method for data collection; the second section delves into the problem, highlighting the neo-liberal economic reforms in Ghana and Nigeria and challenges engendered by the process; in section three, the GTUC and NLC response to the challenges engendered by the neo-liberal reforms are discussed; and conclusions drawn in the fourth section.

Background to the Study

The integration of Ghana and Nigeria into the current neo-liberal economic globalisation process began in the early 1980s when both countries became afflicted by a devastating economic crisis. Generally, low economic performance in both countries were associated, among others, with external conditions, colonial history, heavy dependence on primary products, past economic policies, demographic change, lack of financial depth, deficient public service provisions, social-cultural conditions, ethnic and communal divisions, initial economic conditions to extra-ordinarily disadvantageous geography (Ajayi, 2004; Bloom and Sachs, 1998; Collier and Gunning, 1998).

Succinctly, Ghana’s economic crisis has been linked to the affliction of bushfires which depleted the soil, accompanied by drought which largely resulted in poor agricultural yields; repatriation of about one million Ghanaians by the Nigerian government in 1980; ineffective

leadership, accompanied with high rate of corruption in the public service; unstable democratic governments, represented by incessant interventions of the military in governance; the international debt burden; and stifling of credit to African countries (Gockel and Vormawor, 2004; Ofei-Agboaye, 2001; Panford, 1996). In Nigeria, the last four reasons mentioned for Ghana operates as well as the decline in the world oil price (Onimode, 1989).

However, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (WB) adduced the economic crisis in both countries to the implementation of inappropriate macro-economic policies, represented by grossly over-valued exchange rates that, in effect, served as subsidy on imports and tax on exports; maintenance of a highly inefficient huge public bureaucracy; poor investment management and low productivity of workers, import substitution, low-level industrialization and its policy on the environment, over-extended inefficient and discriminatory credit policies in the private sector, etc. (Gockel and Vormawor, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2003; Anyemedu, 2000; Boateng, 1998; Adesina, 1991; Bangura, 1991; Adu-Amakwah, 1990; Onimode, 1989). In other words, the thrust of the IMF/World Bank view is that the low economic performance in Ghana and Nigeria is a direct function of disequilibrium in their national economies between aggregate demand and aggregate supply given that the disequilibrium resulted in increased deficit in balance of payments, high rates of domestic inflation, and increasingly growing public sector deficits (Onyeonoru, 2003).

Therefore, solution to the crisis, as envisaged by the World Bank/IMF was to be imposed on African countries in the form of market reforms currently being globalized. These were introduced into both Ghana and Nigeria under the names of Economic Recovery Programme (ERP) and Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP), respectively.

Several scholars have critically studied the components of SAP and this needs not delay us here (Gockel and Vormawor, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2003; Hutchful, 2002; Ofei-Agboaye, 2001; Anyemedu, 2000; Mshomba, 2000; Onimode, 1998; Adewumi, 1998; Adu-Amankwah and Tutu, 1997). However, it was merely an economic adjustment measure allowing for the 'triumph' of neo-liberal monetarist economic policies.

Since 1983 and 1986, Ghana and Nigeria, respectively, have been carrying out a number of macro-economic and structural reforms directed at resuscitating the economy. Prominent of the reforms were the dominance of market forces, the retreat of the State from economic management, trade liberalisation, currency devaluation, reduction of non-productive investments in the public sector, rationalisation of the work force in the public sector, privatisation and general economic liberalisation, etc (Anugwom, 2007; Adenugba, 2004; Onyeonoru, 2003; Adesina, 2000).

The implications of these reforms on Ghana and Nigeria's economy, as well as organised labour, are tremendous. From the macro-economic level, the reforms led to considerable improvement in Ghana and Nigeria's economy. For example, in Ghana, Anyemedu (2000) reported that exports increased from \$450 million in 1983 to about \$2,090 million in 1998, while imports grew from about \$500 million in 1983 to about \$2,900 million in 1998. In terms of the trade intensity index – the sum total of exports and imports as a share of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) – an improvement from 20 per cent in 1984 to 59 per cent in 1997 was recorded.

The case was similar in Nigeria as exports grew from \$6.5 billion between 1982 and 1985 to \$13.8 billion in 1990. Oil exports have been linked with this increase (Onimode, 1989). There

was however, a decline in non-oil exports from \$557 million to \$106 million during the same period. In other words, the annual average growth rate of non-oil exports declined from 31.6% between 1982- 1985 to 4.8% between 1986- 1994 – an indication that Nigeria's Balance of Payments improved during the reforms. Gross National Savings (GNS) increased from 6.1 per cent pre – SAP (i.e 1981-1985) to 18 per cent of GDP in 1986-1990 while institutional savings rose from 6.0 per cent to 20.9 per cent of GDP for the same periods (Anyanwu, Oyefusi, Oaikhenan, and Dimowo, 1997). In spite of the growth in savings, investments declined. Gross Foreign Investment (GFI) showed a gradual decline from 48.5 per cent of GDP between 1981 and 1985 to 13.8 per cent in 1988; this increased marginally to 16.2 per cent in 1990. The Investment/GDP ratio (I/G) fell from a yearly average of 11.2 per cent in 1982-1985 to 5.4 per cent in 1986 and 1994 (Anyanwu, Oyefusi, Oaikhenan, and Dimowo, 1997).

Notwithstanding, the improved performance of both economies under the neo-liberal reforms did not translate in to social development and improved living standard for organised labour and workers, respectively. Studies also revealed that trade liberalisation led to flooding of the domestic markets with imported goods and services at relatively cheaper prices (Kiely, 2005; World Bank, 2003; Ajayi, 2001). However, the devaluation of local currencies destroyed the advantage of relatively cheaper prices of imported goods and services attained through trade liberalization due to the drastic decline in the purchasing power of the Ghanaian and Nigerian currencies. For instance, in Ghana, the Cedi (C) was grossly devalued from C2.75 = \$1.00 in 1983 when the reform started, to C4, 000 = \$1.00 in 2000. By 2002 the Cedi exchanged for C7800=\$1.00 (Gockel and Vormawor, 2004; Anyemedu, 2000).

In Nigeria, the Naira had a similar experience; it depreciated from US\$1=N0.60 in 1983, to N1.45 in 1987, between N7 and N9.8 = US\$1 in the years 1988-1991, between N18 and N21.9=US\$1 in the years 1992-1993. By the years 1997, 2000 and 2008, the rate had risen to N88=US\$1, N110= US\$1, and N150 = US\$1 (Onyeonuru, 2004; Anyanwu, Oyefusi, Oaikhenan, and Dimowo, 1997; Otodo, 1992). In the absence of current data, there is indication that the Naira would have depreciated more than the Cedi given the current revaluation of the Ghana currency in 2008.

In any case the devaluation of local currency in both countries implied increase in the cost of raw materials and beyond the reach of local manufacturers, who resorted to local materials which were exorbitant due to the removal of subsidy. This led to low patronage given that locally manufactured products tend to be expensive than imported goods. This accounted for the closure of many manufacturing firms with serious implications for private-sector employment (MAN, 2003; Adewumi, 2001; Boateng, 1998). In Ghana, evidence show that private sector employment dropped from 149, 000 in 1960 to a mere 31,000 in 1991 while in Nigeria, a total of 101 companies laid off about 200, 000 workers during the stabilization reform between 1981 and 1983 (Gockel and Vormawor, 2004; Bangura, 1989; Olukoshi, 1989).

Related to the above is the privatisation of public enterprises in both Ghana and Nigeria which aimed at increasing efficiency and productivity. Studies conducted in Ghana and Nigeria indicate that more than 13 and 22 public enterprises, respectively, have been successfully privatised while more are on the verge of being privatized (BPE, 2005; Hutchful, 2002). This led to the massive retrenchment of workers across all cadres. For example, in the Ghanaian public sector, about 73,000 workers were retrenched from 1987 onwards under the Civil Service Reform

programme. Another 100,000 workers were reported retrenched from Ghana's Cocoa Board from the mid-1980s to the early 1990s (Anyemedu, 2000; Fosu, 1999; Amoasi-Andoh, 1998; Boateng, 1998). Similarly, the records of the Nigerian Union of Railway Workers reveal that 19,558 workers were retrenched between 1986 and 1993 while another 5,000 were retired in the same period (Yesufu, 2000; NLC, 1994). Olukoshi (1990) also reported that about one million workers lost their jobs in both the industrial and public sectors of the economy in Nigeria under the reforms.

The job losses recorded led to the decline in union membership and, subsequently, reduced union check-off dues and hampered the operating capacity of both the GTUC and NLC. Table 1 shows the rate at which unions affiliated to the GTUC lost members from 1985 to 1998 and 2001 since the commencement of the neo-liberal economic reforms in the country.

In 1985, the total number of trade union members stood at 630,843; by 1998, the number dropped to 572,598. Virtually all the unions lost members except for three unions, namely: Health Service Workers Union (HSWU), Public Service Workers Union (PSWU), and Timber and Woodworkers Union (TWU) whose membership increased from 30,000, 63,000, and 18,000 in 1985 to 32,745, 89,324, and 24,334 in 1998. By 2001, these three unions whose experienced decline in their memberships to 16,647 (HSWU), 27,084 (PSWU), and 22,758 (TWU) – an indication that the increase recorded earlier was a fluke. Other unions whose membership data were available for 2001 showed that they lost members too except for the Public Utility Workers Union (PUWU) whose members increased from 10,000 in 1998 to 17,111 in 2001. A likely explanation for this increase may be that workers in this union are often professionals and render utility services that are difficult to neglect (see Table 1 in the appendix).

Like the GTUC, the NLC recorded decline of membership in its affiliate unions. For example, members of the National Union of Textile, Garment, and Tailoring Workers of Nigeria (NUTGTWN) continued to decline in the following pattern during the reform period - 1995: 100,000; Dec 2001- Dec 2002: 107,889; 2004: 50,000; and 2007: 20,000 (*ThisDay*, 2008; Intercontinental Bank Plc, 2004; NLC, 2003; MAN, 2002). Similarly, Onyeonoru (2003) reported that the National Union of Food, Beverage and Tobacco Employees lost 14,316 members between 1983 and 1985. Loss was also reported in the Federal Service in which 33,000 workers were laid-off due to the Civil Service reform, linked to the neo-liberal reforms (The Guardian, 2008).

Worse still, the flexibility of labour inherent in the neo-liberal reforms changed the pattern of work for workers from the traditional permanent employment status to casual or contract employment. This 'new' pattern of employment (casualisation) is a tactful means of de-unionizing workers and is becoming a wide spread practice in organisations in both Ghana and Nigeria. Workers in this category are fundamentally deprived of their rights in the workplace such that they cannot unionize, bargain, or negotiate their working conditions, and can be laid-off without notice and/or without any benefit. This has posed a great threat to both the GTUC and NLC particularly as casual workers are used by Management to break the effect of strikes when engaged upon by unions. The gravity of the threat on both labour organisations may be gleaned when the incidence rate is considered.

Gockel and Vormawor (2004) used the third round of the Ghanaian Living Survey (GLS) to show the incidence of casualisation in the private sector. According to their report, 39 per cent of formal sector workers in 1998-1999 did not have written employment contracts – meaning that

they were employed as casual workers. Furthermore, the Core Welfare Indicator Survey (CWIS) indicated that about 2 per cent of the total labour force or 13 per cent of the formal sector labour force comprised casual workers. In the Ghanaian public sector, the practice of casualisation was introduced during reforms. For instance, a study conducted on casual labour revealed that the University of Ghana's Estate Department has over 100 casual workers out of a work force of 220.

In respect of Nigeria, casualisation is a common practice in the oil industry. However, in recent times, the trend is becoming a favoured practice in the banking sector too. Available data on casualisation in the oil industry show that the ratio of casual workers to permanent workers is on the increase (NUPENG, 2003). Table II shows that there is a higher representation of casual workers compared to permanent workers in the oil sector of the economy except for the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) that has 9,000 permanent staff and 3,000 casual workers. Even at that, 3,000 casual workers are on the high side. The case of Mobil Oil Company is pathetic with no permanent employees in 2001 despite having been around since 1973. In Chevron Oil Company, there was 3,000 casual to 450 permanent staff. Records of Shell Petroleum Development Company (SPDC) show that the work-force employed consists of 8,000 casual and 520 permanent workers in 2001 (see table II in the appendix). The above picture suggests that the GTUC and NLC faced almost total elimination under the economic neo-liberal reforms.

Efforts of both governments to entrench the reforms engendered some actions that were inimical to the development of both the GTUC and NLC. Studies have shown cases where union leaders in both countries were brutalised, abducted, arrested, detained, and imprisoned for union related activities that were anti-reforms (Akua and Martens, 2008; Otobo, 1998). The former GTUC Secretary-General, Adu-Amankwah, and the former NLC President, Adams Oshiomole, are examples of union leaders who have been victims of government brutality.

At varying times, the GTUC and NLC were proscribed; and Sole Administrators appointed to oversee the affairs of the central labour organisations – this undermined the essence of both organisations such that members almost lost faith in the ability of their unions to protect them (Onyeonoru, 2001; Panford, 1994, 1996).

It is against these challenges that it became necessary for both the GTUC and NLC to respond to the threats posed by the neo-liberal reforms in order to redeem their images before their members as well as to remain relevant in the on-going neo-liberal process. How did the GTUC and NLC respond to these challenges enumerated hereinbefore? The next section discusses the strategies 'employed' by both central labour organisations to cope with the reforms.

GTUC and NLC's Responses to Challenges Posed by Economic Neo-Liberal Reforms

Both GTUC and NLC have responded to the challenges engendered by the economic neo-liberal reforms in many ways. But these responses can be broadly categorized into two: intellectual, and practical. While the latter reflects the GTUC and NLC's response in its raw state, the former addresses the ideological contradictions inherent in the neo-liberal reforms and proffers mechanisms to develop the intellectual base of union members in order to contend favourably with the neo-liberal challenges.

Thus, the intellectual response covers the area of education and training of union members, forming international alliances/labour movement unionism, appointment of representatives in policy implementation organs, recruiting union members, creation of employment, and lobbying

while the practical level reflects in actions like demonstration/ protest and strikes, and picketing. We now examine some of these responses in detail.

Education and Training of the Membership

The GTUC and the NLC realize how vital training of members is to union struggle, hence, the need for capacity building. The idea behind capacity building of union members is to enable trade unions in both countries produce officials and officer that can withstand the intellectual debates of the various neo-liberal policies introduced by the State. In other words, capacity building is channelled to equip union members with knowledge, understanding of labour and labour related issues such as the labour standards, labour laws as well as socio- economic issues such as deregulation of fuel prices, poverty reduction strategy, re-denomination of Ghana's currency, income wages, etc.

To accomplish this goal, the GTUC established a Labour College with the functions of producing study materials and making available both technical and administrative support for implementing training and educational programmes, implementing a comprehensive education and training programme for the trade union movement, and, encouraging studying and learning in the labour movement through seminars, outreach programmes, academic and non-academic Courses and discussions.

Training has long commenced in the Labour College. For example, the GTUC in collaboration with University of Cape Coast's, Centre for Development Studies (CDS), run three separate programmes namely, Certificate in Labour Studies (CLS), Diploma in Labour Studies (DLS), and Diploma in Labour Policy (DLP). At the end of these programmes, the University issues academic certificates to successful participants (<http://training.itcilo.org/actrav/>).

At the grass-roots level, Local Trade Union Schools (LTUSs) were established in 2006. Thus, trade unions located in particular geographical regions are invited to one (1) week intensive training on issues relating to neo-liberal policies, globalisation, workers' rights, occupational health, environmental issues etc. Reports show that the LTUSs are effectively in operation in four regions. In the absence of current data, there are indications that more regions would have been covered. In addition, the GTUC has over the years added glamour to trade union education, organised by some affiliate unions through the introduction of courses in Basic, Intermediate, and Advanced trade union education. For wider coverage, the GTUC also runs a radio programme called "Workers' Link". The programme comes on air every Thursday, from 4.00pm to 5.00pm and labour related issues constitute major topics for discussion.

The Labour College is however, fraught with some problems such as inadequate funding, no clear definition of roles between the unions and the Labour College, and insufficient attention to participant selection which has led to the enrolment of people with diverse levels of educational backgrounds offering the same Course. This has impacted negatively on the overall utility of the Course such that the Courses are often too low for some while too high for others.

Unlike the GTUC, the NLC has not established a Labour College but, operates a Labour Institute by the name "Michael Imodu Institute of Labour Studies" (MIILS). The Institute is owned by the Nigerian Government, and by this fact Labour's control over the Institute is limited. There has been continuous agitation by the NLC to take full control of the Institute. However, the NLC and its affiliate unions have been organising training and research programmes. These

programmes have helped workers to adapt to their 'new' environment and have provided them with great insight into Governments' economic policies. They have also assisted workers in developing strategies of dealing with the effects of economic policies on their unions and themselves. For example, between September 3 and 5, 2003, the NLC organised a national training workshop for its members in Ibadan with the theme "Labour and Management Relations in a Difficult Socio-Political and Economic Environment". The NLC also organised another educational and training workshop in Kaduna with the theme "Union Survival and Global Challenges" between June 14 and 16, 2004.

