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Environmental Education in Botswana: A Socio-cultural Analysis of Children's Participation

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Abstract

There has been an increased interest in the rights and abilities of children to actively participate in their own learning in the field of environmental education and the focus has mainly been on teaching children to participate in understanding and addressing environmental issues through developing their action competence (i.e. their abilities to make decisions and act more independently or collectively). In this article we probe the concept of participation of children in environmental management activities in Botswana schools and illustrate how socio-cultural theory offers a framework for re-thinking the participation of children in environmental education practice. We attempt to use these theories to shed light on issues surrounding children's participation within the socio-cultural and historical environmental education contexts of the schools. The theories used in the paper provide a tool for revealing forms of children's participation. We further illustrate how they can be used for critical reflections and monitoring of teaching practices in schools' environmental education processes.

Keywords: Action competence, children, environmental education, activities, participation.

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INTRODUCTION

The Southern African Development Communities Regional Environmental Education Programme (SADC/REEP) has come up with initiatives to meet the Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) objectives of integrating sustainability practices into aspects of education and learning through participatory approaches (Lotz-Sisitka, 2006). This article probes the rhetorical and normalised emphases on children's participation in Botswana schools, and seek further insight into how children can be engaged in participatory learning processes that are meaningful, purposeful and that broaden their action competence and civic agency (Jensen & Schnack, 1997; Hart, 1992; Hart, 1997; Barratt-Hacking, Barratt & Scott, 2007; Stevenson, 2007).

One of the indictments that has been levelled towards the current state in which environmental learning processes are conducted in Botswana schools (Silo, 2009; 2011; Ketlhoilwe, 2007), is the lack of genuine participation of children in meaningful ways, where there has been an emphasis more on rhetoric rather than meaningful practice, which should be the children's fundamental right of citizenship (Hart, 1992; Graham, Whelan & Fitzgerald, 2006; Barratt Hacking et al., 2007; Stevenson, 2007; Clark & Percy-Smith, 2006). This calls for the need to re-think children's participation in environmental education processes specifically in school environmental activities and *how* children can actually participate in these activities with the aim of developing some sense of purpose in their participation.

CHILDREN'S PARTICIPATION – A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

While few today would argue that participation is a key concept in learning, several environmental education studies in western countries have questioned the interpretation of participation in such learning. The main contention of most of this research is that there is a discrepancy between more open-ended action-oriented and reflexive goals associated with solving environmental problems and the somewhat instrumentalist way in which environmental education has been taken up in Botswana schools through participation in environmental management activities. Ketlhoilwe (2007) argues that there has been a normalization of environmental education into existing school culture through cleaning activities by children based on instructions of teachers to keep the school environment clean, and an association between 'clean schools' and environmental education. According to the schools, this is seen as children participating in environmental management activities (Silo, 2011). Researchers argue that much of the participation in most of these initiatives is focussed on instrumental transfer and acquisition of environmental knowledge, awareness development and behaviour change, as a route to environmental responsibility and pro-environmental agency (Hart, 1992; Hart, 1997; Stevenson, 2007; Chawla & Cushing, 2007).

This discrepancy is ascribed to the historical roots of environmental education where the primary purpose was and still is to develop a concern for the preservation of the environment through sound management activities (Stevenson, 2007) which assumes that such concerns are acquired through engaging children in such activities specifically, school waste management activities, that are considered pro-environmental (Ketlhoilwe, 2007; Chawla & Cushing, 2007; Stevenson, 2007). From these reviews it appears that Botswana school curricula have largely incorporated participation in environmental education activities mainly through narrowly defined, and often de-contextualised practices which are normalized into the structural functioning of the Botswana school system and curriculum cultures (Ketlhoilwe, 2007). Such approaches do not incorporate wider and more democratically oriented concepts of participation in learning, as reflected in the concept of developing *action competence*, responsive and responsible agency in children (Carlsson & Jensen, 2006; Jensen, 2002; Jensen & Schnack, 1997; Jensen, 1997; Uzzell, 1999). It is this central dilemma, namely *how* participation is constituted in environmental educational processes in schools in Botswana that is going to be conceptually analysed as it forms the main object of this paper.

Token versus Genuine Participation

For the purpose of analysing the concept of participation, provisionally it can be viewed as token and genuine. (Hart, 1992) uses a metaphor of a ladder as a model in which he sets up more procedural democratic criteria for distinguishing participation from non-participation by describing different degrees of participation ranging from 'non-participation' to several forms of 'real participation' in the rungs of the ladder. The model focuses on the quality of participation in varying positions on the ladder model from non-participation and token participation on the bottom end to real or genuine participation on the top. According to Hart, token participation is where adults use children to support causes and pretend that the causes are inspired by children when in fact children have little or no choice about what they do or how they participate as is the case in the way children in Botswana schools participate in waste management activities (e.g. picking up litter). While in genuine participation children's initiated and shared decisions, with adults form the top category of children's participation in the ladder. In spite of some critiques on the linear nature of Hart's model (Reddy & Ratna, 2002), we contend that the binary distinction of two forms of participation is a useful tool to help clarify Botswana schools' teaching aims when working with participatory approaches with children if schools have to move from the traditional normalised pedagogical approaches that are still so prevalent in the environmental education discourses, to authentic learner participation, an essential element of personally meaningful learning.