The Education Department of the NLC often organize 'schools' – Rain and Harmattan – for members and its affiliates. For instance, in Calabar, between June 28 and July 21 2004, a "Rain School" was organized by the Education Department with the theme "Trade Unions and Globalization: Challenges for Leadership and Organization". The participants were drawn from the affiliates and the Congress of Free Trade Unions (CFTU). At the State level, the Education Department of the NLC has organized Local Schools in the 36 States and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT) Council for 10 weeks between March 7 and May 9, 2006.

Internationally, the NLC embarked on exchange programmes wherein members are sent to other countries for further training. In 2001, the NLC sent some of its members to Cuba for training on an Exchange Programme which constitutes part of bilateral relationships jointly financed by the Central Trade Union Congress of Cuba (CTUC) and the NLC. Similarly, members of the NLC and designated members of its affiliates are usually sent to Turin, Italy, for short and long term training-programmes to equip them with the skills and knowledge needed to meet the challenges posed by the neo-liberal economic policies.

While many union officials have gained from such training, the percentage of those who have benefited is still insignificant. The NLC can improve in this area if a Labour College were established, as has been proved successfully in Ghana.

Forming Social Alliances/Labour Movement Unionism

The GTUC and NLC formed alliances to influence the policies of government at two levels: national and international. At the national level, the GTUC and NLC formed alliances with civil society organizations, such as Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations with the principal objective of fighting increase in petroleum pump- prices. These bodies worked together to ensure that the much-needed awareness was created through organizing public rallies, seminars, symposia, and conferences.

Internally, the GTUC has established an alliance with bodies such as the Civil Servants Association, the Ghana National Association of Teachers, the Ghana Registered Nurses Association, and the Judicial Service Staff Association. Similarly, in 2003, the NLC formed an alliance with the Conference of Nigerian Political Parties (CNPP) to redress unpopular government policies. The alliance was set up to 'fight' the hike in fuel prices, press for the reactivation of the country's refineries, and for lifting the ban on public rallies. The President of the NLC justified the alliance in the light of what he called "Government's insensitivity to the feelings of Nigerians". The groups created awareness through press conferences, printed leaflets, and instituted a suit against government on the injurious policies.

At the international level, the GTUC and NLC allied with the Commonwealth Trade Union Congress (CTUC). The alliance main objectives are to address issues as they relate to workers generally and to develop strategies of solving problems as applicable to the various unions. To this end, Conferences, Seminars, meetings and training workshops were organized in different Commonwealth countries. For example, the meetings held in Accra and Abuja in September and December, 2003 respectively, between the GTUC and CTUC, on one the hand, and, the NLC, on the other. Among other things discussed were privatization, collective bargaining, non-implementation of agreements by governments, non-ratification of some aspects of the ILO Convention, and social dialogue.

Similarly, the GTUC and NLC allied together to agitate against worker unfriendly reforms implemented by their governments – some of which include deregulation, liberalization, tariff dismantling, liquidity squeeze, devaluation of currency, and privatization. The insensitivity of government to the yearnings of the people was totally condemned. This prompted both central unions to resuscitate the Organization of Trade Unions in West Africa (OTUWA) with the major aim to making OTUWA a forum where issues on debt crisis, poverty problem, HIV/AIDS, and the challenges posed by economic neo-liberal reforms can be deliberated upon and solutions proffered. In that meeting, the former NLC President, Adams Oshiomole, was elected as the President of OTUWA.

Part of the communiqué reached at the end of the bilateral conference stated thus:

- Both labour central organisations will collaborate to fight the implementation of neo-liberal globalization.
- The GTUC and NLC will submit reports about the consequences of economic globalization on workers to the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) for necessary action against the IMF and World Bank.
- Training programmes for members would be jointly developed by the two central bodies and such training to include exchange programmes. They would also look into involving other West-African countries' central labour organisations.

The NLC also, in 1996, allied with the American Solidarity Front to fight against contract and casual employment in workplaces. Though the approval came in 1998, the NLC was provided with training, funds, and international support.

With the support of the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU), the GTUC and NLC reported issues concerning the negative implications of economic globalization on Ghanaian and Nigerian workers to the International Labour Organization (ILO). The ILO intervened in 2003 and got a reaction from the Obasanjo-administration through the issuance of a public statement that “ILO cannot dictate to government” on its relationships with workers. However, the administration promised to ratify some of the ILO-conventions but this is yet to be done (The Vanguard, 2003). Also, on the issues of decent work and work-environment, the Nigerian government has not taken any step.

Lobbying and Corporatist Strategy

The GTUC and NLC have engaged in lobbying with the aim of influencing certain government policies. To this end, the GTUC appointed a Parliamentary Liaison Officer (PLO) as a link between Labour and Parliament. Similarly, the NLC, under the leadership of Pascal Bafyau, adopted the corporatist style to gain recognition and active participation in all government policies. The strategy was also to make possible sustained government-labour relations. However, the Bafyau-cooperation with the Babaginda-regime created some cracks within the rank and file of the NLC (Adewumi, 1997; Lakemfa, 1997) The NLC's immediate past President, Adams Oshiomole also lobbied during the processing of the Trade Union Amendment Bill.

Appointments of Representatives on Policy Implementation Organs

The two labour bodies have tried to influence government policies through the appointments of representatives into organs saddled with the implementation of policies. The GTUC and NLC's justification for appointing of representatives is hinged on the fact that it constitutes one of the numerous ways through which workers' interest and rights could be protected. Thus, in spite of the critical views put up by the GTUC and the NLC about privatization, both bodies accepted to serve on the Divesture Implementation Committee (DIC) and National Privatization Council (NPC), respectively. For example, the former NLC President, Adams Oshiomole, was a member of the NPC.

The participation of both Trade Union movements in such organs of government has attracted criticisms. Critics have argued that since the GTUC and the NLC's representatives to the DIC and NPC, respectively, constitute a minority, little or nothing can be achieved. The two union bodies have also been criticised on the ground that their memberships of DIC and NPC may render them vulnerable such that they may not take objective decisions on issues that adversely affect workers.

Recruitment of Union Membership

The GTUC and NLC used this form of response to shore up its declining membership resulting from the implementation of neo-liberal economic policies. Having realised that the neo-liberal reforms is inevitable, the GTUC has increased their efforts to organize the self-employed and others in the informal sector - an area where the labour force operates outside the protection offered by the legal provisions governing labour rights in Ghana. The GTUC draws up the standard for its affiliate unions to operate in the informal economy through its informal economy desk and policies.

The functions of the informal economy desk include the provision of technical assistance such as capacity-building workshops, manuals, and networking platforms for unions engaged in the informal economy to share experiences. The expectation is that affiliate unions to the GTUC will search and identify informal economic groups based around their operational jurisdiction for organising. In situation where there are jurisdiction differences, the informal economy groups receive affiliation to the GTUC. For example, Mokola Traders' Union and the Madina Traders' Association got affiliated to the GTUC in 2007. Other self employed workers that have been organised in the '90s include the butchers who are affiliated to Local Government Workers Union (LGWU); Ghana Hairdressers and Beauticians Association affiliated to the Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU) – which remains the most unionized informal sector group

within the GTUC; and Carpenters and Charcoal Burners affiliated to Timber and Woodworkers Union (TWU).

The process of organising informal economy workers in Ghana has been via two models. Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU) and the General Agricultural Workers' Union (GAWU) have been recruiting individual members through direct contact while other unions organise through existing associations. The preference to organise existing unions is hinged on low cost. The process of organising the groups entails identifying a contact person who persuades an existing informal economy group to accept union affiliation. In some cases, the contact person plays the role of the middleman between the union and the informal economy group.

In Nigeria, there seems to be no record showing unionization of informal sector workers. However, there have been concerted efforts by the NLC to ensure that workers in the informal sector get unionized. For instance, the NLC has shown interests to organize casual workers in organizations that indulge in such anti-labour practices. To this end, the NLC has directed all its affiliates, especially those in the private sector, to forward details of such anti-labour practices in their sectors since February, 2005. Worthy of mention is the NLC's move to picket about sixty banks in 2005 over their refusal to allow their workers unionize. However, the move was halted by the intervention of the Nigerian Employers Consultative Association (NECA) and the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria (CIBN), promising to call the banks to order (The Punch, 2005).

Both union bodies have also attracted new members by encouraging professional and senior workers who, by law, previously, cannot unionize to join the Trade Union Congress (TUC). Now the GTUC and the NLC can enlist senior workers. Two reasons seem to inform this. First, unions with majority of their members being blue-collar workers are likely to lose members. Second, given that senior workers earn attractive salaries, their financial contributions in form of check-off dues will be of immense significance to the unions. In this way, both central unions have paid much attention to increasing their membership through senior staff and professional workers. Notwithstanding, it appears that other factors such as downsizing, retrenchment, rationalization, and restructuring in organizations which rendered many senior workers vulnerable, as junior workers, has worked to the advantage of both unions in organizing senior workers. More importantly, workers in higher positions now understand that the best way to negotiate for better remuneration and work conditions is to belong to a trade union.

Critics have argued that there is no sense for senior staff to unionize given that it may be difficult to distinguish between employees representing employers or shareholders. Thus, there could be divided loyalty and misuse of confidential information by unionized senior workers. In spite of these criticisms, the GTUC and the NLC have achieved successes to a reasonable extent.

'Creation' of Employment

Given that neo-liberal economic policies led to job loss for a significant proportion of workers in both the private and public sectors, the trade union movement in Ghana and Nigeria saw the urgent need to 'create' employment for the unemployed. At the root of this is that 'creation' of jobs for the unemployed will lead to increase in union membership as well as improve the financial position of unions through contributions from check-off dues. More importantly is the fact that job creation may increase the participation of members in union activities if they are unionized, thereby strengthening trade union positions.

In view of this, the GTUC has rallied round its members seeking for funds with the objective of establishing productive enterprises that will provide job opportunities as well as make solid the financial base of the unions. To facilitate the objective, a Labour Enterprise Trust (LET) was established in 1998, and saddled with the role of holding members' contributions and investing the money either by itself or in collaboration with others. Some of the investments LET has made, since its establishment, include the purchase of a 20 per cent share in a \$5million car park project situated in Accra; it has also invested in an insurance company and has bought four tankers meant to provide drinkable water at a fair rate to residents in Accra.

Similarly, the NLC has invested in certain sensitive areas of social services with the aim of helping to cushion the adverse effects of neo-liberal policies on workers. For instance, the NLC mobilized affiliated unions to buy up shares in the Flour Mills Plc., which was the first to be privatized. The NLC has also invested extensively on transportation across the country - i.e., Labour Mass Transit (LMT). This has created employment for people. However, the LMT has been faced with obstacles such as deregulation of petroleum which affects delivery of service to customers; lack of good maintenance culture leading to break down of many of the LMT-buses; incompetent leaders to manage the business; and insincerity among the operators – drivers, conductors, motor boys, mechanics, etc.

Demonstration /Protests and Industrial Actions/Strikes

The GTUC and NLC also responded to neo-liberal economic reforms through demonstration/protests and strikes. The latter remains the most used by the NLC while the former is mostly associated with the GTUC. The GTUC's preference for peaceful protest against total strikes might have been influenced by its previous experience under past military regimes that dissolved the executive of the GTUC and proscribed the Union. The difficulties encountered by unionists to lift the ban then are not wished to be repeated. An important question that comes to mind is: why should the GTUC expect the same response from a civilian government? One explanation to this is that the history of Ghana's adjustment programme was one that was implemented under the control of a leader for a long time. For instance, Ft. Lt. Jerry Rawlings, who took over power through a coup in 1982, ruled as a military leader for about a decade after which he became the civilian President of Ghana. Thus, for the GTUC to have expected same response from a civilian government may be as a result of the fact that the leadership then did not change; what changed was the designation of Rawlings from a "military Head of State" to "a civilian President". This fear expressed then by the GTUC was also indicative of the unitarist position taken by Jerry Rawlings, particularly in relation issues of reform in Ghana. This may explain why the GTUC opted for peaceful demonstrations than strikes. Having survived the ban, the GTUC prefers that its affiliate unions embark on strikes - an indication that strikes yield results faster than peaceful demonstrations. The idea here is that if affiliate unions are proscribed due to strikes, the umbrella body (GTUC) would be available to fight for the cause of the union(s) affected. Finally, the clamp-down by the military on organized labour in Nigeria served as a lesson to the GTUC.

However, the GTUC threatened many times to embark on total strikes – this rarely occurs. For example, on 25th June, 2000, the GTUC embarked on a nationwide strike to protest against the failure of the National Tripartite Committee, and poor national daily minimum wage (Apratum, 2008). Many of the industrial strikes that occurred in Ghana have been declared by unions

affiliated to the GTUC. For example, in 2004, the Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU) embarked on a strike over poor salary conditions. Matching, carrying placards, singing and chanting militant songs, they expressed their grieves consequent to the insensitiveness of the Kuffor administration to their plight. Earlier, the Public Services Workers Union (PSWU) went on strike for 11 days against the then ongoing civil service reform that was likely to lead to 6,000 workers losing their jobs (Accra Daily Mail, 2005). The strike only forced the postponement of immediate actions from the government. After negotiations between PSWU and the Ghana government, workers were to be retrenched later while based on such criteria as qualifications, queries, and relevance to positions held. At the end of the exercise, 5000 workers lost their jobs. The Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU) were on strike in 2000, demanding better working conditions (See Fig. III for PSWU in a protest).

In the case of Nigeria, the NLC has been quick to embark on industrial strikes. This appears to be the 'language' understood by Nigerian governments. Two reasons account for the continuous use of industrial strike by the NLC. First, the radical nature of union leaders in Nigeria, informed by the political and economic environment of the country; and, second, the density of union workers in Nigeria. The sense here is that with a large number of workers embarking on strike, the economy would be grounded and this would compel the State to reach out for negotiations.

The NLC has led workers on strike over wages and other allowances, poor work environment, increase in the prices of petroleum products, entronement of democracy and unlawful detention of unionists. However, the recent strikes organized by the NLC, especially over incessant increases in the prices of petroleum products have been in coalition with civil-society organizations, such as Human Rights organizations, market women, and students.

Generally, the demonstration/protests and strikes yielded some tangible results for both Unions. The GTUC achieved such results when it forced the government to change its policy on the increase of Value added Tax (VAT) as well as increase in wages for workers. Similarly, the NLC has, through its various strikes, made varying Nigerian governments to revert some policies, such as reverting increases in fuel prices, increasing the minimum wage for workers, and changing of anti-labour laws in organizations – for example, in First Bank Plc.

Conclusion

The neo-liberal processes that became prominent in the early 1980's have brought about significant changes in global economy with implications for organized labour, particularly the GTUC and the NLC. This has informed both labour bodies to respond to the threats from neo-liberal reforms through similar strategies like the adoption of social movement unionism as a novel strategy, voice-representation in the neo-liberal reform processes, forming international labour alliances, political lobbying for favourable outcomes, training of union members, 'creation' of employment, and 'new' recruitment – drives for members.

The GTUC, however, differed from the NLC in the establishment of a Labour College for workers' education, unionisation of informal sector workers, and the preference for mass peaceful demonstrations relative to strikes which have enhanced the sustainable development of both the GTUC and the NLC. Though both unions have achieved relative successes in their responses to the challenges they encountered, more can still be done. The GTUC and NLC should build on

these to further sensitize African governments towards introducing workplace governance, under the current global process.

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Appendix

Table1. Organised labour membership (GTUC)

S/N	Name of Union	1985	1998	2001
1	Communication Workers Union (CWU)	7,000	6,026	n.a
2	Construction, Building & Material Workers Union (CBMWU)	39,553	36,750	n.a
3	Ghana Mine Workers Union (GMWU)	27,018	24,834	n.a
4	Ghana Private Road Transport Union (GPRTU)	56,138	37,400	26,901
5	General Agricultural Workers Union (GAWU)	100,000	86,000	14,710
6	General Transport, Petroleum & Chemical Workers Union (GTPC WU)	29,185	15,683	n.a
7	Health Services Workers Union (HSWU)	30,000	32,745	16,647
8	Industrial and Commercial Workers Union (ICU)	120,000	106,483	42,070
9	Local Government Workers Union (LGWU)	35,000	33,126	n.a
10	Maritime and Dockworkers Union (MDU)	31,085	29,012	n.a
11	National Union of Seamen (NUS)	5,011	1,871	n.a
12	Public Services Workers Union (PSWU)	63,000	89,324	27,084
13	Public Utility Workers Union (PUWU)	20,000	10,000	17,111
14	Railway Enginememen's Union (REU)	898	884	n.a
15	Railway Workers Union (RWU)	8,955	5,907	n.a
16	Teachers and Educational Workers Union (TEWU)	40,000	31,334	30,246
17	Timber and Woodworkers Union (TWU)	18,000	24,334	22,758
TOTAL		630,843	572,598	

Source: 1985 figures are from Arthiabah and Mbiah, 1995; 1998 figures are from the Secretary-General's Report on Activities of the TUC (Ghana) for the Third and Fourth Quarters of 1998, presented to the Executive Board, Dec. 1998 (Quoted from Anyemedu, 2000); and, 2001 figures are from Gockel and Vormawor, 2004.

TABLE II: CASUAL/CONTRACT WORKERS IN THE OIL INDUSTRY

COMPANY	WORKERS ON PERMANENT EMPLOYMENT	WORKERS ON CASUAL/ CONTRACT EMPLOYMENT
NIGERIAN AGIP OIL COMPANY	211	1500
ELF PETROLEUM	199	550
ELF OIL	42	132
SHELL PETROLEUM DEVELOPMENT COMPANY	520	8000
MOBIL PRODUCING	492	2200
MOBIL OIL	NIL	492
NIDO GAS	15	150
NATIONAL OIL	51	178
SMITH NIGERIA LIMITED	25	80
SCHLUMBERGER GROUP	250	1000
AFRICAN PETROLEUM PLC	300	376
NIGERIAN NATIONAL PETROLEUM CORPORATION	9000	3000
TOTAL NIGERIA LIMITED	136	534
LIGHT HOUSE PETROLEUM	58	105
COMEX NIG LIMITED	52	150
REMM OIL SERVICE	120	350
DEVTAG DRILLING CO. LTD	96	300
TIDEX NIG LTD	65	120
CONSOLIDATED OIL	300	600
CHEVRON	450	3000
TRANS PECAN SEDCOFOREX	50	150

SOURCE; NUPENG OFFICIAL BULLETIN, 2001.

Ethnicity: Historical Similarities between Yugoslavia and Nigeria

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Abstract

Nature has arranged people into cultural and linguistic spheres that elucidate their identities. The historical utilization of this God-given attribute by various people of the international community could either promote integration or may be loaded with acrimonious centrifugism. Nigeria and the defunct Yugoslav Republics share historical similarities on issues germane to ethnicity, political bigotry, corruption index, and some other delicate but inevitable idiosyncracies. This paper is a comparative study of political and social events in Nigeria and Yugoslavia with a view to seeing what lessons Nigeria could draw from. The paper is anchored on the theory of Behaviouralism as propounded by Apter, 2013. The paper confirmed that, there are striking similarities between the major causes of the Yugoslav conflict and those synonymous with anti-development indicies which exist in the present day Nigeria. Yugoslavia went through a civil war and despite the intervention of the international communities, the federation collapsed.

Equally, Nigeria went through a civil war and survived disintegration. However, there are ominous signs for Nigeria if peace building activities against the scourge of ethnicity, religious conflict and endemic corruption are not holistically undertaken. It is recommended that implementation of compromise policies be pursued to discourage the urge for ethnic acrimony and the rat-race to control the centre at all cost.

Key Words: Conflict, Democracy, Ethnicity, Nigeria, Yugoslavia.

Introduction

In 1967, during the heat of the Cold War, when the threat of nuclear holocaust hung over mankind, concerned citizens were in desperate search for a solution to the East-West conflict and Stagner (2007) observes thus:

... the physical sciences have made it possible for all of us to die together; the social sciences face the task of enabling us to live together.... We face not only the scholarly and intellectual challenge of trying to understand a phenomenon which has characterized the human race throughout its known history, we face also desperately practical problems of devising methods of dealing with conflict, of defusing bombs, of providing safety valves for intolerable pressures.

Nowadays, after the Cold War, the observation remains valid because conflict has taken a new dimension around the world in the extraordinary surge of violence arising out of the mismanagement of ethnicity and nationalism among others. These violent conflicts which now exist at various levels result in disasters of monstrous dimensions as witnessed in Sudan, Eritrea, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Yugoslavia, etc. compelling mankind to face a new task of defusing another type of “bomb”. Several schools of thought in various disciplines are now more than ever before concerned with finding constructive and practicable ways of limiting, managing and resolving conflicts in order to prevent them from escalating into unacceptable dimension. This justifies the need for the United States Institute of Peace which began operation in 1986, the Research Institute for the Study of Conflict and Terrorism (RISCT) in the United Kingdom, the Centre for Conflict Resolution at George Mason University, USA, the Centre for Conflict Resolution, Abuja, Nigeria, Peace and Conflict Studies programme in the Institute of African Studies, University of Ibadan and other similar institutions actively engaged in this emerging field of Conflict Studies and Management.

The current flash points of ethnic conflicts clearly suggest that potentials for conflict exist in several core, semi-peripheral and peripheral countries of the world today. While Nigeria survived a civil war with limited external intervention and the Tiv-riot, the Agbekoya riot, the Mai-Tatsine riot and the “June – 12” political crisis without external intervention, save for peacemaking conferences, a country like Yugoslavia succumbed under the weight of ethnic conflict and under the watchful eyes of the core countries which have all along assumed the posture of being well equipped to limit or manage any such crisis in their community. History is therefore being made as a turning point is being marked in the evolutionary process of conflict studies. The Yugoslavia experience has laid to rest the enthusiasm that the post Cold-War “new world order” would usher in international peace and tranquility. As the international community begins to appreciate the apparent weakness inherent in its conflict limiting apparatus, Nigeria, made up of about 256 ethnic groupings, with diverse cultures and varying values, needs to join the rest of the world in finding practicable and effective instruments to safeguard our security. Nigeria should not be caught napping by a sudden surge of ethnic or other forms of internal violence whose potentials are already probably growing by the day. It would be in Nigeria’s interest if the

questions of preventing emerging conflict and defusing existing ones are clearly and logical addressed so as to avoid the Yugoslav experience.

The former Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia is of particular relevance to Nigeria for several reasons. Yugoslavia was designed around a marriage of convenience of nations which felt their individual national security could be better guaranteed under the marriage. Nigeria on the other hand was fashioned out by the British without any respect for ethnic or cultural identities of the people within the artificial boundary. However, while the union of Yugoslavia was a deliberate and voluntary act of the nations in question, the ethnic groups in Nigeria were neither aware nor consulted when Europeans at the Berlin Conference partitioned Africa and gave Nigeria its artificial and arbitrary boundary (Peacock, 1978). Furthermore, both Yugoslavia and Nigeria have pockets of minority ethnic groups which identify with neighboring countries. Finally, both countries belong to the Non-Aligned movement and have experienced the wooing by the East and West in the heat of the great power rivalry. What now appears to be an intractable problem of ethnicity, sovereignty and self-determination which saw the demise of Yugoslavia had been played in Nigeria between 1966 and 1970 and could be replayed to the detriment of the country if proper measures are not put in place to prevent or manage any emerging conflict. It is the wish of this paper to provide answers to the several nagging issues relating to the necessity for a continued peaceful co-existence of all ethnic groups in Nigeria under the banner of “Unity in Diversity”.

It will be interesting to observe that the shooting war in Yugoslavia began effectively on 25th June, 1991 when Slovenia and Croatia declared their independence. By mid-1992, Yugoslavia had disintegrated, but she left behind a replica of her complex ethnic conflict in Bosnia and Herzegovina for the International and European Communities to contend with. Had this scale of ethnic conflict erupted in the Third World, Europeans and Americans would probably have blamed it on underdevelopment or some other derogatory factors. However, it is now quite clear that ethnicity, sovereignty, self-determination and borders are major factors of insecurity in the post – Cold War era and that every country in the world needs to appraise her security problems in view of these developments.

Nigeria, therefore, needs to review the Yugoslav conflict to see if there are lessons to learn. It is observed that a thorough understanding of the Yugoslav conflict and the lessons therein for Nigeria would not be well appreciated if certain parameters for objective analysis are not established. Therefore a review of the concept of conflict would be necessary to identify what scholars and intellectuals have contributed towards the understanding of conflict and its process.

Theoretical Framework and Conceptual Clarification

Theories are employed to explain situations. They assist in elucidating the realities on ground. To this end these researchers anchored this study on the theory of Behaviouralism as canvassed by Apter (2013), who posits that “the main emphasis of Behaviouralism is on the relationship between political knowledge and political action, including how political opinion is formed, how political acumen is acquired and the ways people learn about and respond to political events” (p803). In a nutshell, the behavioural approach is alluding to various factors of socialization, how values and prevailing beliefs are internalized and how changes in perceptions occur. In order to have a good glimpse of the various factors of socialization, a critical examination of the concept of conflict is inevitable. Conflict is a phenomenon which has characterized humanity from known history and which has lent itself to empirical scholarly studies

by people of various persuasions, including observers, theorists and those interested in performing experiments. Boulding, (1963) points out that, economics studies conflict among economic organizations, psychology studies intra-personal conflict as sociology studies conflicts within and between families, races, religions and groups, while political science studies conflict among states and among sub-divisions and departments within larger organizations (p.1).

Intuitively, conflict can be said to be a lifetime routine which can be assessed from more than one perspective. Little wonder then why it is argued that every major advance in civilization has resulted from conflict, and that we agree certainly that bloodshed and destruction have followed from many conflicts. Tyrants have been overthrown in revolutionary conflicts, while peace-loving people have been slaughtered by invaders in empire-building conflicts. Stagner, (1967). However, in what appears a paradox, Deutsch (1987) humorously likened conflict to sex. To him, it is an important and pervasive aspect of life. It should be enjoyed and should occur with a reasonable degree of frequency. After that “seeming conflict” is over, people should feel better as a result. The totality of these scholars’ submissions about conflict informs that conflict could either be a positive or a negative phenomenon.

Delving further into the concept, Boulding (1963) unequivocally asserts that conflict should be likened to a situation of competition in which the parties are aware of the incompatibility of potential future position in which each party wishes to occupy a position that is incompatible with the wishes of the other (p.5). However, Laue (1987) is of the opinion that conflict should be seen as an escalated, natural competition between two or more parties about scarce resources, power and prestige. Parties in conflict believe they have incompatible goals and their aim is either to neutralize, gain advantage over, injure or destroy one another, (p.17).

Be that as it may, Stagner (1967), in reinforcing his earlier view about conflict, submits that conflict could equally be seen as a situation in which two or more beings desire goals which they perceive as being attainable by one or the other but not both. There must at least be two parties, each party is mobilizing energy to obtain a goal, a desired object or situation and each party perceives the other as a barrier or threat to the attainment of this goal (p.136).

There are three exploratory factors derived from the views of the above scholars. First is the assertion that conflict results from association and / or interactions which obviously must involve more than one party. Second, potentials for conflict already exist at first contact of the parties, even though; there may be a temporary state of no conflict. Third, once one party perceives the other as a possible threat to its attainment of a goal, conflict has begun. Hence, a valid view is held that conflict... must be considered as an association. And in fact, dissociating factors, such as hate, envy, need desire etc are the causes of conflict; it breaks out because of them, (Simmel, 1966).

Other contending concepts like Separatism, Autonomy, Ethnic Corporatism, Ethnicity, Nationalism and Self-Determination, which are germane to this study will be attempted.

As Weiner (1992) asserts, “Separatism is a group’s desire to separate itself from the state to which it belongs, while autonomy is the desire of a group, concentrated in a particular territory of a State, to acquire greater influence over the government of that territory. Weiner further asserts that the desire for autonomy is often seen as the first step towards separation. Equally, Ethnic Corporatism is the demand of

an ethnic group to be recognized as such and to obtain certain rights on the basis of this recognition, such as the right to proportionate share in the country's government (as cited in Schmid, 2000, p. 16).

Ethnicity: Newland (1993) posits that ethnicity is an imprecise concept and that ethnic groups are identified primarily in cultural terms such as language, religion, national origin, social organization, tribe or race. She explains that the different conclusions often drawn about ethnic conflict are as a result of the different ways of thinking about ethnicity. She also cited Rudolfo Stavenhogen who identified three approaches of viewing ethnicity:

- a) Ethnicity is an inherent, primordial affiliation responding to a deep psychological need for a sense of belonging and security within a community. Different, often hostile rules of behavior apply to the 'other' outside the group. In this view, latent conflict is inherent in ethnic diversity and is only kept in check by external authority.
- b) Ethnicity is a framework of social organizations through which people relate to members of their immediate communities and to those outside. The boundaries of ethnic affiliation are defined by society and may be quite flexible. Ethnic conflicts are conflicts among different types of social organizations.
- c) Ethnicity is a political and economic resource, a major factor in the distribution of power and wealth. A group may emphasize its ethnicity when it is useful and may downplay it when it is seen as a handicap. Ethnic conflict is usually defensive or opportunistic, a tool for political mobilization aimed at preserving or capturing resources, (Newland, 1993).

Conceptualizing ethnicity, Nnoli (1980) submits that it is a social phenomenon associated with interactions among members of different ethnic groups. Ethnic groups are social formations distinguished by the communal character of their boundaries. The relevant command factor may be language, culture, or both. In Africa, language has clearly been the most crucial variable. Delving further into the concept, Nnoli reiterates, that as social formations, ethnic groups are not necessarily homogenous entities, even linguistically and culturally because minor linguistic and cultural differences often exist within the group, forming the basis for the delineation of sub-ethnic systems. Equally relevant is the possibility of occupational and class differentiation. Above all, our attention is drawn to the definition of Livine (1966) that ethnicity is a very sensitive issue in national politics as its interpretation may be regarded by some ethnic ideologies as casting an aspersion on their ethnic groups while others may interpret it as a vindication of their ethnic groups. However, in either case, the net effect is an unintended growth in ethnic tension.

Nationalism:

“Nationalism is a set of political beliefs and symbols by which people express a sense of identity to their nation. Equally, nationalism may represent the resentment and ill feeling expressed and shown by a people towards other nations and aliens”. Akinbade, (2010, p.148).

There are three versions of nationalism: - civic, territorial and ethnic nationalism. Civic nationalism has open membership in the national group and the community shares common culture and laws. Territorial

nationalism also has open membership which could include anyone who is born or permanently resides within the national boundary. On the contrary, ethnic nationalism is defined by Newland (1993) as a genealogical and vernacular cultural community. He also suggests that ethnic nationality is based on the consciousness of a shared identity within a group, rooted in the belief of a common ancestry.

In attempting to identify where and when these versions of nationalism exist, it is suggested that civic nationalism is normally associated with institutionalized democracies where the equality and the universal citizenship rights are guaranteed by a supporting framework of laws which allow citizens to give voice to their views. On the contrary, ethnic nationalism is the default option and only appears spontaneously either when a vacuum is created by the collapse of an institution or when existing institutions are not fulfilling people's basic needs and a satisfactory alternative structure is not readily available. However, no matter what form the concept of the nationalism takes, the main objective for its formation or invocation remains the same; that of furthering the group interest and maintaining the group security through a collective action.

Self Determination

The United Nations General Assembly adopted a U.N Resolution 1514 (XV) by consensus in December, 1960 in an attempt to guarantee the right to independence of territories still under colonial rule. Article 2 of the resolution states that:

All peoples have the right to self-determination; by virtue of that right, they freely determine their political status and freely pursue their economic, social and cultural development.

However, the UN did not want to contradict its territorial integrity doctrines inscribed in Article 1 of its charter. Therefore, article 6 of the resolution gave the limitations to the extent of the application of article 2 as follows:

Any attempt aimed at the partial or whole disruption of the national unity and the territorial integrity of a country is incompatible with the purposes and principles of the charter of the United Nations.

In the aftermath of the Yugoslav conflict and the subsequent recognition of break-away units like Croatia and Slovenia, on one hand, and Nigeria's conflict, with the recognition of the break-away "Biafra Republic" though temporarily by equally notable members of the United Nations, (France, Tanzania, Ivory Coast (later called Cote d'Ivoire), Zambia and Gabon), the ambivalence of self-determination has become numerous. The critical questions are the definition of the "self" that may invoke this claim legitimately and, the validity of Article 1 (One) of the United Nations Charter.

Yugoslavia and Nigeria In Comparative Analysis

There are several similarities between Nigeria and former Yugoslavia but this paper is limiting the analysis to only the major political, socio-economic and conflict dynamics from which lessons of the Yugoslav experience could be drawn for Nigeria. First are the political systems, starting with the process of unification, ethnicity, constitutional matters, sources of revenue and development among others.

Yugoslavia was formed by South Slav nations who willingly joined the marriage of convenience as the best option available in 1918. Better options became available to some of these nations today and hence, the quest for secession. On the other hand, the geographical entity called Nigeria today was fashioned out at the Berlin conference of 1884/1885 as part of the colonial territory of the British Empire without any consultation, neither with the peoples concerned nor with any regard for their feelings and diversities. Hence, the initial attempts made to unite the different ethnic groups encountered several administrative problems. However, over the years, different ethnic groups have learnt to live together, albeit with occasional upheavals. The questions is: For how long can those entities maintain the over flogged “Unity in Diversity” phenomenon?