Token Participation

In token participation Hart (1992, 1997, 2008) observed that most projects in which children are involved under the guise of participation are normally designed and run by adults (Hart, 1992), with children merely acting out predetermined roles that are seemingly positive to both adults and children, such as picking litter and cleaning which may just be mere performances when indeed the "children's involvement is ambiguous or even manipulative" (Hart, 1992, p. 9). He contends that there are many more instances of tokenism than there are genuine forms of children's participation in activities. Schools seem to show little evidence of children participating in decisions on their participation in these activities, as most delivery plans are drawn up by teachers with little or no consultation with children who are just passive recipients of the curriculum, with few, if at all any, genuine opportunities to contribute to any action in these activities (Barratt-Hacking et al., 2007). This limited form of participation is consistent with moralistic participation (Simovska, 2004, 2008; Schnack, 2000; Jensen & Schnack, 1997). These scholars view moralistic participation as falling short of creating and developing children with skills to exercise and exert their influence and competencies as qualified participants in democratic environments.

Genuine participation

Hart (1992), views the meaning of genuine participation to be a process of sharing decisions which affect children's lives in the community of which they are part because according to him:

it is unrealistic to expect children to suddenly become responsible adult citizens without prior exposure to the appropriate skills and responsibilities which foster competence to participate in the day to day management of their immediate environment which includes school, family, neighbourhood and community (p. 5)

What one gathers from this statement is that children's participation is important as a right that enables them to learn their responsibilities towards the environment, and in order to achieve this, they "need to engage in collaborative activities with other persons including those who are older and more experienced than themselves" (Hart, 1992, p.7) in addressing problems that face them in meaningful ways. Genuine participation, Simovska, (2004) emphasises, "is seen to be conducive to the personally meaningful learning and development of action competence" (p. 204).

There is therefore a need to promote children's participation, and the school offers an ideal forum for their active participation in environmental issues that affect their daily lives as it provides them with a role to play in shaping their future (Simovska, 2004, 2008; Hart, 1997, 2008; Chawla & Cushing, 2007). Participation of children in environmental education (EE) activities should contribute to the children's ability to act and effect change as well as develop *action competence* or civic agency in them. In this regard, Uzzell (1999) argues against the traditional approach of teaching environmental education that simply involves children in environmental management activities through normalized strategies (Ketlhoilwe, 2007), where children are used to pick up litter with the aim of creating "clean schools" without children knowing what they actually are learning from engaging in these activities. It then follows that any associated knowledge and insight that they acquire during their participation in these activities, should in essence bear some element of action competence in being *action oriented* (Jensen, 1997, 2004; Jensen & Schnack, 1997). Another key element is that this participatory approach provides possibilities for children to develop, promote, exercise and exert their competencies to be qualified participants in democratic environments by developing students' action competence (Jensen, 1997, 2004).

PARTICIPATION WITHIN AN ACTION COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK

The concept of action competence pioneered by Danish researchers concerned with children's democracy and decision making in environmental and health issues, is well articulated by Jensen (1997, 2004), Jensen and Schnack (1997), Schnack, (2000, 2010), Jensen (1997), and Carlsson and Jensen, (2006). They see action competence as central to participation in environmental education in schools and view it as a departure from the traditional science-oriented approaches of knowledge transfer and behaviour change as reflected in the normalised strategies associated with environmental management activities adopted by schools in Botswana.

They further perceive action competence as *a conscious action by an individual/group that is targeted towards solutions of the problem that children are working with*. "Action should be directed at solving a problem and it should be decided upon by those preparing to carry out the action. In other words, action is targeted at change: a change in one's own lifestyle, in the school, in the local or in global society" (Jensen, 2002, p. 326). This means there has to be a *deliberate, conscious desire and purpose on the part of the children* to participate in these environmental management practices by *fully understanding the causes* of the problem, who and what it affects, socio-cultural factors around their participation, change strategies in *how solutions to the problem can be generated* and coming up with *alternatives and new visions* to the way in which they participate in these activities (Jensen, 2004; Jensen & Schnack, 1997). These are all aspects of the participatory process that this article focuses on in this analysis.

Simovska (2008) goes on to emphasise that genuine learner participation within an action competence framework is distinguished from token participation that is evident in the normalised strategies of children's participation in Botswana schools' environmental education processes in that it focuses on the quality of participation not on individual students and modification of their behaviour (p. 63). She summarises participation in three main points that distinguish token from genuine participation to be focus, outcomes and target for change (p. 65) outlined and illustrated in figure 1 below.