Ethnic Plurality:

As in ethnically mixed Yugoslavia, Nigeria has about 250 ethnic groups, with Hausa/Fulani, Igbo and Yoruba being the largest groups. Like the Serbs, the Hausa/Fulani constitute the majority and have long maintained the feudal emirate system which concentrates absolute power in the center. On the contrary, the Igbo, like the Croats are well decentralized with little or no power at the centre. The Yoruba on the other hand, have a mid-way course between the Hausa/Fulani authoritarianism and the Igbo decentralism. A Yoruba monarch is only the chairman and spokesman of the legislative council or council of chiefs (i.e. collective rulership). It was therefore quite a dilemma for the British in attempting to forge these diverse groups together as one nation, as could be gleaned from the views of Ojiako (1981) that “by the Richards constitution of 1946, any workable constitution in Nigeria must not only recognize the tribal diversities of the country, but must acknowledge the fact that the Hausa, the Ibo, the Yoruba are the major tribes, the political importance of which must supersede that of any other”.

Minority Questions

Nigeria shares similar experiences with former Yugoslavia in respect of minority issues. Apart from the presence of small Serb communities in most of the other republics, there are Bulgarian, Hungarian and Albanian minorities in Yugoslavia, typified by Vojvodina and Kosovo. In Nigeria, Zango Kataf saga readily comes to mind. Furthermore, the artificial boundary of Nigeria divides several ethnic groups between the country and her neighbours. As the minorities in Kosovo and Vojvodina have caused tense moments for Yugoslavia, and as the ethnic mix in Bosnia/Herzegovina escalated in the recently resolved conflict, Nigeria should foresee the possibility of conflicts arising out of minority issues and strengthen the effectiveness of conflict prevention and management mechanisms to contain this perceived threat.

Constitutional Matters

Yugoslavia experienced several crises associated with constitutional matters, especially demands for reviews. Nigeria has also witnessed stormy sessions during constitutional interpretations and reviews. However, Nigeria’s constitutional development can be said to have been achieved amicably through meticulous negotiations and compromise.

Evolution of Democracy

Yugoslavia’s democratic experience was shaky from the start as it was overseen by an authoritarian monarchy. It thus had a very little chance to survive. Furthermore, Yugoslavia’s

romance with communism over the years did inhibit the democratic growth process because of the strongly developed prejudices which only a long period of gradual reorientation could have overcome. Similarly, the Nigerian democratic process had to be built upon the feudal monarchy foundation of the existing traditional empire systems. However, Nigerians were not left to themselves; it took from about 1920 to 1960 for the British Crown to nurture and develop the Nigerian democratic process. Had the British been able to eliminate the unhealthy ethnic rivalry and allayed the fears of the minorities sufficiently enough, the Nigerian democratic process would probably have developed more rapidly, devoid of military interventions, which are blamed in many quarters today for stunting the democratic growth.

Sources of National Revenue

Slovenia, as an example, was of the opinion that she contributed more resources towards the centre for the sustenance of the poorer republics while she got little or nothing in return except that the other republics provided ready markets for her products. To make matters worse, she believed that the national economy was poorly managed and that there were deliberate attempts by some republics to defraud the others through the centre. This was buttressed by the illegal withdrawal of millions of Dinars from the Central Bank by Serbia and Montenegro. In Nigeria, the mineral producing areas have for several years been agitating for resource control as a result of neglect from the centre, hence the establishment of Oil and Mineral Producing Area Development Commission (OMPADEC) by an Act in 1992. This was to be re-organised and widened, hence the establishment of Niger Delta Development Commission (NDDC) by an Act in 2000. In spite of this, there are still some violent agitations, albeit at community levels. This is what informs Lukman, (2014), to state that “The debate over resource control and revenue allocation came to a head in the desperately poor and underdeveloped Southern oil region of the Niger Delta where decades of peaceful protest gave way to violent militancy”.

Political Behaviour

From the analysis of the Yugoslav conflict, it is obvious that there were several political bigots who seized the opportunity of the unfortunate development to whip up ethnic and religious sentiments for their personal advantages and to the greater disadvantage of the state.

Nigeria has experienced similar situations, but has only been fortunate enough to contain the ensuing conflicts. The chances of a reoccurrence cannot be ruled out completely, especially in our body polity. This is because of the activities of some elite across the country’s geo-political zones, fanning the ember of ethnicity and tribalism and actively sponsoring, financing and engineering many elite ethnic organizations in the country.

The Socio-Economic System

Corruption: Yugoslavia was plagued by a wave of corruption at official level and this has been traced to certain republics, some business concerns and highly placed individuals who are alleged to have deposited their loots in Swiss Bank accounts. Similarly, Nigeria has so far been plagued by corruption at all levels of government, since the First Republic. This trend has contributed immensely to the economic decline of Nigeria. There were also reports of political corruption in Yugoslavia and this is also quite relevant to Nigeria.

Poor Economy and Debt Burden

The economy of Yugoslavia depressed sharply and inflation became virtually uncontrollable soon after Tito's death. This is probably the last straw that broke the camel's back as the cost of living soared and standard of living dropped below an acceptable level. That further fuelled the secession by Slovenia and Croatia.

Nigeria's economy which has since the 1970s been dependent mostly on oil, has also depressed considerably since the early eighties. Inflation and standard of living have consequently dropped. Like Yugoslavia, Nigeria's debt burden Internationally rose to about \$30 billion in 2000. This was however tackled by Obasanjo administration which succeeded in negotiating for a 60% waiver, which was about \$18 billion US dollars as well as using the nation's internal resources to pay off the 40% balance of which was about \$12 billion US dollars. Sadly however, with the successive administration, the debt has astonishingly picked up again, becoming a nightmare in the face of a mismanaged economy.

Unbalanced Development:

Slovenia and Croatia were obviously more European and more technologically advanced than the other Yugoslav Republics. That tended to create a form of complex, especially as Slovenia felt burdened down to a less developed society when she belonged to the developed world across the borders. This could have been avoided if efforts were made to stimulate technological growth in the other republics, although not to the detriment of the advanced ones. A similar situation exists in Nigeria during the colonial era and it still exists nowadays. The educational system of the Southern zones of Nigeria were developed along the western concept while the North was left to pursue the traditional Islamic education. The negative consequences of these double standards are quite apparent today while efforts to redress the imbalances have been the concern of most administrations of the country. The establishment of series of Almajiri schools in the North is a step in that direction. The scaling down of admission scores into tertiary institutions to satisfy a Nigerian segment by Joint Admission and Matriculation Board (JAMB) is a step that will be counter-productive in Nigeria's future, because such a system will only produce mediocres to administer a fledgling nation like Nigeria. However, allowing development to be at each other's pace will advance the goal of a qualitative population.

Religious Secularism:

Nigeria is a secular state like Yugoslavia and she has experienced several religious crises which have clearly indicated the need to encourage religious tolerance and to discourage fanaticism. It is worth noting that Christianity and Islam were imported into both Yugoslavia and Nigeria by imperialist forces. It will be helpful to de-emphasize religion and sustain Nigeria's secularity for a stable polity in a multi-ethnic and multi-religious society.

Ancient Hatred Factor:

The Croats unleashed much terror on the Serbs during the Second World War and as many as a million Yugoslavs died in the process. Some schools of thought believe that it was the major factors in the just resolved Bosnia – Herzegovina Conflict. Nigeria also passed through a 30-month civil war in which the Igbo of Biafra were the underdogs. Unlike the post-war Yugoslavia which is believed to have mismanaged the nation, Gowon's administration declared a "no victor, no vanquished" verdict and set about the popular "3 rs"; rehabilitation, reconstruction and

reconciliation programmes aimed at pacifying and reassuring all parties to the conflict of the need to eschew rancor and embrace homogeneity. However, this factor cannot be discounted completely as recent cases of ethnic conflicts in Kaduna, Kano and other states in Nigeria have clearly indicated.

Dimensions of Conflicts

Like in Yugoslavia, the different ethnic groups in Nigeria maintained a “no conflict” situation before the arrival of the Europeans. There are no records of any wars between the Kingdoms in the Savannah region and any of those in the forest, except for the Jihad of Uthman Dan Fodio which terminated at Ilorin. There were only intra-tribal wars aimed at controlling trade routes and those related to the slave trade period. However, there were “violent” confrontations to reject British imperialism and, soon after British occupation, there were concerted efforts at “confrontation” or “challenge” level to demand independence.

As each tribe perceived some forms of political or economic domination or threat, the inter-ethnic conflict graduated from “no conflict” situation to “confrontation” or “challenge”, but only usually among the political elite or at political leadership level. A few examples from Nigeria’s First Republic are narrated below.

There were fears that Chief Obafemi Awolowo and his close Action Group associates were planning a subversion of the government. These raised the inter-party conflict from fermentation to confrontation level and further reinforced the existing NPC – NCNC coalition government in combat-readiness for engaging the opposition party, the Action Group. This did not become inter-ethnic conflict per-se and it was brought down to fermentation level when Chief Awolowo and his colleagues were jailed for treasonable felony.

It was Chief Samuel Ladoke Akintola, the Premier of Western Region that raised a political, rather than an ethnic conflict from fermentation level to confrontation level when he ordered all civil servants of Mid-Western origin to quit their jobs in a disgraceful manner when the Mid-West was carved out of Western Nigeria, in 1963.

Another example was the disputed result of the 1962 Census which the incident raised to a confrontational level between the Eastern Region and Federal Government respectively, a development that strained the NPC – NCNC relationship. In spite of that, the alliance between the two was still being managed.

The 1964 Federal elections brought inter-regional conflict from fermentation to almost violence level as the showdown between the President, Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe and the Prime Minister, Alhaji Tafawa Balewa brought Nigeria to the brink of a civil war. The conflict which pitched the Eastern and Western Regions against the North was returned to confrontation level when UPGA boycotted the elections and Azikiwe threatened to resign than exercise the power to call on Balewa to form a government (Mackintosh 1966, pp. 589-590). Be that as it may, the first time an inter-ethnic conflict graduated to violence in Nigeria was in 1966 as a result of the first military coup. Subscribing to what appeared to be an ethnic cleansing phenomenon in Nigeria’s first coup is Albert (1999) who reminds us that:

“On 15 January 1966, some Igbo army officers led by Major Chukwuemeka Kaduna Nzeogwu organized the first ever military coup d’état in Nigeria. As a

result, some prominent Hausa – Fulani leaders including the Prime Minister, Alhaji Tafawa Balewa and the Premier of the North, Sir Ahmadu Bello, were killed. General Aguiyi Ironsi, an Igboman, consequently replaced Sir Tafawa Balewa as the Nigerian head-of-state. The Igbo in the North were thereafter accused of over-celebrating their “victory” over the Hausa – Fulani. This generated different degrees of hostility against the Igbo traders ... and by July that same year, some northern military officers staged another coup to avenge the death of their leaders in the January coup. A genocide against the Igbo in Kano also followed. The post-conflict peace-building efforts yielded win-win results, thereby, returning the conflict to the fermentation level.”

The underlying opposition to Hausa-Fulani domination has continued underground thereafter from all other ethnic groups in Nigeria albeit it has never gone beyond confrontation or challenge level because of the involvement of the media, the fifth columnist, the academic, the judiciary and the political elite, in sensitizing all Nigerians on the need for equity, justice and fair play as the means of achieving national unity.

A significant conflict, having the colour of ethnicity in Nigeria, was the June 12 crisis, brought about by the annulment of the 1993 Presidential election (Olarinmoye, 2012). It was not strictly inter-ethnic but perceived to be a plot to deny the South, and the Yoruba in particular a chance to produce the first democratically elected Yoruba president (ibid). The conflict witnessed a violent demonstration between the military and civilian populations.

Inevitably, from the pattern, scope and scale of Nigeria’s conflicts enumerated, Nigeria has all the potentials for conflict which existed in former Yugoslavia, but Nigeria’s conflicts have been managed successfully so far with maturity and some element of luck. Most Nigerians wish the country to remain a united entity, provided that there is equity, justice and the freedom to guarantee a collective fight against the politicization of ethnicity in Nigeria. This missing link must be addressed, because the beneficiaries of those ethnic elite organizations will rather remain the cog in the wheel of the reconstruction of Nigerian state, than allow any positive shift from the status quo. Since conflict has remained the recurring concept that the invocation of ethnicity as a political weapon embraces to settle scores, it is pertinent to attempt how to deal with it, however brief.

Dealing with Conflicts

Avoidance, as conflict prevention, is virtually impossible because life is hinged on interaction. Therefore, the only options available are resolution and management procedures which can domesticate conflict and make it function for creative and constructive purposes, rather than violent and destructive ones. In deference to Zartman (1991), politics is the process of handling demands, and demands unhandled judiciously can escalate from politics to violence, (p.300). This does not mean “giving in” to the demands which may be frivolous anyway but rather, giving recognition to the legitimacy of the other party’s concern by granting responsive and respectful attention to their grievances, in search of mutually satisfactory solutions. Conflict prevention may, in effect, mean the implementation of compromise policies which would reduce the perception of a deliberate neglect by raising the level of satisfaction on one hand and lowering high expectation of violence on the other. Therefore, preventive diplomacy, as advanced by

Boutros Ghali (1992), which emphasizes a combined conflict prevention and nipping in the bud its escalation from fermentation to violence, must be adopted.

The role of culture in managing ethnic conflicts cannot be over-emphasized. As Malan (1997) asserts,

“ The wider cultural setting of a conflict deserves proper recognition and attention. All over Africa, people have deeply rooted cultural commitments, and in many of the conflicts in Africa, this cultural heritage may form at least a noteworthy background, or may even play a decisive role” (as cited in Albert 2001, p. 19).

Conclusion

The study established that the Yugoslavia crisis has justified the saying that there are no permanent friends or enemies in international relations but national interest. The Yugoslav nations voluntarily came together as friends in 1918 because each of them saw the marriage as the best option available to pursue their individual national interests under the prevailing circumstances. Over the years, however, the nations have discovered that their interests within the marriage have generally been conflicting, with each group perceiving the other as an enemy and as the major obstacle towards the achievement of its national aspirations. The changing world-order has offered the opportunity for a realistic assessment of the pros and cons of remaining in what some of the nations now regard as an unhealthy marriage. The socio-economic downturn and the wave of corruption and political bigotry fuelled the budding crisis. That resulted in the sudden surge of ethnic nationalism which became a phenomenon among those nations wishing desperately to have the freedom to pursue their national interests through independent choice or in other words, through self-determination.

This study also established that the Yugoslav conflict did not become violent overnight. There were discernible stages of development. Yet the international and European Communities failed to respond with effective conflict reduction mechanisms until the disintegration process had taken a deep root and become virtually irreversible.

Therefore, when Europe and the UN reacted, their diagnosis of the problem was wrong and so were the ill-timed carrot and stick remedies applied. It was like medicine after death. Above all, the parting of ways regardless, mutual co-operation must be identified and established. This would be more desirable than having the mini-states living in constant suspicion of each other, and with the prospect of settling unfinished business wherever an opportunity offers itself.

In assessing the Nigerian experience, this paper observed that in the 54 years of Nigeria's independence, Nigerians were neither satisfied with the disgusting political behaviours of the political elite nor with the unhealthy authoritarian and corrupt military rulership that have planted the seed of the discordant fiscal federalism in Nigeria. However, the nation is now making a significant progress towards an enduring political culture and process as witnessed in the 2015 General Elections. The social infrastructure for a true liberal democracy like the free press, a sophisticated legal system and autonomous socio-cultural and economic associations have developed rapidly in Nigeria which now constitute the only checks on the excesses of rulership when all rules of the game have been abandoned. However, conflict is not yet over because no

long term solution has been found to the adversarial behaviour of the political elite organizations whose activities are being teleguided with impunity by many state actors for the sponsors' ascendancy.

Recommendation

Nigeria should avoid the Yugoslav experience by taking two major policy decisions. First, there should be a concerted effort to return Nigeria to a true federalism which is designed to guarantee the survival and security of every citizen, irrespective of tribe, religion or other social affiliations. Such a democratic practice should be truly representative of the grassroots which constitute the greater percentage of Nigeria's population. Equally, it must be designed to eliminate or reduce to a minimum the negative tendencies of a First-past-the-post and winner-takes-all arrangement.

Second, is the need for a proper balance of power, which is a key factor to credible and stable governance and should be designed to eliminate the root causes of a do-or-die politicking. By so doing, the centre would be less lucrative and unattractive to self-serving and greedy politicians. Eventually, there would be no major reason for one ethnic group to attempt to perpetuate itself in the centre with the hope of gaining advantage over the others.

Above all, the implementation of the Recommendations of the National Confab, organized by the outgoing Jonathan Administration with additional peace-building attachments will go a long way in cementing the bond of unity which is much needed in the present-day Nigeria.