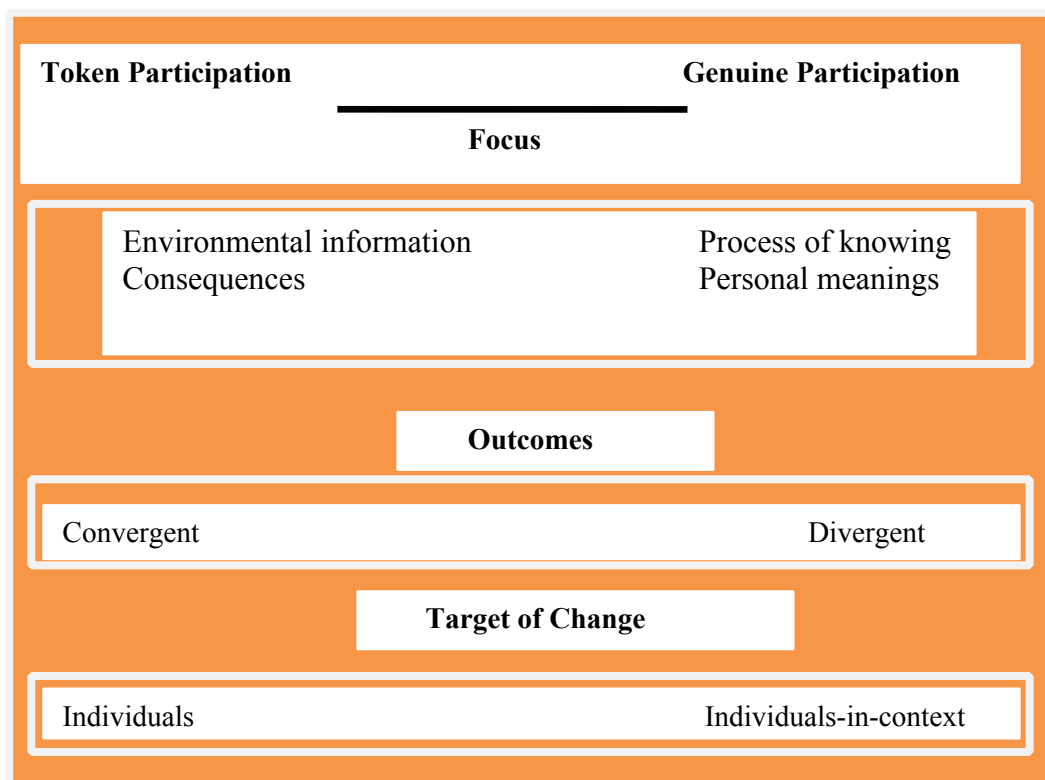


Figure 1: Simovska, (2008) Token versus genuine participation

If the main goal of environmental education is the development of the learner's ability to act and effect change as well as develop civic agency in them, then it follows that any associated knowledge and insight that they acquire during their participation in these activities, should in essence bear some element of action competence in being *action oriented* (Jensen, 1997; Jensen & Schnack, 1997; Simovska, 2004; 2008). Uzzell (1999) argues that the traditional approach of teaching environmental education by simply involving children in environmental management activities through normalized strategies results in fragmented experiences in which children are only engaged in looking for immediate or short term solutions to environmental problems in terms of a "technological fix within a framework that is mechanistic and piecemeal" (p. 402). According to him, these strategies impart knowledge that is not action oriented with schools mainly focusing on transmitting knowledge to children, "who have thus not been afforded the possibility of *actively appropriating and internalizing that knowledge*" (ibid.).

Jensen and Schnack (1997) argue that a school cannot assume to be environmentally effective by routinely cleaning, sorting waste, recycling, engaging in litter campaigns, but rather "the crucial factor must be what the students learn from participating in such activities, or from deciding something else" (p. 165). Such activities, according to them, "are obviously valuable and productive to the extent that they facilitate motivation and acquisition of knowledge" (p. 168) about the waste problem, but in order to be characterized as actions that bring about competence and civic agency, they must be targeted at effecting real change regarding the waste problem. This can only be realized when children are *purposely and systematically given time and space and opportunity to participate* in order for them *to develop their visions*. This has been found to have a very positive effect on the level of children's engagement in issues that affect them (Jensen, 1997, p. 423). He goes on to argue that "the fact that they have been given the opportunity to, develop, discuss and share their visions with others or perhaps participating in developing a common vision is perhaps one of the prerequisites or precursors of the desire to act..." (ibid). It is here, according to Jensen, that the ideas and creative processes in children are developed, and this empowers them to play an active role in making informed decisions about their participation in the environmental management activities. But schools, as is the case in Botswana, seem to lack practice and structures to ensure popular and genuine participation of children on such issues that affect them.

PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF ACTION COMPETENCE

According to Schnack (2000) and Mogensen and Schnack (2010), action competence is both a political and democratic ideal which is a characteristic of liberal education and development of critical thinking (Mogensen, 1997) in children where it is equated with such concepts as liberal education, democracy, human rights, sustainable development and equal communication (Schnack, 2000). This school of thought views action competence as a central feature to democratic environmental education as it attempts to break free from moralising behaviour modification which is characteristic of traditional approaches as seen in the Botswana schools normalised participatory discourses of engaging children in litter pick-up activities. Within the action competence framework in democratic environmental education children are encouraged to identify and act upon their own visions of a healthy life and healthy environment by determining how to participate in the process and coming up with solutions themselves.

The main idea of action competence as an educational ideal is democratic participation, even within a prevailing authoritarian culture (Tabulawa, 1997) in a society like Botswana in which democracy is an enshrined principle in the nation's constitution and where there has been a history of continuous normalized activities (Kethloilwe, 2007) in schools disguised as participation. The action competence approach becomes a much needed fundamental tool in order to reveal the nuanced nature of underlying realities of the historical power of subjugation and exclusion of children in genuine participation across schools in Botswana and to problematise and challenge this dominant authoritarian culture, bringing to the fore the children's subdued voices and subjugated capabilities. Schnack (2000)'s analysis provides a transect that dissects across this concept of action competence, revealing the shifts and transformations that are required in environmental education pedagogies that have developed over time resulting in the normalized participation of children that has characterized environmental education processes in Botswana schools (Kethloilwe, 2007; Silo, 2009, 2011). Carlsson and Jensen, (2006) in their argument for the development of children's citizenship which in a way is similar to action competence argue that while for example in the context of Botswana, like in any other context, this is "an arena of power with different interests, wishes and needs" (p. 243) it is also an arena for action which should comprise mutuality, equality, collaboration and dialogue. The arena should make

it possible for students to experience essentially political situations, and thereby to develop the ability to identify and analyze conflicting interests in relation to environmental problems. Among other things this involves with questions such as: Who makes decisions? Who was for and against, and why? How can we as young people gain influence in relation to environmental issues and with whom can we ally ourselves? (p. 243).

These are all questions that should be central to democracy which, as one of the main pillars of Botswana's society, is supposed to permeate through all institutions of the society (cite) including schools and it is connected with participation freedom and self-determination, (Schnack 2000, p. 110). While advocating for such an ideal might seem to pose a paradox in an authoritarian culture (Tabulawa, 1997), it has to be recognised that it is not so much to do whatever one feels like here and now, which is more like self-important egoism, but ability and the will to take responsibility for one's own life, which should be the aspiration for Botswana children when they leave school as self-determining individuals who freely exercise their right to participation in decision-making (Schnack, p. 110)

The argument above points to the need to create the best conditions and opportunities for children to realise themselves, their potentials and unfold those characteristic traits of their human nature of being agents in their own right within any enabling or constraining circumstances. Seen from a philosophical point of view, the main point of action competence is the idea of action (Mogensen & Schnack, 2010, p. 61) in which the aim is the 'fulfilment of humanity: full development of the capacities and powers of each human individual to question preconceived opinions, prejudices, and 'given facts', and intentioned participation in the shaping of one's own and joint living conditions' (Mogensen & Schnack, 2010, p. 61).

The action competence approach seen in this perspective also challenges normalised activities in environmental education in Botswana schools as these tend to perpetuate moralistic tendencies which conceal preconceived ideas and hidden agendas when undertaking environmental education activities in schools, specifically waste management. Hence it calls for participatory approaches which should give rise to teaching and learning sequences that deal with societal issues involving conflicting interests within school communities between children, teachers and other stakeholders. Understood this way,

the action competence approach points to democratic, participatory and action-oriented teaching–learning that can help students develop their ability, motivation and desire to play an active role in finding democratic solutions to problems and issues connected to sustainable development that may even consist of the aforementioned tendencies, ideas and agendas. (Mogensen & Schnack, 2010, p. 62)

The action competence philosophy is critical towards any reductionist tendency (Breiting & Mogensen, 1999) in environmental education as observed in the normalised waste management activities in Botswana schools where the goal of such activities is to change the children's behaviour (Jensen & Schnack 1997). This is the very reason why participation of children in these activities must also be critically explored when seen from the philosophical perspective of the action competence approach (Schnack, 2000; Mogensen & Schnack, 2010) as the whole idea behind SADC/REEP's ESD agenda seems to be very much in line with the action competence approach.

CHILDREN'S PARTICIPATION WITHIN A SOCIO-CULTURAL APPROACH

All of these insights into children's participation within an action competence framework provided by all these researchers (highlighted above in the previous sections), call for an approach that looks at the mediating factors that will remove barriers which disregard the role of children as potentially full environmental stakeholders (Barratt-Hacking et al., 2007) and move them from being mere actors in environmental management activities to informed and full participants and action competent contributing stakeholders.

Hence, if action competence for civic agency is to be developed in children, there is need to move from a rhetorical and normalised narrow view of participation to a broader approach that seeks to incorporate the *socio-cultural and historical contextual factors* that influence participation of children in these waste management activities (Jensen, 2004) in ways that develop their action competence. Jensen asserts that the element of action competence should be an essential component of environmental education as it brings out children who not only have knowledge and insight about their environmental management activities, but who should also show commitment through working within their social-cultural context with others to resolve problems around the way they participate in these environmental management activities.