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An AHP method in use for the prequalification of oversea construction contractors - the case of Libya

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Abstract

As considerable portion of construction works are conducted by contractors, their capabilities and qualifications is the key determinant of the successfulness of construction projects. Contractor selection though is a vital role and involves critical decisions to be made. To do that effectively, it is better to prequalify potential contractors to identify their eligibility prior to bid awarding stage where the final decision of contractor selection is made. Since the problem represents a typical multi-criteria decision making (MCDM) problem, the AHP method is used. The purpose of the paper is to propose a model to help the Libyan Central Committee of Tendering in prequalifying future candidate contractors. The model was evaluated on four Serbian construction companies. A sensitivity analysis was done to test the robustness of this model. We conclude that the proposed model offers a reliable framework for the committee's members for prequalify any potential construction companies.

Keywords: Analytical hierarchy process, contractor prequalification, contractor selection, decision-making.

1- Introduction

The construction industry is an integrated part of the infrastructure development of all countries. Project owners, in an attempt to ensure that their projects are going to be executed efficiently on time, within budget, and according to the quality standards provided in the contract documents, often encounter serious difficulties such as time overruns, budget overruns, substandard work and reduced quality, disputes and abandonment (Ng & Skitmore, 2001; Yang & Wang, 2003). This certainly can lead to project delays or stoppages and prevents owners from meeting their goals satisfactorily. Among the major causes of these difficulties is the selection of incompetent contractor to execute the project. As contractors deliver considerable percentage of construction works, they then constituted a key determinant in making construction projects achieve the desired levels of progress. Failing to make the right choice of selecting the most eligible contractor to would certainly generate various negative impacts on project execution and hence, its future performance (Ng & Skitmore, 2001; Plebankiewicz, 2009; Khodadadi & Kumar, 2013). The selection of competent contractors though, is extremely important for projects' delivery and successfulness ((Ng & Skitmore, 2001; Plebankiewicz, 2009). This makes project owners struggle not to make such imprudent decisions that can lead them to award their projects to incapable contractors. Accordingly, choosing a contractor to conduct the given project is a major critical decision for project owners to make (Cheng & Li, 2004; Salama, *et al*,2006; Sari & El-Sayegh, 2007; Nassar, 2009; Farzami & Vafaei, 2013; Khodadadi & Kumar, 2013). Owing to the vital role of contractors in projects' success, project owners are continually trying to find support them in having only qualified contractors to bid. Contractor selection though should be conducted on the bases of scientific methodology. The lack of such systematic procedure for evaluating contractors represents a major obstacle to assess and decide about the available decision alternatives and inhibits the opportunity of choosing a procurement option in a fully informed manner (Darvish & Saeedi, 2009), which leads to miss the chance of investigating in advance the extent to which each contractor is suitable for the project. One possible method is the pre-assessment procedure that used to test contractors' suitability against the project specifications. The process is called "contractor prequalification". The process can be defined as a pre-tender process used to investigate and evaluate the capabilities of contractors to execute a contract satisfactorily if it is awarded to them (Hatush & Skitmore, 1997).

Its significance stems from the fact that it is carried out prior to final contractor selection process to embrace an investigation of contractor's potential to deliver the service of acceptable standard of quality, on time, and within budget (Zavadskas, *et al*, 2005). By qualifying contractors in advance, all candidates would be examined before the bid awarding sage, not during it. In return, decision makers (DMs) are allowed to choose the most appropriate candidates from amongst those declaring willingness to participate in the tendering (Huang, 2011). The second feature is its ability to allow decision makers to predict the future performance of contractors as well as making them improve their expectation about a project success and future performance. Furthermore, using the prequalification process can help owners to prevent wasted effort in preparing and tendering bids (Ng & Skitmore, 2001), particularly when a DM have to assess and evaluate too many bidders during one session. Though, having smaller number under consideration can effectively accelerate and shorten the decision making process and allows the DMs to focus only on the specific elements of the project, without being distracted by the other business considerations (Huang, 2011). As a result, the process of decision making is energized

and DMs are given more realistic time and space to decide with no rush or hurry. In view of that, the process is a common prerequisite procedure for construction companies (Huang, 2011; Baroudi & Metcalfe, 2011).

On the other side, performing the prequalification process is not an easy matter. Firstly, the prequalifiers need to have the appropriate knowledge and experience to assess this information (Baroudi & Metcalfe, 2011) and secondly, contractor selection might be influenced by human subjectivity and uncertainty (Singh & Tiong, 2005). Concerning all of that, it is vital to employ a prioritization technique that enhances the objectivity of such decisions and enables DMs to execute accurately the prequalification of the candidate contractors willing to submit their proposals. For that reason, the Analytical Hierarchy Process (AHP) of Saaty (1971) is suggested. Referring to him, AHP is a method of expressing the components and variables of a complex and unstructured situation, assigning quantitative values to subjective judgements about the comparative importance level of each alternative, and synthesizing by demonstrating the variables' degrees of priority based on above quantitative results (Saaty, 2005). In the current study, the AHP is utilized to provide more consistent and rational approach of evaluating the non-random uncertainties that associated with process of construction contractor prequalification. It is sufficiently flexible given that decision makers may add new indications and/or considerably increasing the needed pairwise comparison (Al Harbi, 2001) that is used mainly to enable DMs to determine the relative contribution of each alternative to the goal of the organization (Saaty, *et al*, 2007). In addition, the method was empirically examined for similar problems and in the same industry by many scholars (e. g., Anagnostopoulos & Vavatsikos, 2006; Nassar, 2009; Yilmaz & Ergönül, 2011; Zala & Bhatt, 2011; Al Wahidi, 2012; Gholipour, *et al*, 2014) whereby, it was proved that the method is a reliable tool for prequalifying contract candidates.

Regarding the above definitions, the procedure involves a review of information submitted by contractors allowing the quality agency to determine the contractor eligibility to bid certain types of work (Farzami & Vafaei, 2013). This entirely changed the old method of contractor selection that relays mainly on the bid price as the only criterion for making the selection decision. Instead, the new thrust considers a wide range of information (criteria) in addition to bid price for the aim of covering most of the contractor's capabilities and qualifications. This information can include considerable amount of quantitative and qualitative data about candidates such as their skills, capabilities, experience, qualifications and so on. In accordance to that, it clearly indicated that the process of contractor prequalification is consisted of four major elements: decision makers (project's owners or their representatives), a systematic assessment, a set of predetermined criteria selected earlier by decision makers based on which this assessment is performed and finally, a multi-criteria decision making process. Therefore, the process represents a typical multicriteria decision making (MCDM) problem (Al Harbi, 2001; Singh & Tiong, 2005; Sari & El-Sayegh, 2007; Gholipour, *et al*, 2014) that need to employ a systematic multicriteria decision support procedure such as AHP method to conduct it accurately.

The main driver behind this study was to propose a model for contractor prequalification that can guide the Libyan public owners in making decisions concerning contractor selection and, at the same time, improving the entire tendering process in the country particularly in the public sector where most of the mega projects are executed. In addition, by providing appropriate technique to prequalify potential contractors and allow only those of the best quality to enter the bid, more creditability and transparency would be added to the decisions of bid awarding in the

country. Furthermore, as it is the first time for the study sample to either use contractor prequalification process or the AHP method therefore, conducting the study would certainly help the DMs to realize the beneficiary role of the prequalification process as well as showing them how to model the problem and make a decision by using the AHP method. Finally, even though an extensive research was conducted on the prequalification process of construction contractors, but up to the researchers' knowledge, no similar study related to the Libyan context was found. This added more enthusiasm to the researchers to keep going with their study to examine the possibility of using the scientific methodology in making the desired improvements.

To reach the study's target, a real case study was used to implement the technique and illustrate how the relevant decision would be made. Four Serbian construction companies were selected to be prequalified by a group of Libyan governmental agents who would decide, based on the AHP method, how those contractors would be rank ordered based on their eligibility of entering the estimated construction project. A questionnaire survey was prepared to decide the weights for each criterion and sub-criterion as needed for the (AHP) pairwise comparison. For the formation of decision-making group that has a sufficient expertise in contractor evaluation and bid awarding, the Central Committee of Tendering, which belongs to the Ministry of Housing and Utilities, was selected. Regarding the sample size, only six members agreed to participate in the study.

2- Results

To make a decision, argued Saaty (2008), we need to know the problem, the need and the purpose of the decision, the criteria of the decision, their sub-criteria, stakeholders and group affected and the alternative action to take. Based on that, solving the study's problem and making the prequalification decision was done as follow:

2.1- Structuring the problem: the problem was structured into three parts: the goal, the criteria/sub-criteria and the decision alternatives (see Figure 2). For determining the decision criteria and sub-criteria, we have undertaken an extensive literature review was conducted to figure out which criteria and sub-criteria are appropriate for the present case study. This included the study of Cheng & Li, 2004, Zavadskas, *et al*, 2005, Anagnostopoulos & Vavatsikos, 2006, Salama, *et al*, 2006, Sari & El-Sayegh, 2007, Plebankiewicz, 2009, Nassar, 2009, Zala & Bhatt, 2011, Yilmaz & Ergönül, 2011, Al Wahidi, 2012, Farzami & Vafaei, 2013, and Gholipour, *et al*, 2014). As there were many types of criteria and their relevant sub-criteria were interchangeably in use, we carefully studied them and selected the most appropriate ones for the study's aim:

1- Contractors' Experience (C_1): included sub-criteria of scale of projects completed $SC_{1.1}$ and experience on similar type and size of the project $SC_{1.2}$

2- Technical Capability (C_2) included sub-criteria of plant and equipment: $SC_{2.1}$ and use of technology $SC_{2.2}$

3- Managerial Capability (C_3) included sub-criteria of company organization $SC_{3.1}$ and quality management $SC_{3.2}$

4- Human capability (C_4) included sub-criteria of workers' number and qualification $SC_{4.1}$ and availability of key personnel $SC_{4.2}$

5- Health and Safety procedures (C_5) included sub-criteria of policy of health & safety $SC_{5,1}$ and safety management in worksites $SC_{5,2}$

6- Contractors' Reputation (C_6) included sub-criteria of length of time in business $SC_{6,1}$ and awards $SC_{6,2}$.

DMs were asked, on the basis of the AHP method, to determine the overall relative importance of each of the main criteria and sub-criterion for the prequalification decision (The global goal). The pairwise comparison is made by using the relative importance scale presented in (Table 1). The priorities were derived from the complete set of combined judgments for the goal in a cluster are then calculated with standard AHP mathematics (using the normalized principal right eigenvector).

Table 1: The basic evaluation scale (source; Saaty, 2005; 2008)

Intensity of importance	Definition
1	Equal importance
3	Moderate importance
5	Strong importance
7	Very strong or demonstrated importance
9	Extreme importance
2, 4, 6, 8	Intermediate values between the two adjacent judgments

For the criterion level, the set of judgments was combined and priorities were derived for the global goal. The resultant criterion weightings are summarized in (Fig. 1). The decision makers were preferably in use of the company experience (C_1), the company's technical capability (C_2), human capability (C_3) and managerial capability (C_4). Also, it was clear that the decision makers were not much interested in the companies' policies or applied procedures of health and safety (C_5) nor in their gained reputation (C_6). The inconsistency ratio of main criteria weights was 0.03, which is acceptable.



Fig. 1: Derived priorities of main criteria in respect to the goal as perceived by the decision makers

At the lower level of the hierarchy, each sub-criterion was compared with one another coming under the same criterion. As shown in (Table 2), the twelve sub-criteria are ordered according to their weights.

Table 2: Weighting and ranking of sub-criteria

Symbols	Sub-criteria	Weighting%	Ranking
$SC_{1,2}$	Experience on similar type/size of the project	15.9	1
$SC_{2,1}$	Plant & equipment	15.8	2
$SC_{1,1}$	Scale of projects completed	14.3	3
$SC_{3,2}$	Quality management	9.2	4
$SC_{4,2}$	Availability of key personnel	8.3	5
$SC_{4,1}$	Workers' number & qualification	7.5	6
$SC_{3,1}$	Company organization	6.1	7
$SC_{5,2}$	Safety management in worksites	5.9	8

$SC_{2,2}$	Use of technology	5.6	9
$SC_{6,1}$	Length of time in business	5.4	10
$SC_{5,1}$	Policy of health & safety	4.4	11
$SC_{6,2}$	Awards	1.8	12

The above orders of sub-criteria importance as perceived by DMs confirmed to a great extent the previous rank order of the main criteria that was provided in (Fig. 1). For instance, (C_1) stills the most important element followed by technical capability (C_2) and (C_4) while (C_6) remained the least important element as both of its sub-criteria ($SC_{6,1}$, $SC_{6,2}$) were placed at the lowest levels of importance. After the criteria and sub-criteria are selected, we can move forward for the prequalification process.

2.2- Applying the AHP on the problem:

In this stage, the problem is modeled according to the AHP methodology.

2.2.1- Hierarchy formulation: Based on the above data, the hierarchical structure is formulated (Fig. 2). At the highest level is the overall goal, at the second level, the six main criteria, at the third level, the twelve relevant sub-criteria, and at the lower level, the decision alternatives.

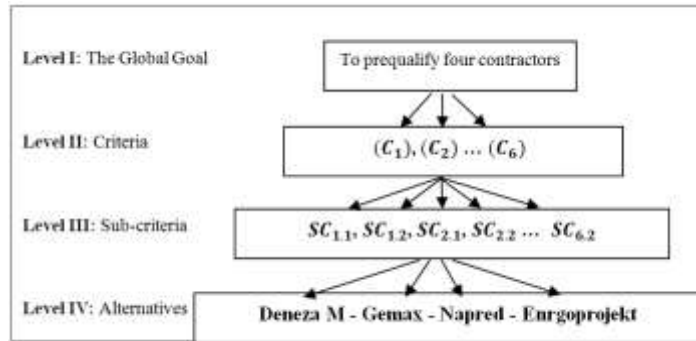


Fig 2: The hierarchical tree

2.2.2- Pairwise comparisons: this step intended to determine the importance of elements by conducting the pairwise comparisons between all elements at each level using the relative importance scale presented in (Table 1). The pairwise comparisons consisted of matrices in terms of the main criteria, then the sub-criteria, and finally alternatives are compared by taking into consideration the global goal. The obtained data was recorded in matrixes from which the eigenvector and the maximum eigenvalue of each matrix was calculated in order to provides the regional priority ordering of all alternatives in regard to the goal.

2.2.3- Priorities derivation: This process starts with normalization of pairwise comparison matrix by using formula (1) where P_{ij} is one specific comparison value from the comparison matrix, $\sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij}$ is the sum of the corresponding column and P_{ij}^{norm} is the resulting normalized comparison values. For the main criteria, the results are shown in (Table 3).

$$P_{ij}^{norm} = \frac{P_{ij}}{\sum_{i=1}^n P_{ij}} \quad (1).$$

Table 3: Alternatives' weights for each criterion in respect to goal

Criteria	Deneza M	Gemax	Napred	Enggoprojekt	Inconsistency
C_1	.117	.103	.459	.321	0.001
C_2	.310	.248	.251	.191	0.02
C_3	.285	.309	.242	.165	0.005
C_4	.245	.255	.257	.243	0.02
C_5	.343	.302	.189	.167	0.03
C_6	.138	.151	.402	.309	0.01

For the sub-criteria, the obtained results are presented in (Table 4).

Table 4: Alternatives' weights for each sub-criterion in respect to goal

SC	Deneza M	Gemax	Napred	Enggoprojekt	Inconsistency
$SC_{1.1}$	14.4%	11.3%	40.7%	33.6%	0.02
$SC_{1.2}$	8.5%	9.3%	51.8%	30.4%	0.03
$SC_{2.1}$	30.3%	22.6%	26.2%	20.9%	0.01
$SC_{2.2}$	33.0%	31.4%	21.6%	14%	0.04
$SC_{3.1}$	22.7%	28.8%	25.2%	23.3%	0.02
$SC_{3.2}$	8.5%	9.3%	51.8%	30.4%	0.03
$SC_{4.1}$	30.3%	22.6%	26.2%	20.9%	0.01
$SC_{4.2}$	33%	31.4%	21.6%	14%	0.04
$SC_{5.1}$	30.1%	25.6%	22.5%	21.7%	0.01
$SC_{5.2}$	38.3%	34.5%	15.4%	11.8%	0.02
$SC_{6.1}$	8.5%	8.2%	46.9%	36.3%	0.008
$SC_{6.2}$	23.4%	27.6%	27.8%	21.1%	0.01

By using the formula No (2), we averaged the entries in the normalized matrix in order to obtain priorities (weights).

$$w_j = \frac{p_{ij}^{norm}}{n} \quad (2)$$

where n represents the number of criteria being compared and w_j are the obtained weights for each criteria. The obtained priorities (weights) for the selected criteria and sub-criteria are presented in (Fig. 3). Finally, local priorities are normalized and global priorities for the criteria are derived the alternatives' rank order is obtained according to their contribution to the hierarchy goal.