Children's participation in environmental management activities in Botswana schools and the potential for developing action competence for civic agency within a socio-cultural and historical context can be understood and/or analyzed through *Cultural Historical Activity Theory* (CHAT), which has laid greater emphasis on situated (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and socio-cultural approaches to learning (Edwards, 2005; Reid et al., 2008; Jensen, 2004). The theory offers a broad approach, both epistemologically and methodologically for expanded learning opportunities for children in waste management activities. It also provides a robust conceptual framework for analysing and exploring children's participation. Participation according to this theory, or the 'participation metaphor' (Edwards, 2005) in learning has generally been perceived to be a non-cognitive option in learning that has been confined within a child instead of being placed on the capacity of a system in which learning is supported by complex forms of engagement (Edwards, 2005). According to Daniels (2001) the theory provides a view of developing cognition and its relationship between societal, cultural and historical factors from the notion of the prevailing context. Daniels goes on to recognise that "cognition is distributed among individuals, that knowledge is socially constructed through collaborative efforts to achieve shared objectives in cultural surroundings and that information is processed between individuals and tools and artefacts provided by

the culture” (p.70). Activity theory's focus on cultural history and tools makes it ideal for exploring interaction among multiple participants in an activity.

Edwards (2005) therefore argues for the potential inherent in the socio-cultural nature of participation in the learning process and how it can be supported in a complex system in which participation of children are operating (Edwards, 2005; Daniels, 2001). This theory provides a potential of understanding Botswana children' participation in waste management activities and how mediating tools within a socio-cultural context of the children influence their participation and how this affects the way the object of their participation is interpreted. The central role for contextualising the activities is that when analyzing children's participation in these activities, it is not only the activities that are going to be analysed, “but also who is engaging in that activity, what their goals and intentions are, what objects or products result from the activity, the rules and norms that circumscribe that activity, and the larger community in which the activity occurs” (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999, p. 62). It is therefore important to analyse waste management activities within their context, as this provides a useful framework for understanding the totality of children's participation and praxis in context (Jensen, 2002, 2004; Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999).

Because cultural historical activity theory has a focus on social contexts, interests and practices, it offers an ideal socio-cultural and historical framework for building and analyzing a picture of the status of environmental management activities in schools. From this, it allows for the setting up of mediation processes and engagements through which expanded learning opportunities for collaboration and interaction with children can emerge, which will allow children to participate in environmental management activities oriented towards action competence development. It therefore creates a contextual and emergent research framework for exploring broader views of children's participation in environmental management activities, and the dynamics that influence their participation in these activities.

The cognitive roots of participation in the socio-cultural context can be traced back to Vygotskian cultural psychology which viewed cognitive developments to be a result of a dialectical process, where the children learn by shared problem solving experiences through participation with someone else, such as an adult and peers within their surrounding culture who guides the learner (Daniels, 2001; Rogoff, 1990) because knowledge is place-based and distributed across the community (Edwards, 2005; Daniels, 2001) that the child is part of. This type of participation of children in the learning process occurs within the children's zone of proximal development (ZPD), which is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90).

PARTICIPATION IN ACTIVITY SYSTEMS

According to Vygotsky (Daniels, 2001, 2008) learning cannot be understood as linear, never-changing and universal as suggested in some areas of developmental psychology, but as always depending on its specific social, cultural and historical formation. Vygotsky (1978), posits that children's participation is mediated by *artefacts or tools* which modify how the individual *subjects (children)* will achieve their *object* (Daniels & Warmington, 2007). Artefacts or tools are created by individuals and social groups of which children are part, in order to interact with their world (Daniels, 2001, 2008). This basic interaction forms an *activity system* (Engeström, 1999; Sanders). Leontev (in Daniels, 2001) went on further to develop Vygotsky's tool mediation by focusing on the object (e.g. participation in a particular environmental management activity) and *how it is interpreted and what actions it elicited in children* (Edwards, 2005). This system forms a first generation activity system. Engeström, (1999), further extended and developed the activity system theoretical framework which offers a more viable root model of participation (Engeström, 1999; Roth, 2004) by focusing on object transformation which helps map relationships between children (subject) and their participation in environmental management activities (object). He argues that the object can be seen as being complex and can be viewed differently by others such as teachers and others in the school. In developing and expanding the concept of the activity system, Engeström (1999; 2000) proposed that an individual activity system is an integral part of a much larger

and expanded collective activity system, and he called this a second generation activity system (Engeström, 1999, 2000). This expanded model considers the social, cultural and historical context within which the activity system is operating. The additional dimensions of this second generation activity system include *community*, *rules* and *division of labour* (ibid).

In the second generation activity system, the activity system for children's participation forms the unit of analysis (Engeström, 1999, 2000). Children's participation in environmental management activities can be transformed into action competence for civic agency through engaging various mediating *artefacts/tools* which are the available resources influencing the children's participation. The *division of labour* refers to both how the roles, tasks and duties between the members of the school *community* (children, teachers, cleaners etc.) are defined and also how power and status are divided. Tools, community, rules, and division of labour are the structures that can both enable and constrain the activity system for children's participation (Roth, 2004; Roth, et. al. 2004; Edwards, 2005) as their participation is mediated by these structural and socio-cultural dynamics in order to achieve an outcome (Edwards, 2005). Outcomes (e.g. meaningful participation in environmental management activities in a school that show evidence of action competence development), can be brought about by features of the children themselves (i.e. characteristics of the *subject*), the nature of the *objects* that motivate their participation, the *mediating tools* they use (e.g. what facilities and materials they use to support them), the *community* of which they are part (their peers, teachers, parents, and others), the *rules* that pattern their participation (e.g. norms and rules in the school and community related to environmental management), and the *division of labour* (how they divide up tasks and who does what) (Engeström, 1999; Edwards, 2005; Roth et al., 2004). These structures form what Engeström calls *nodes* of an activity system (Engeström, 1999). Each of these nodes is understood not as a constant entity but as undergoing continuous change, which in part is brought about in the system's response to *contradictions*, *tensions* or *inconsistencies* (Engeström, 1999, 2000; Roth, 2004). The identification of contradictions within and across activity system is a central component (Engeström, 2000) of second generation activity theory, as arising tensions and contradictions offer *expansive learning opportunities* for children in activity systems (Daniels & Warmington, 2007; Engeström, 1999). According to this framework, children's participation as it is currently undertaken in Botswana schools can be analysed to identify the contradictions and tensions in these activities, which can then provide opportunities for new expansive participatory processes that will lead to the development of children's action competence.

CONCLUSION

Through enabling the expansive participatory learning processes in Botswana schools, children can reposition themselves in relation to environmental management practices in the school and this can further be investigated to see whether and how their participation and motives can be re-conceptualised to embrace a radically *wider horizon of possibilities than in the previous mode of their participation* (Engeström, 2001; Edwards, 2005) in the normalised activities such as routinely picking up litter. For example tensions in the children's activity system can exist in relation to *rules* (what teachers tell children to do), and *how they perceive the object* (i.e. they are not clear why they are being asked to participate in environmental management activities) (Silo, 2009). This tension could create possibilities for children to, for example develop explanations for why they are participating in environmental management activity which would be evidence of an expanded learning opportunity and wider participation in the process that is meaningful and relevant to their issues and interests (Silo, 2009). This could contribute to the process of participation in decision making and the development of action competence, as explained by Hart, Jensen and other theorists as noted above. As Engeström (1999) explains, contradictions "are potential growth points that allow the system to improve while affording the making and remaking of the participants and their identities" (p. 176), allowing for expansive learning.

According to Jensen (2004) expansive transformation which might arise from emerging and observed tensions and contradictions, should help children to come up with questions on how to do things differently to respond to the problems they identify, and change the ways that they participate in environmental management activities. This would expand their learning opportunities which is similar to developing their action competence, this action competence approach provides a more refined picture of

the kinds of processes children could engage with (e.g. vision building, framing questions, making decisions, seeking solutions together, trying out and reflecting on actions etc.) once the tensions in their activity systems become more visible to them, and if they are supported, to use these as open-ended starting points for new opportunities for participation. This should respond to the SADC REEP initiative within the Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) framework (Lotz-Sisitka, 2006) that argues for meaningful participation in environment and sustainability education in Botswana schools.

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Managing Higher Education: Implication for Graduate Unemployment in Rivers State

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Abstract

The study focused on managing higher education: implication for graduate unemployment in Rivers state. The study investigated the factors associated with graduate unemployment and the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State. The population of this study was targeted at all the 40,368 higher institutions unemployed graduates registered with the ministry of Economic Empowerment and employment Generation in Rivers State. A simple random sampling was use in the selection of 600 unemployed graduates (400 male and 200 female) in the State. The data for the study was gathered with a questionnaire titled "Graduate Unemployment Questionnaire" (GUQ). It was validated and its reliability co-efficient established at 0.75. It consists of 24 items used to elicit information relevant to the problems investigated. Data was analyzed using means and standard deviation. The response option of Strongly Agree (SA), Agreed (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) weighted as 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. A criterion mean of 2.50 was established by dividing the sum of the weights with 4. Responses with a mean of 2.50 and above were accepted (A) while responses below 2.50 were not accepted (NA). The hypotheses posed for the study was tested using the z-test statistics. The findings revealed that no significant difference was found between male and female unemployed graduates on the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State. Again, no significant difference was established between male and female unemployed graduates on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State. This paper recommended that students should study discipline which may offer better opportunities for employment in future, higher institutions should be advised on the manpower needs of the country and government should increase on the funding of higher education in the country.

Keywords: Managing, higher, education, graduate, unemployment, Rivers state, Nigeria.