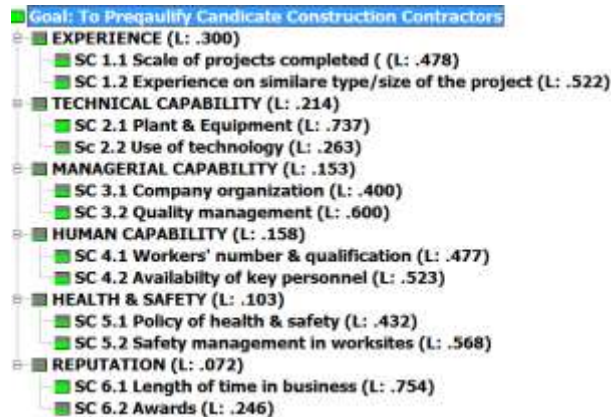


Fig 3: Weightings of criteria and sub-criteria

3.2.4- Consistency estimation: As priorities make sense only if derived from consistent or near consistent matrices [2], this step is performed to find out whether the above judgments are consistent or not to ensure the quality of the final decision. Using Formula No (3), the CR of all paired comparisons was calculated.

$$CR = CI / RI \quad (3)$$

Given that in the present problem, the evaluation of alternatives was based on ratios of quantitative indicators, matrices of all dimensions were formed using formula (4)

$$P_{ij} \cdot P_{jk} = P_{ik} \quad (4)$$

where i, j and k are any alternatives of the matrix. Saaty has defined conditions under which the inconsistencies in the AHP are acceptable. For our results, every matrix was consistent since the relation of formula (4) was obtained for all i, j and k . The Consistency Index (CI) was by the following formula:

$$CI = (\lambda_{max} - n) / (n - 1) \quad (5)$$

where λ_{max} represents the largest eigenvalue of the starting pairwise comparison matrix P .

As presented earlier in (Tables 3, 4), the resulting priorities based on the CR value of the main criteria, sub-criteria and alternatives were all less than 0.1. This means that the judgments were consistent and that our results are robust and hence, the alternatives' rank order is sound.

2.2.5- Judgments' synthesization: It is done by estimating the relative priority for each decision alternative in terms of the criterion. Global priorities are calculated by multiplying alternatives' priorities with criterion weights derived in Step 3. The following formula was used:

$$v_i = \sum_j l_{ij} \cdot w_j \quad (6)$$

where v_i represents the global priorities of the i -th alternative, l_{ij} is its' local priority with respect to criterion j and w_j is the weight that correspond to that criterion. Final global priorities are given in (Fig. 4) according to which, Napred company was the most eligible contractor to bid on the estimated project trailed by Energoprojekt, Deneza M and finally Gemax. The overall inconsistency of these judgments was (.02) which is acceptable.

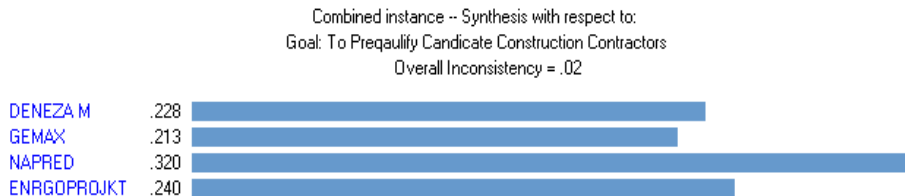


Fig. 4: Global priorities of the alternatives

2.2.6- Sensitivity analysis:

After the four alternative contractors were rank-ordered, the question here is; how these results would respond if any change occurs in the criteria's weights? To answer that and to make better visualization of the effect of the input data, we need to identify the percent amount by which the above values can change and accordingly, the rank order of alternatives would vary. A

gradient sensitivity analysis was run to ascertain these values and to determine to which extent the intervals of these comparisons can vary without changing the obtained rank order of alternatives. It is done by slightly modifying all the input data to observe what occurs on the results. Two scenarios were applied here; (*scenario 1*) was to examine if these ranks will stay consistent if the weight was less important than it was provided earlier while (*scenario 2*) was to examine if they will stay consistent if this importance was more than the that.

2.2.6.1- Sensitivity analysis of main criteria

Regarding C_1 , (Fig. 5) demonstrated that its current weight was (30.0%) and the first eligible contractor was Napred, the second Enggoprojekt, the third Deneza M, and the fourth Gemax. By applying (*scenario 1*) and moving the axis downwards by which C_1 weight is (21.0%), we can see that Napred will stay ranked the first but Deneza M will become the second while Enggoprojekt would be the third. Conversely, if we move the axis upwards (*scenario 2*) where C_1 weight is around (30.0%) or more, nothing will happen to the first obtained rank order.

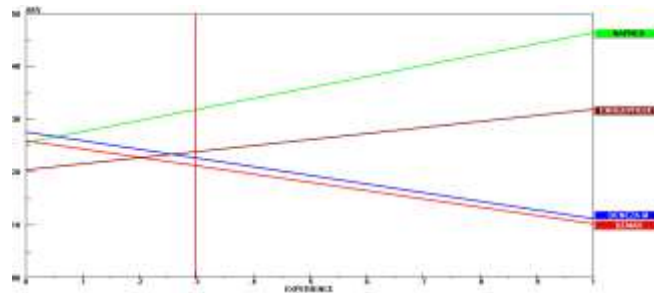


Fig 5: Gradient sensitivity analysis for C_1 in respect to goal

In relation to C_2 , its importance was (22.4%) according to which, Napred was ranked the first, Enggoprojekt the second, and Deneza M the third. We noticed that the first rank order will stay consistent even if the axis was move downwards (*scenario 1*) to the lowest levels. Nevertheless, applying (*scenario 2*) to the point that C_2 become important more than (28.0%) would make Deneza M the second instead of Enggoprojekt. For Napred, it will stay ranked the first till the importance of C_2 is more than (68%) whereby it would became the second after Deneza M. Regarding C_3 , which its weight was (15.3%) whereby Napred was ranked the first, Enggoprojekt the second, and Deneza M the third. By playing (*scenario 1*), the first rank order will stay the same. In contrast, (*scenario 1*) can make Deneza M became ranked the second after Napred if the criterion weight was around (23.0%). In relation to C_4 , its carrying weight was (15.8%) according to which, Napred was ranked the first, Enggoprojekt the second, and Deneza M the third. If the weight was decreased (*scenario 1*), nothing will change. Nevertheless, no changes would occur using (*scenario 2*) as well unless C_4 weight is around (72.0%), which seems hard to happen.

2.2.6.2- Sensitivity analysis for sub-criteria

In relation to $SC_{1.1}$, its weight was (47.8%) by which Napred was ranked the first, Enggoprojekt the second, and Deneza M the third. performing the sensitivity analysis of both *scenarios* did not show any change in first rank order and the same s applied to $SC_{1.2}$, which its weight was (52.2%). For $SC_{2.1}$, its weight was relatively high (73.7%) indicating its importance for the DMs (Fig. 6). the rank order of contractors' eligibility was totally different from the

previous rank orders where Deneza M became the first, Gemax the second, and Napred the third. Using (*scenario 1*) Also, will make no changes will but (*scenario 2*) would make Napred the second and Gemax the third. For $SC_{2,2}$, its weight was (26.3%) based on which Deneza M was ranked the first, Napred the second, and Gemax the third. Only (*scenario 2*) can make changes where Gemax became the second and Napred the third.

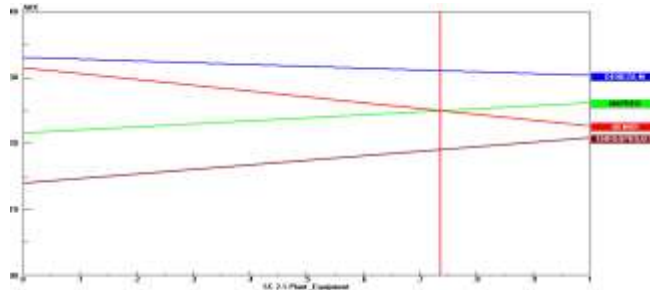


Fig 6: Gradient sensitivity analysis for $SC_{2,1}$

Regarding $SC_{3,1}$, its weight was (40.0%) where Deneza M hardly ranked in the first position followed by Gemax and Napred. Using (*scenario 1*), Gemax will become the first best alternative but no changes would occur in (*scenario 2*). For $SC_{3,2}$, its weight was (60.0%) and Gemax was the first, Napred the second, and Enrgoprojekt the third. If we played (*scenario 1*) then Deneza M will become the third not Enrgoprojekt. In terms of $SC_{4,1}$, its weight was (47.7%) and Gemax was ranked the first while both Deneza M and Enrgoprojekt were the second and Napred was ranked the third. If we played (*scenario 1*), Napred would become the second, while Deneza M and Enrgoprojekt the third. If we played (*scenario 2*), and due to the extensive competition, any small increase in the weight of this sub-criterion can make dramatic changes by which Napred would be the first, Gemax the second, and Deneza M the third. For $SC_{4,2}$, its weight was (52.3%) and the competition over it high too to the level that Napred was ranked the first but Deneza M and Gemax were both ranked the second and Enrgoprojekt was ranked the third. In (*scenario 1*), only Gemax is the second while Deneza M became the third. In (*scenario 2*) and $SC_{4,2}$ Gemax would become the first, Napred the second while contractors will be similarly in the third position.

2.2.7- Making the decision:

After the consistencies of all pairwise comparison matrices were tested, both sensitivity analysis demonstrated largely how consistent the results were since the rank order of the four alternative contractors remained the same even when major changes were made on the weights of criteria and sub-criteria. This reflected as well the level of the accuracy of the judgments made by DMs. Based on that, the rank order depicted on (Fig. 4), is very close to reality. The final step though, is to make the final decision according to the obtained results; it is decided that Napred company is the most eligible candidate contractor followed by Enrgoprojekt, Deneza M, and then Gemax.

3- Conclusion:

The study succeeded to uncover the DMs' perspectives in relation to the suggested prequalification criteria. According to the results, not all the suggested decision criteria and their relevant sub-criteria were ought to be comprehensive and relevant for the prequalification decision of construction contractors. For instance, the contractor' experience, technical capability, human capability, and managerial capability were respectively the most important attributes for making

the prequalification decision. This explained why DMs decision provided in (Fig. 4). It is because they were preferably in use of the experience and technical capability of a contractor more than other criteria and hence, Napred and Enrgoprojekt were respectively rank ordered in the first two positions since they considerably over passed the other competitors in terms theses criteria.

Another compelling conclusion to be drawn here is that the utilized decision support system, the AHP method, can support DMs in minimizing the subjective dilemma that is predominant in the prequalification process and increasing the transparency of the prioritization exercise. Hence, it can be reasonable to expect that, by making the process of contractor prequalification more objective and transparent; the bid awarding process of construction projects in Libya would improve. It was empirically approved that the method does not require DMs to have a sophisticated knowledge of technology and though, it can be learned and practiced easily and improves the quality and accuracy of any related decisions. Hence, it is ideally suited to the exercise of either prequalifying or selecting alternative contractors willing to bid on any future construction projects, which can increases the decisions' creditability and objectivity and leaves the process of decision making less susceptible to human errors. Finally, the study succeeded in proposing a model that incorporated (MCDM) method involved different criteria other than the lowest bid, which were experience, technical capability, managerial capability, and human capability. The model, as is prototyped in (Fig. 7), is flexible and can accept a wide range of criteria as DMs can add or omit any criterion according to the purpose and goal of any future decisions. We believe that the suggested model would work efficiently, yield acceptable results, and succeed in dragging reasonable decisions in construction contractor prequalification process.



Fig 7: The study's proposed model

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THE CONCEPT OF MULTI – HABITATION IN THIRD WORLD HOUSING

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Abstract

In this paper the concept of Multi – habitation which refers to a situation in which people who do not define themselves as one household share a living space was analysed. Multi – habitation is common as a form of housing in most Third World cities as a result of culture and housing shortages. Shortage of housing is a problem in Third World cities and this problem has become an enduring feature of the urbanization process. As such the characteristics of this concept as a way of coping with poverty were identified and analysed with a view to impacting government housing policies in the developing countries. Government efforts at addressing housing shortages in third world cities may not be able to achieve a desirable success without making conscious effort at evaluating the prospects of Multi – habitation.

Keywords: Multi-habitation, Housing, Third world, urbanization, poverty

1.0 Introduction

Multi-habitation is a concept describing a social situation within a space. It refers to a situation in which people who do not define themselves as one households share a living space (Schlyter, 2003). Multi – habitation can also be described as different families living in full view of each other; where facilities and other services are shared among residents living under the same roof. Although to live in multi – habitation is to live quite differently from the idealized official view of the happy single family home, but the issue of affordability and the extended family occupancy which is common in many African countries has encourage multi – habitation a lot.

In multi-habitation people have to negotiate over and adapt to the use of limited space; their ability to do so depends on their status as owner, tenants, men and women. Graham Tipple who primarily had West African houses in mind coined the concept.

Housing has been described as an important urban survival strategy and this makes housing an important item in human survival. There are several literature on housing addressing several issues on housing and also several literature on housing in the third world or developing countries. The literature on housing in the third world noted that the housing for the urban poor in sub – Sahara Africa has been made possible through Multi – habitation, and the concept was described as a dominant housing form in Africa (Amole et al, 1993), (Okeyinka, 2014). Schlyter (2003) described multi – habitation as a way of coping with poverty and by means of this concept, many more people benefit from urban services than was planned. By sharing water, toilets and roads, services became affordable for the poor in cities of developing countries.

Multi-habitation takes the form of petty landlordism and there is always a commercial relationship between resident owners and tenants. Tipple et al, (1992) noted that the Traditional compound house has long been providing the accommodation required by the poor or low – income households in West African cities and this also encourages multi – habitation.

Multi – habitation also occurs in houses of other design where the courtyard is replaced by access corridors. This house type consists of a double row of rooms which open into a common corridor for working, sitting and storage. This type is referred to as face-me-I – face you in the Nigerian parlance.

This non-compound house form with rooms aligned along a central corridor has been adopted in all urban centres and villages of developing countries providing rental accommodation for individual tenants (Okeyinka, 2014). Each house is composed of unrelated households from various ethnic communities living together and providing daily help for each other;

Although multi – habitation is also common among the middle class, and even wealthy individuals as noted by Schlyter, (2003) where domestic quarters are rented out or turned into garden cottages and let to tenants. It has been established in the literature that the practice is common among the poor people of developing countries.(Gilbert,2000).

This study therefore examines these characteristics of multi – habitation; as a form of housing for the poor in developing countries. It is a way of coping with poverty, the collectivist lifestyle of residents in multihabited houses; and sharing of conveniences and facilities, a peculiarity of the house type. These characteristics are sources of information in understanding the concept with a view to informing environments policy on housing for the poor people in developing countries.

2.0 Concept of Multi – Habitation

In the African settings, the compound house is common and a dominant feature of this traditional house is the central courtyard. It is associated with the extended family structure and the need for large number of rooms to accommodate the extended families is a major determinant of the house form. Tipple (2000) concluded that the compound house has long been providing the accommodation required by low – income households in West African cities. Korboe (1992) also noted that for most of the twentieth century, the compound house was the predominant form of accommodation for urban population in Ghana, though by the beginning of the twenty first century preference appears to have change to villa house form, family compound are still taking care of some people in terms of shelter. Okeyinka (2007) in her study of house types and meaning of home in a city in Nigeria affirmed that the compound and rooming houses, that is houses in which multi – habitation was practiced were preponderant in urban centres of developing countries. That though the courtyard compounds were traditional, they are still common in our cities especially within the high residential density of home environments.

Although the compound houses are shared property among relatives, the traditional housing system is being transposed onto non – traditional urban settings, and now non – relatives rent rooms and live in family dominated compounds. Graham Tipple who primarily had West African compound houses in mind coined the concept of Multi-habitation (Tipple, 2000).

Multi-habitation is a concept describing a social situation within a space. It refers to a situation in which people who do not define themselves as one household share a living space that is clearly not designed for multi – family purposes. (Schlyter, 2003). Multi – habitation also can be described in terms of sharing facilities in a dwelling; or the extended or multifamily occupancy as is common in many parts of the Third World. Tipple (2000), Schlyter (2003),Majale and Tipple (2007) and Okeyinka (2014) all affirmed that multi – habitation was common in most African cities.

House types vary from region to region and country to country, this is because culture exercises an overriding influence on the house making the house type to be culturally specific to the environment in which they are found. Traditional family compounds and rooming houses are culturally specific to Africa. Mulder, (2010) opined that though houses are culturally specific, the many types of house have been developed to cater for different types of family structure, socio – economic groups, social and cultural contexts. It can be concluded therefore that both compounds and rooming houses are satisfying the many issues related to housing preferences among the low – income groups and the poor in developing countries.

The concept of multi – habitation in Africa is about extended or multifamily occupancy in courtyard compound or in a rooming house. It is based on a single or more room occupancy in a building where most washing, kitchen and laundry facilities are shared among residents.

For example, in Australia and the United States any housing accommodation with four or more bedrooms can also be regarded as a rooming house, if each bedroom is subject to individual tenancy agreements, but conveniences are not always shared.

The house forms of courtyard compound and rooming houses both are divided into separate rooms. A bedroom is the same as a parlour and the internal spaces are generally multi –

functional. In the compound, the courtyard provides a circulation space and also offers a climatically open air environment.