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INTRODUCTION

The global education and economic landscapes have been in a state of rapid transformation. Education to a large degree is accepted as a tool for promoting political, socio-economic and cultural development in Nigeria. The effort of higher education in producing relevant and skilful graduates to meet the needs and aspirations of modern world labour market is a formidable task for education management. The unique position of higher education in making relevant education within the reach of average youth cannot be overemphasized. It is paramount for higher institutions of learning to produce graduates who have the ability to think productively and the skills to meet the requirement of modern labour market. However, success in the graduate labour market is typically defined as graduates securing employment in jobs which make appropriate use of the skills and knowledge developed in the course of their university studies (McClellan, 2006). In Nigeria today, many graduates of higher learning seems to be highly unemployed, some under-employed and a few number of them self - employed.

The growth rate of graduate unemployment in Nigeria is becoming very alarming. Akomolafe & Adegun (2009) observes that, the role of higher education in preparing youth for labour market is becoming more challenging in the modern society. Many graduates get jobs that could not sustain them they engage in such jobs just to take care of their daily bread. That is why they receive wages far below the expected wages for those working in standard establishment. Agricultural sector which has been the main stay of Nigeria economy before the discovery and exploitation of crude oil has not been developed enough to provide employment for higher education graduates. Idumange (2004) notes that, a lot of higher education graduates get job outside their disciplines which indicated that their jobs had no relationship with their courses of study. A large number of these graduates also look up to government and private companies for jobs but only a few of them are absorbed.

Ojedele and Ilusanya (2006) also notes that the National Policy on Education specified how higher educational institutions in Nigeria should achieve the goals of developing proper values for the survival of the individual and the inculcation of physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society. Considering the importance of higher education, Ajayi and Ekundayo (2009) submits that the funds allocated to higher education should not merely be considered as an expense but a long-term investment that will be beneficial to society. It is clear, of course, that simply investing more money into the system is not itself an answer; how that money is spent matters greatly in creating a strong and vibrant education sector. The underlining premise of this statement is based on the working relationship with tertiary institutions and their ability to access and sustain available funds for the implementation of viable projects. Oyeagbako (2014) notes that, from 1999-2013, TETFUND has allocated about ₦297 billion to Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education but has only disbursed 55% of the funds. In order to ensure probity, accountability and due process, TETFund has approved guidelines for accessing and utilizing funds meant for higher institution.

The apparent shortage of fund available to higher institutions has been linked to be responsible for the declining posture of instructional facilities in Nigerian higher institutions in recent years. Akinsolu (2012) notes that, these facilities act as stimulants on both the students and teachers. It is because of this reason that school plant planners have continued to emphasize on their proper planning especially before the establishment of any higher institution. This is to ensure that the educational objectives for which a school is established are attained. Every educational resource should be designed to support, stimulate and strengthen teaching and learning. Ajayi and Ekundayo also stressed that the benefits of higher education are reflected on a societal level in terms of lower unemployment rates, better health, lower crime rates, more involvement in societal activities, higher tax returns and security. Despite the immense benefits of higher education to nation building, the potentials of higher education in developing countries to fulfil its responsibility are frequently thwarted by long standing problems bedevilling the system.

Presently, there are doubts whether Nigerian universities under the present conditions can continue to lay claims on being central to national capacity to connect with the new international knowledge system and adopt, adapt and further develop the new technologies needed in the wider society (Verspoor, 2004). The society presently is faced with the challenges of acquiring education that delivers students with the right set of skills and knowledge demanded by the labour market. There is the need for higher education to see new reality of education in modern world. The reality of education today, is that

higher education must turn out students who are employable and are ready to work in flexible organizations that will be constantly changing (Ekundayo & Ajayi, 2009). The students themselves will continue to learn and grow intellectually throughout their professional lives so that they can adapt and fit the needs of their organizations and grow with them. Higher education needs to produce employable graduates who have the knowledge and skills needed in the modern world. However, for this to be achieved, the educational system must be in close contact with the business community and be willing and able to determine and respond to the needs of that community.

Statement of the problem

It is now a phenomenon to find graduates of various institutions of higher learning roaming the streets in search of jobs many years after graduation. This is contrary to the high expectation of securing gainful employment after acquiring higher education certificates. These dashed high expectations as a result of lack of jobs have culminated into frustration leading to social ills such as political thuggery, youth restiveness, advance fee fraud (419), armed robbery, prostitution, drug abuse and cultism as means of survival. This situation has become worrisome to the government, parents and the society at large. However, if the population of unemployed graduates increases by the day without being addressed, there is bound to be instability in the socio-political system which will eventually lead to insecurity in the country. It is in the light of these that the paper assessed managing education: implication for graduate unemployment in Nigeria.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to:

- Determine the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State.
- Determine the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State.

Research Questions

- What are the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State?
- What are the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State?

Hypotheses

- There is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State.
- There is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State.