The passage or corridor in a rooming house also serves as a circulation space, some tenants cook and do some domestic chores there, and due to shortage of space the tenants place their storage cupboards along the corridors. The utilities or services are completely detached at the back of the building. The need for large number of rooms to either accommodate extended families or to provide rental accommodation at reasonable costs for the large immigrant population in the rapidly expanding cities of developing countries is the idea behind multi-habitation.

3.0 Third World Housing

Housing in the Third World is characterized with diverse housing problems because a lack of adequate shelter is merely one manifestation of generalized poverty (Gilbert 2000). This is to say that poverty and rapid urban growth associated with accelerated tempo of socio – economic development has aggravated the shortage of dwelling units, and has resulted into overcrowding, high rent, slum and squatter settlements which are visible features of the urban scene throughout the third world cities (Arnott, 2008). This shortage of housing is a problem which has become an enduring feature of the urbanization process in the Third World.

Urbanization processes in the Third World are breeding widespread poverty and consequently lead to massive housing shortages and qualitative deficiencies as reported in the literature. Most of the people living in African cities are poor and urban conditions and amenities reflect their country's poverty (Ewurdjapor, 2008). Tsenkova, (2009) described the housing characteristics of developing countries, as insecure housing tenure, inadequate basic services, insufficient access to basic urban services, poverty and social exclusion of the poor which eventually leads to development of slum and squatter settlements; a product of informal housing developments.

Currently one of the most important goals of urban planning in developing countries is “cities without slums” (UN – Habitat, 2009). Although urbanization is a common phenomenon that takes place all over the world, Turkey (2011) opined that urbanization rate is highest in Africa (3.5%) and so governments of sub – Sahara African countries are challenged in providing living and related infrastructure for the growing urban population especially the low – income group.

Gilbert (2000) therefore concluded that little is likely to be gained by slum demolition in developing countries, because this will simply increase the number of families requiring shelter. He advised that more should be done to encourage the development of rental housing especially where most poor urban dwellers are tenants and where most landlords live in the same accommodation themselves; this is a concept of multi – habitation.

Recently there has been strirrings among indigenous scholars that both the traditional house forms and the rooming houses in which multi – habitation is practised may be important as contexts in which people living in poverty can find accommodation that suits their budgets and which will provide some cultural, social and economic support for their sojourn in the city. (Tipple, 1982; Amole, et al, 1993;Tipple, 2000; Okeyinka, 2014). Majale and Tipple (2007) opined that the compound house form merits further examination as a housing solution for the low – income majority in West Africa cities.

Although the choice of housing made by a particular household is guided by needs or preferences, but restricted by income and by opportunities offered by the housing market. Tipple (2007) concluded that housing in Africa and Asia has affordability issues as its core problem. As such governments of developing countries should understand how multi – habitation works, its characteristics and ultimately inform their policy on housing for the poor people and low – income groups.

4.0 Characteristics of Multi – Habitation

- Multi-habitation as a form of housing:

The concept of multi – habitation as a form of housing has been influenced significantly in the rural areas of West African towns and villages as a result of cultural issues such as kinship and inheritance. The extended family system in rural areas of West Africa influences this form of housing. The need for large number of rooms to accommodate extended families is a major determinant of the traditional compound house. There is a social interaction in the compound and this is made possible because the local culture and age class structure in the family designate a social position to an individual which confirms on him judicial rights and responsibilities and allocates power to the family head (Valsiner, 2000). However, in the urban areas of Africa, where multi – habitation is practised in the rooming houses and also in some compounds house where non – relatives have rented rooms; this concept has evolved with people of similar level of income, social status and cultural inclination and form a microcosm of the community. In this case, the house is composed of unrelated individuals, at times from many ethnic communities who live together under the same roof. (Tipple 2007, Okeyinka, 2014).

- As a way of coping with poverty:

Poverty in its material sense implies lack of access to adequate quantity and quality of basic assets essential for decent living. The low earning power of the poor manifests in a variety of ways especially lack of sufficient funds to procure housing (Olatubara,2007). UN-Habitat (2010) confirmed that in developing countries, more than one billion human beings live in unacceptable conditions of poverty, without adequate shelter, adequate security, tenure security etc.

Arnott (2008) also asserted that almost two thirds of the urban population in developing countries lives in informal housing and majority of the urban households are renters. Multi – habitation has therefore become popular among urban residents in these countries as a result of high renting rate, because rents seem to be affordable in multihabited houses. At times house owners in compound and rooming house rent out some rooms to increase their income and single – family housing is limited to the elites or indigenous families.

- Multi-habitation encourages collectivist lifestyle:

In multihabited houses, there is usually a form of social network and cultural support system. The traditional compound has been shown to provide significant security against crime and a sense of community among the people living in them. The non – traditional rooming houses too, where unrelated household live together have been shown to be providing daily help for one another. Such interaction forms the basis of social organization in the West African setting and even for urban families.

- A peculiarity of the housetype is sharing of facilities and conveniences;

In multi – habitation, people negotiate and adapt to limited use of space; and extended family or multi – family occupancy is common. The major concern in the house form is the room. The other functional spaces that make a house such as the toilets, kitchen and bathrooms are shared with other residents. This sharing of facilities and “openness” of the rooms in the house form is what Grooves (2004) referred to as facilities and services being a long way from what an ideal home in the developed countries looks like.

5.0 Conclusion

There is the need to understand the characteristics of multi – habitation because multihabited houses are preponderance in cities of developing countries, and the preponderance of multihabited houses in African cities cannot be over emphasized. The poor and the low – income household are in particular the major consumer of the house form. Multihabited house form allows inexpensive accommodation and many collectivist advantages for the residents. Although residents of multihabited houses are usually dissatisfied with issues of privacy, image and communal life, the house form has remained till date because it represents good value for money, costs little to build, suits, traditional inheritance patterns, allows independent life at low cost, allows sharing of services with finite and known groups.(Korboe, 1992). By means of this concept, many more people have secured accommodation and benefitted from urban services than was planned.

The issues discussed in this paper constitute an informed study which will serve as a useful guide in formulating policy on housing and provision of houses for urban dwellers in particular, as well as for the poor and the low – income groups in the Third World cities.

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The Politics of Personnel Recruitment in Nigeria: The Federal Character Principle Revisited

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Abstract

One problem that has confronted those who have piloted the affairs of Nigeria since the colonizers foisted the federal system of government on it has been how to ensure that a sense of belonging and feeling of fair treatment and representation are given to the component units of the Nigerian federation. In view of this, a number of policies and programmes have been designed at different times by the managers of the Nigerian state to ensure that fairness and equity are upheld in the distribution of public resources – including public offices – among the different sections of the country. This essay focuses on the federal character principle, which is one of the policies adopted to ensure stability and national cohesion in the Nigerian federal system. It is argued that given the fragile foundation of the Nigerian federal system, it is important for all the federating units to be adequately represented when personnel are recruited into public offices and institutions. The point is also made that even though the federal character principle advocates fair and equal representation of all sections of the country in recruitments and appointments into public offices, it is expected that only the best qualified and most competent persons should be recruited.

Keywords: Personnel; Recruitment; Personnel Recruitment; Federal Character; Federalism; and Merit.

1. Introduction

The problem of representational equity in Nigeria started with the problem of an unequal North-South duality. As if that was not problematic enough, the smaller southern component was split into two to create a deleterious southern duality and an equally debilitating national trinity....

J. A. A Ayoade (1998: 106).

There is a general consensus among students of Nigerian history that as a geo-political entity, Nigeria emerged in 1914 when British imperialism forcefully amalgamated the Northern and Southern Protectorates. With this merger, various policies and programmes were designed and implemented by the British colonizers to enhance the exploitation of Nigeria and its people. In furtherance of British colonial interests, many colonial constitutional frameworks were imposed on the country at different times. One of these constitutions was the 1954 Lyttleton Constitution.

It was the 1954 constitution which introduced federalism in the Nigerian political system. It established a federal policy made up of three largely unequal regions, and the inequalities were in terms of the regions' sizes and populations. The seeds of injustice and sense of marginalization were planted **ab initio** by the British imperialists in the very nature of the federal system they created and the manner in which they superintended over its affairs.

The Nigerian federation has been enmeshed in contradictions, paradoxes, controversies and crises which are subsumed in the national question, and social groups of varying ideological leanings cohere on the central issues; and these are linked to national unity, local autonomy and self-determination, equitable distribution of revenue, rewards, opportunities and power (Anifowose and Seteolu, 2004: 45). In specific terms, a major problem that has confronted the Nigerian federal system and its operators since political independence was attained in 1960 has been how to adequately satisfy the various interests and component units in the country – in terms of giving them some sense of belonging and making them feel that they all have a stake in the Nigerian federation.

An issue that has attracted attention in the country has been that of ensuring that the various parts of the country are effectively represented in terms of recruitments or appointments into public offices and institutions. At independence in 1960, the departing British colonizers left behind a public service sector into which people were recruited based mainly on the principle of merit. This system of personnel recruitment or appointment tended to create a situation where persons from certain sections of the country dominated public offices and institutions almost to the exclusion of people from other parts of the country.

The feelings of injustice and disenchantment in the Nigerian federation emanating from the above scenario has been captured by Mike Adeyeye (2000: 118). Citing Mabogunje, Adeyeye points out that:

...everywhere one turns in Nigeria, one is confronted by the strong feeling of alienation among the people. This is reflected in people not being sure how they belong to the 'modern', post-colonial Nigerian state and whether they are

expected to have any stake, commitment or obligations to that state. This uncertainty manifests itself in the high level corruption and the insensitivity to social justice perpetrated by the bureaucrats and the so-called leaders.

However, some attempts have been made to strengthen and consolidate the unity and cohesion of the federal system in Nigeria, one of which was the introduction of the principle of federal character as a guide for the recruitments, appointments or selections of personnel into public offices and institutions. This essay examines the principle of federal character, and it is argued that in view of the peculiar nature of the Nigerian federal arrangement, it is needful to ensure that recruitments and appointments into public offices and institutions are conducted in a manner that would bring about “representational equity”. This would give a sense of belonging to the component units of the federation, and this would also ultimately promote national unity and integration.

The point should be made that in the course of enforcing representativeness in personnel recruitments and appointments, the attributes of competence and qualification must not be overlooked. In other words, the element of merit should not be sacrificed or undermined by the application of the principle of federal character. But it is important to always remember that Nigeria is culturally, linguistically and ethnically heterogeneous. As Jean-Pierre Derriennic (cited in Ojo, 2009: 394) has stated, “it is not, as is often believed, cultural, linguistic or religious heterogeneity that is dangerous for civil peace; it is the refusal to accept this heterogeneity...” And we do agree with the view that Nigeria has a unique problem not experienced by any state in the world past or present; and the problem is that of achieving solidarity in action and purpose in the midst of hundreds of ethnic nationalities each exerting both centrifugal and centripetal forces on the central issue of the nation, bound in freedom, peace and unity where justice reigns (Ojo, 2002 cited in Ojo, 2009: 384).

Following the above introduction, the rest of this essay is organized into sections that discuss conceptual and theoretical issues, origin of, and rationale for, the principle of federal character in Nigeria as well as the critique of the principle. The conclusion forms the last section of the essay.

2. Conceptual And Theoretical Settings

Federal character can be regarded as one of those concepts which, as Weldon (cited in Ojo, 2009: 385) puts it, can generate unsolvable debates about their meanings and application. According to the Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) set up by the Murtala/Obasanjo military regime to design the constitution of the Second Republic in Nigeria, federal character refers to the distinctive desire of the peoples of Nigeria to promote national unity, foster national loyalty and give every citizen of Nigeria a sense of belonging to the nation notwithstanding the diversities of ethnic origin, culture, language or religion which may exist and which it is their desire to nourish and harness to the enrichment of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (Afigbo, 1989: 4-5) .

In the words of Eghosa Osaghae (2002: 115), simply defined, the federal character principle is a variant of the consociational principle of proportional representation or quota system where the main objective was to ensure that the kaleidoscope of the country’s diversity was reflected in composition of government at all levels. According to him, the principle was to apply to appointments to ministerial and other top government positions, and the composition of the

armed forces, public service, and other agencies of government, and it was hoped that this would “promote national unity”, “command national loyalty” and ensure “that there shall be no predominance of persons from a few states or from a few ethnic or other sectional groups in government or in any of its agencies.”

The point has also been made that one may argue that federal character refers to how fair and effective representation can be given to the various component units and communal groups in the country’s institutions, agencies and positions of power, status and influence (Akande, 1988: 227). It has equally been stated that federal character is one of the most notable devices or attempts to solve the minority question in Nigeria, and it is a euphemism for ethnic balancing; moreover, it is an instrumentality for ensuring unity in diversity by balancing official appointments between groups and within the officer corps of the armed forces (Ome, 2013: 125).

In his analysis, Tunji Olagunju (1987: 33) regards federal character as a distributive concept, and points out that as a concept, it is fluid and vague and has several possible applications. According to him, an appreciation of the nature of the Nigerian politics is essential if we are to grasp the importance of the concept of federal character. The nature of that politics and particularly the form it took in the past gave rise to the need for a concept that could ensure fair distribution of resources in an association of unequal partners. Olagunju also points out that an understanding of the concept must begin by a description of the difficulties which stood, and still stand, in the way of evolving a meaningful federal system. It is assumed, in his opinion, that it is the realities of geo-political inequality which dictated in the first place, a federal system.

On his part, A. E. Afigbo (1989: 4) has reasoned that a new comer to the Nigerian political scene is most likely to understand the phrase “federal character” as applied to Nigeria to mean the legal and constitutional structure of the Nigerian federation. He states that the new comer would think that federal character refers specifically to the number of the constituent members of the federation, their interrelationships, the division of powers and functions amongst them and such other tangible matters which are usually carefully spelt in legal terms in a constitution and on which designated courts of the land can pronounce binding opinions whenever these become matters of dispute between member-states.

According to Afigbo, such new comer, however, requires to spend only about a week in the country and to read the public opinion columns of national dailies to realize that he has to work hard to understand Nigerian political language for the phrase mean no such thing as he would have thought of at first. Instead, Afigbo continues, he will find out that it means something not always so tangible, not always so legal and not always so constitutional but all the same very dear to the hearts of Nigerians and therefore very sensitive, highly charged emotionally and, indeed, explosive.

Looking at federal character from the point of view of distribution of infrastructure, Ayotunde Yoye (1989: 52) is of the view that whatever the context, the single most important indicator of “federal character” is number, and a concomitant indicator is spread. According to him, the whole idea behind the concept is that when any national amenity is shared, each section (in the Nigerian case, “state”) should have an equitable number of portions. In other words, one can say that national amenities should be spread equitably over all states of the federation. Yoye also contends that the problem has been in agreeing on the criteria of equitability. In his words, at one extreme, one could say that distribution should reflect the federal situation as it is, while at the

other extreme, one could say that distribution should reflect the situation as it ought to be. Even this, Yoloye continues, is an over simplification because it depends on what variable is selected for defining the situation as it is.

In his contribution, Adigun Agbaje (1989: 98) argues that the federal character debate in Nigeria can be seen from at least two perspectives. The more radical of the two, which he supports, sees the debate as one of the instruments with which members of the ruling class define and dictate the parameters and terrain of the struggle for power and control of state machinery. It is also seen as an instrument used by members of the ruling class in the actual conduct of the struggle to obtain power, control power and maintain themselves in power. Agbaje also points out that the traditional perspective of seeing the federal character concept is that it is a means of ensuring national cohesion through public institutions that are representative of “ethnic” and other (sectional) interests within the polity.

Citing the work of Adiele Afigbo (1986), Chris Uroh (1998: 192) opines that to reflect federal character means simply to ensure that Nigerian affairs are not dominated by persons from a few states or ethnic groups. In practice, in his view, the notion of federal character has manifested, among other things, in the application of quota system in job placements and recruitments into military services, in the granting of special considerations for educationally disadvantaged states in admission into institutions of higher learning, and in the requirements for national spread in appointment into public offices and so on. Uroh also poses the question: to what extent can a principle based on preferential treatment or reverse discrimination, as federal character has turned out to be, fall in line with the idea of fair play or justice?

In the view of Ladipo Adamolekun (1997: 365), the federal character clause requires that the composition of government and the appointment or election of persons to higher offices should ensure fair representation for all ethnic and sectional groups at all the three levels of government (federal, state and local). He points out that the two justifications advanced for the provision of this principle in the country’s constitution were the “promotion of national loyalty in a multi-ethnic society” and the need to “secure and maintain stability in the country”. Adamolekun also reasons that the interpretations given to this concept in respect of the civil service have ranged from efforts aimed at achieving a “representative” bureaucracy to a crude adoption of quotas with adverse consequences for meritocracy and efficiency in the conduct of government business.

From the foregoing passages, it is clear that the principle of federal character underscores a systematic effort to ensure that all sections of the country are equitably represented and given “a voice” in public offices and institutions. In other words, it is a means by which the various ethnic or sectional interests in the country or state are given representation in terms of appointments or recruitments into public offices.

There does not seem to be any consensus among authors and scholars on what the most acceptable definition of the concept “recruitment” should be. According to Sharma and Sadana (2006: 406), popular language uses the term recruitment as a synonym of appointment, but this is not correct. In their words, in the technical phraseology of administration, recruitment means attracting the proper and suitable type of candidate for the post to be filled.

In the opinion of A. R. Tyagi (2004: 430), the term “recruitment” has a limited and specific meaning. While making reference to Marshall Dimock, he points out that recruitment simply

means “securing the right people for particular jobs, and it may take the form of advertising for large groups of employees or tracking out a highly skilled individual for special work”.

In the opinion of Emmanuel Ezeani (2006: 320-321), careful and well-planned recruitment and selection of employees are absolutely necessary in order to ensure that only the right caliber of staff is employed in an organisation. According to him, the process of recruitment and selection begins with the manpower plan, which indicates areas in the organisation where there are likely to be shortages of people, and the number of people to be recruited to meet anticipated employment needs. Ezeani also cites Croft (1996) as stating that recruitment “refers to the analysis of a job and the features the organisation will look for in a potential employee, and attracting candidates to apply to the organisation, and offering of various terms and conditions of employment to a chosen potential employee”.

The point has been made that the overall aim of the recruitment and selection process should be to obtain at minimum cost the number and quality of employees required to satisfy the human resource needs of the company (Armstrong, 2006: 409). In this essay, ensuring the availability of needed and qualified personnel in public offices and institutions is regarded as the essence of the recruitment process.

3. The Origin Of Federal Character Principle In Nigeria

The federal character principle was introduced in Nigeria at a particular stage in the evolution of the country’s federal system. Thus, an attempt to establish the historical circumstances which culminated in the adoption of the principle in Nigeria is in order. “After all, we can neither adequately discuss the present nor project into the future without first establishing the past” (Obo, 1999: 245). It is difficult to disagree with the assertion that

every present was first, a future. Every future is only a future because it is becoming a present. Those who ignore this reality and live entirely in the present shall have no place in the future, and will soon become relics of the past, frightened of the future, and confused in the present (Yusufu Usman, cited in Obo, 1999: 245).

Federal character is a feature of all federal systems of government although its politics however vary from one federation to another; but its informal origins in Nigeria date back to the pre-independence days of nationalist agitation for participation in the administration of colonial Nigeria and especially after Nigeria became a formal federation in the fifties (Akande, 1988: 227; Agbodike, 1998: 182). According to Agbodike (1998: 182), originally, during its informal application, the federal character principle was mainly concerned with legislative representation and equalization of inter-regional opportunities in education and appointments at the federal level.

It has been observed that the application of the federal character principle in recruitments into public offices in Nigeria started quietly in the heydays of the Nigerianization policy which was designed to correct the North-South imbalance in participation, historically generated by the South’s early exposure to Western education on the one hand, and lack of it on the part of the North on the other (Adebisi, 1989: 325).

At independence in 1960, the departing British colonizers bequeathed to Nigerian rulers a public bureaucracy that was overwhelmingly dominated by Nigerians from one section of the

country. It was the desire to correct this imbalance that ignited the search for acceptable means of ensuring that different sections of the country were fairly represented in the public service.

While tracing the emergence of the federal character clause in the Nigerian constitution, Afigbo (1987: 21) states that this principle was the product of the disagreement between two broad groups of members of the Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) which was set up to design a constitution for Nigeria's Second Republic which was scheduled to commence in 1979. According to him, members of one of the groups had insisted that there had in the past been inter-ethnic rivalry to secure the domination of government by one ethnic group or combination of ethnic groups to the exclusion of others, and that it was therefore essential to have some provisions to ensure that the domination of people from a few states or from a few ethnic or other sectional groups was avoided in the composition of government or the appointment or election of persons to high offices in the country.

Afigbo also points out that members of the opposing group accepted that inter-ethnic and sectional rivalry was one of the major problems of the First Republic, but they felt that it would be inadvisable to entrench the principle of "ethnic-balancing" in the constitution. They were also of the view that the evolution of national loyalty could only be retarded by playing up the role of sectional representatives in the conduct of affairs of the state. Afigbo also observes that it was in the midst of the debate between these two groups that the phrase "federal character" emerged as a term of compromise accepted by most members.

It was against the above background that the federal character principle was enshrined in the 1979 constitution of Nigeria, and this helped to popularize the principle. All subsequent constitutions of the country also made provisions for the federal character policy.

4. The Rationale For The Adoption Of Federal Character Principle In Nigeria

The fundamental reason for the adoption and application of the principle of federal character in Nigeria has been clearly spelt out in the 1979 and 1999 Constitutions of Nigeria. For example, according to Section 14(3) of the 1999 Constitution (with Amendments);

the composition of the Government of the Federation or any of its agencies and the conduct of its affairs shall be carried out in such a manner as to reflect the federal character of Nigeria and the need to promote national unity and also to command national loyalty, thereby ensuring that there shall be no predominance of persons from a few states or from a few ethnic or other sectional groups in that Government or in any of its agencies.

Section 14(4) of the same constitution also stipulates that:

the composition of the Government of a state, a local government council, or any of the agencies of such Government or Council, and the conduct of the affairs of the Government or Council or such agencies shall be carried out in such a manner as to recognize the diversity of the people within its area of authority and the need to promote a sense of belonging and loyalty among all the people of the Federation.

From the above constitutional provisions, it is obvious that the **raison d'être** of the federal character principle is to ensure social harmony among all Nigerians and to promote the stability and national integration of the country; and it also emphasizes the need for ethnic-balancing as a necessity in the evolution of Nigerian citizenship and for ensuring less acrimonious relationships among the various people of Nigeria (Agbodike, 1998: 183). Indeed, as Ken Saro-Wiwa (cited in Agbodike, 1998: 183) stated, the formula “will make for a more equal federation to which more people will owe loyalty because they see themselves represented meaningfully therein”.

The principle of federal character, as Judith Chijioke (1999: 15-16) has stated, clearly points to the state policy of identifying the constituent make up of the federation and by working towards allowing the reflection of that make up in all state affairs on equitable manner. Citing the report of the Constitution Drafting Committee of 1976, Chijioke spells out the major objectives of the principle of federal character to include: to promote national unity; to foster national loyalty; and to give every citizen of Nigeria a sense of belonging to the nation notwithstanding the diversities of ethnic origin, culture, language or religion which may exist and which it is their desire to nourish and harness to the enrichment of the Federal Republic of Nigeria.

The proper application of the principle of federal character can engender popular participation in the policy. According to Adebayo Adedeji (2000: 2), popular participation, which in essence is the empowerment of the people, is both a means and an end. As a means, it enables the people to effectively involve themselves in creating the structures and in designing policies and programmes that serve the interests of all. It is the driving force for collective commitment for the determination of people-centered development processes and the willingness on the part of the people to expend all energies and make all sacrifices for their realization. As an end, Adedeji continues, popular participation is the fundamental right of the people to fully and effectively participate in the determination of the decisions which affect their lives at all levels and at all times.

The federal character principle can also be regarded as an instrument for ensuring equity in the Nigerian political system. According to David Utume (1998: 208), in a deeply segmented society such as Nigeria, equity is one of the strongest ways of establishing confidence among the groups. For it is by it that they can feel the sense of belonging and so commit themselves to the continued existence of the union. Thus, in the words of Utume, federal character as an equity principle is an integrative principle if arrangements are made to respect it in a political set up. As he puts it,

...a brief survey of Nigeria's experience suggests that the equity principle, through public office appointments, is realizable. It is so appreciated by Nigerians. Thus, despite some of its obvious shortcomings there are benefits it offers if Nigeria adopts and applies it to the operation of its federation, such as it now purports to do by the constitutional acceptance of the principle.

While not sacrificing merit and competence, the principle of federal character is intended to promote representativeness and to guard against “domination politics”. According to Nathaniel Danjibo (2008: 315), the concept of domination politics derives its meaning when a group lords it over another either by the privilege of number, social and ethnic status, or historical privilege as it

was with colonialism in Africa. He contends that in any social setting of at least two contending groups, inevitably, one group dominates the other by certain social attributes as those mentioned, and to this extent, the dominant group usually controls political power and economic resources and use them, sometimes without the least accommodation principle, to the exclusion of the dominated group.

There is no doubt that in a hugely complex and heterogeneous society like Nigeria, a proper application of a well-designed principle of representativeness (like federal character) can aid the cause of social justice in the political system. Social justice, in the words of Bakhshish Singh (cited in Johari, 2005: 351), relates to the balance between an individual's rights and social control ensuring the fulfilment of the legitimate expectations of the individual under the existing laws and to assure him benefits thereunder and protection in case of any violation or encroachment on his rights, consistent with the unity of the nation and needs of the society. The United Nations had long acknowledged the fact that the development process in the society needs to ensure that available social benefits are enjoyed by all citizens. According to the United Nations Second Development Decade (1960-1970),

the ultimate objectives of development must be to bring about sustained improvement in the well-being of the individual and bestow benefits on all. If undue privileges, extremes of wealth and social injustice persist, then development fails in its essential purpose... qualitative and structural changes in the society must go hand in hand with rapid economic growth and existing disparities - regional, sectoral and social – should substantially reduce (Eminue, 2005: 565).

Generally, as already alluded to, the principle of federal character in Nigeria aims at ensuring that in the course of recruiting personnel for public offices and institutions, all the different sections of the country should be fairly represented. And this applies to all the levels of government in the country – federal, state and local. There is no doubt that “the masses need to be given equal opportunities for employment, equitable share in the distribution of resources and benefits of the state in terms of provision of social amenities such as education, access to good roads, portable water, housing, etc., which will bring about improvement in their standard of living” (Adeosun, 2011: 11).

5. A Critique Of The Federal Character Principle

In Nigeria, the strongest and most vociferous critics of the federal character principle “are those apostles of meritocracy who think only merit is good enough in determining who gets a public appointment; the fear is that upholding the federal character principle will compromise on the requisite competence for holding such appointments” (Utume, 1998: 207). In other words, according to this view, the federal character principle encourages incompetence, unprofessionalism and mediocrity.

However, an interesting rebuttal of this criticism has been presented by David Utume (1998: 207). According to him, the fear of incompetence is a genuine one if the holders of such views are sincere about public good; but classrooms do not make geniuses and the merit problem becomes a technical one which poorly fits in with politics. Utume also points out that if it dealt

only with matters of technical competence such as flying of planes, operation of computers, etc and stopped at that, there might be good sense in the arguments of meritocracy. But it is not about the categories of the competent and the incompetent. Were it possible to say that the candidate A is a better achiever than candidate B, and that candidate B is better than candidate C and so on, there would be no problem. But, as Utume puts it,

...for most examinations, there are only two categories, the F (failure) category and the rest of them who then arrange themselves from E up to A. This means that it is not only A that is useful. It follows logically that there is a minimum standard of competence determined by examinations, and the rest is politics – the one for the classroom and the other for the place of employment. Besides, merit by itself is not foolproof, considering the human elements that go into the determination of merit.

The federal character principle, for emphasizing the ethnic or sectional background of the potential public office holder, can be said to be a violation of the constitution of the country. According to Section 17, Sub-section 3(A) of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria (With Amendments), the state shall direct its policy towards ensuring that “all citizens without discrimination on any ground whatsoever have the opportunity for securing adequate means of livelihood as well as adequate opportunity to secure suitable employment”.

The point has been made that one of the limitations of the federal character principle is that the use of states that do not correspond to the ethnic and religious divisions is unrepresentative of the country’s kaleidoscopic diversity and the necessary balances are not guaranteed. Moreover, according to this view, because there are more states belonging to ethnic majority groups in the federation, the application of the federal character principle can have the unintended consequences of accentuating minority marginalization and heightening demands for greater political and economic autonomy by the minorities (Osaghae, 2002: 116).

In a nationwide survey carried out by the Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (IDEA) in 2001, the impact of the federal character principle on citizenship was examined, and it was concluded that the principle had created three types of Nigerian citizens. First, the most privileged are those who belong to the indigenous communities of the state in which they reside. Second, citizens who are indigenes of other states are less favoured and third, the least privileged are those citizens who are unable to prove that they belong to a community indigenous to any state in Nigeria, and women married to men from states other than their own. The Institute further observed that such a multiple system of citizenship inevitably engenders discrimination in jobs, land purchases, housing, admission to educational institutions, marriages, business transactions and the distribution of social welfare services; and it was thus felt that a system like this can hardly promote national cohesion (Ojo, 2009: 393).

In a rather lengthy but incisive critique of the federal character principle, Peter Ekeh (1989: 32-38) contends that the emphasis of the doctrine is exclusively on sharing privileges and benefits that come with participation in government. According to him, it has no conception of the need for the units which will be the recognized benefactors from the operation of federal character to reciprocate by making contributions to the overall common good of the nation.

The doctrine, Ekeh argues, is about sharing, not contributing. He also points out that there is a careless overgeneralization in the formulation of the federal character principle in the constitution. The problem, in his view, concerned inter-ethnic group conflicts and attachments to the ethnic group, with resulting tenuous development of national loyalty. Ekeh says that in adopting the federal character solution, the principle was generalized to areas where the problem did not exist within the same ethnic groups.

He also points out that the formulation of the principle of federal character potentially invaded the integrity and standards of public bureaucracy and such other governmental bodies that normally require safeguards from the ravages of politics. It did so by legislating, as it were, that they are subject to the federal character principle at every turn of recruitment, appointment, promotion, retention of service, and tenure.

Finally, Ekeh opines that the implementation of federal character has resulted not in the promotion of national loyalty, but alienation. According to him, those who hail from states and ethnic groups which have suffered from federal character discrimination become resentful and alienated from the overall body politic while those who gain through federal character manoeuvres are grateful and presumably loyal to the federal character units that favoured them rather than to the nation. This, in Ekeh's words, is the paradox in federal character.

In a critical analysis of the federal character principle, Fred Onyeoziri (1989: 413) observes that the principle assumes that formal representation and participation in decision-making increases sense of belonging and commitment; but he stresses the fact that what actually produces commitment is not participation per se but the experience that comes with that participation. He also contends that to the extent that the federal character principle provides for formal participation without any guarantee that participation or representation will be effective, its presumed capacity to induce commitment or loyalty is as doubtful as its potential to induce estrangement and disloyalty is probable.

It has equally been reasoned that by making ethno-territorial constituencies, rather than merit or other non-ascriptive criteria, the sole basis for representation in bureaucratic and political appointments, the federal character principle also tends to promote prebendalism which refers to those destructively familiar practices in Nigeria that are animated by the belief that office holders could, and should, utilize their positions to aggrandize both personal and communal as distinct from public or civic, interests (Suberu and Agbaje, 1998: 343).

However, it is important to reiterate at this point that the federal character principle does not oppose the system of meritocracy. What the supporters and advocates of the principle emphasize is that while the best and most competent candidates should be recruited, the exercise should be conducted in a manner that would ensure that all the parts or sections of the country/state/local government are represented. Areas or sections that are deficient – in terms of a particular category of personnel (like professionals such as pilots, medical doctors, engineers, accountants, etc) should be adequately compensated when other classes of staff are recruited.

6. Conclusion

There is no doubt that federalism as a system of governance is pragmatic, dynamic, utilitarian and evolving; it can only thrive on consultation, negotiation, compromise, bargaining and agreement between the constituent governments; and it grows under a system of mutuality and interdependence (Ikelegbe, 2004: 128). It is generally known that one basic problem which the operators of any political system constantly grapple with is how to ensure the continued existence of the system and the maintenance of its stability. In federal systems, this problem assumes the character of how to maintain the unity, cohesion and integration of the federating units. Those at the helm of affairs in these federations are expected to design and implement policies and programmes that can reinforce and concretize the bonds of unity and national cohesion in their societies.

In Nigeria, one of these policies is the federal character principle which was introduced principally to rectify some of the imbalances identified in the composition of state apparatuses. This essay has tried to redirect attention to this principle, and we have attempted to highlight some of the different perspectives on it. As a representational mechanism, the federal character principle has the potentials to give a sense of belonging to the constituent parts of the country. As Donald Kingsley (cited in Edoh, 1985: 99) has shown, as appealing as the ideal of hiring the best candidate for each job in the civil service may appear, from the point of view of achieving new goals of equality and equity for all, some very costly political inefficiencies can in fact result from it if the formula is not applied selectively. According to him, the underlying assumption that the individual administrator is value free and is willing or eager to implement government programmes without sentiments is extremely naive.

The point has to be made that in view of the peculiar nature of Nigeria's ethno-cultural configuration, and especially against the background of the historical trajectory of the country's federal system, it is in the best interest of the country for both the principle of federal character and doctrine of meritocracy to be carefully harmonized and reconciled in the process of appointments or recruitments into public offices. By so doing, the most qualified and competent manpower would be procured, and the various component units of the country/state/local government would also be represented. Stability and national integration often elude any society where injustice and marginalization thrive.

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