METHODS

The study adopted a descriptive research design. The population of this study was targeted at all the 40,368 colleges of education, polytechnic and university unemployed graduates registered with the ministry of Economic Empowerment and employment Generation in Rivers State. A simple random sampling was used in the selection of 600 unemployed graduates (400 male and 200 female) in the State. The data for the study was gathered with a questionnaire titled "Graduate Unemployment Questionnaire" (GUQ). It was validated and its reliability co-efficient established at 0.75. It consists of 24 items used to elicit information relevant to the problems investigated. Data was analyzed using means and standard deviation. The response option of Strongly Agree (SA), Agreed (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) weighted as 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. A criterion mean of 2.50 was established by dividing the sum of the weights with 4. Responses with a mean of 2.50 and above were accepted (A) while responses below 2.50 were not accepted (NA). The hypotheses posed for the study was tested using the Z-test statistics.

RESULTS

Research Question 1: What are the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State?

Table 1: Factors associated with graduate unemployment.

| s/n | Variables | Male = 400 | | Female= 200 | | Mean set | Remarks |
|-----|---|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|----------|
| | | X1 | SD | X2 | SD | | |
| 1 | Increase in number of graduate unemployables. | 2.58 | 0.92 | 2.90 | 1.17 | 2.74 | A |
| 2 | Lack of job creation investment | 2.94 | 0.81 | 3.10 | 0.92 | 3.02 | A |
| 3 | Lack of relevant kills for jobs | 2.71 | 0.94 | 2.86 | 0.99 | 2.79 | A |
| 4 | Poor manpower planning | 2.73 | 0.99 | 2.88 | 1.01 | 2.80 | A |
| 5 | Over dependence on oil sector | 2.94 | 1.05 | 2.97 | 1.05 | 2.95 | A |
| 6 | Non-liberalization of the economy | 2.82 | 1.03 | 2.71 | 1.05 | 2.77 | A |
| 7 | Proliferation of higher education | 2.67 | 0.98 | 2.69 | 1.02 | 2.68 | A |
| 8 | Low level of technology | 2.86 | 1.12 | 2.88 | 0.85 | 2.87 | A |
| 9 | Poor economic policies | 2.97 | 1.67 | 2.87 | 0.71 | 2.92 | A |
| 10 | Rapid population increase | 2.71 | 1.06 | 2.72 | 0.80 | 2.71 | A |
| 11 | Increase in workers' wages | 2.35 | 0.85 | 2.33 | 0.73 | 2.34 | NA |
| 12 | Lack of operational law on employment | 2.80 | 1.01 | 2.77 | 0.77 | 2.78 | A |
| 13 | Lack of interest in Agriculture | 3.04 | 0.83 | 2.90 | 0.95 | 2.97 | A |
| 14 | Placement of embargo on employment | 2.56 | 0.75 | 2.58 | 1.08 | 2.57 | A |
| 15 | Job preferences of graduates | 2.61 | 0.85 | 2.68 | 1.04 | 2.64 | A |
| | Aggregate mean | 2.75 | 0.99 | 2.79 | 0.95 | 2.77 | A |

A = accepted

NA = Not accepted

Results on table 1 shows that items 1- 15 except item 11 all had weighted mean scores above the criterion mean (x) of 2.50 and were agreed on as factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State. However, with an aggregate weighted mean set of 2.77 above the criterion mean of 2.50, it is evident that male and female unemployed graduates agree on factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State.

Research Question 2: What are the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State?

Table 2: Coping strategies among the unemployed graduates

| s/n | Variables | Male= 400 | | Female= 200 | | Mean set | Remarks |
|-----|---|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|---------|
| | | X1 | SD | X2 | SD | | |
| 16 | Engaging in hobbies, sports and games. | 2.96 | 1.06 | 3.09 | 1.07 | 3.03 | A |
| 17 | Engaging in any private income earning jobs | 2.97 | 0.97 | 3.10 | 0.93 | 3.04 | A |
| 18 | Depending on friends and relations | 2.27 | 0.82 | 2.46 | 0.83 | 2.37 | NA |
| 19 | Accepting any job available | 2.55 | 1.03 | 2.58 | 1.02 | 2.57 | A |
| 20 | Go back to school to read further | 2.53 | 0.96 | 2.79 | 0.92 | 2.66 | A |
| 21 | Staying idle | 2.04 | 0.73 | 1.99 | 0.82 | 2.02 | NA |
| 22 | Going into apprenticeship | 2.78 | 0.69 | 3.00 | 0.96 | 2.89 | A |
| 23 | Making efforts to leave the country | 2.26 | 0.83 | 2.04 | 0.71 | 2.15 | NA |
| 24 | In search of jobs available | 2.59 | 0.66 | 2.67 | 0.62 | 2.63 | A |
| | Aggregate mean | 2.55 | 0.86 | 2.64 | 0.88 | 2.60 | |

A = accepted

NA = Not accepted

Results on table 2 shows that items 16, 17, 19, 20, 22 and 25 had weighted mean scores above the criterion mean (x) of 2.50 and were agreed on as coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State while item 18, 21 and 24 had a weighted mean scores below the criterion mean (x) of 2.50 and were disagreed on as the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State. However, with an aggregate weighted mean set of 2.60 above the criterion mean of 2.50, it is evident that male and female unemployed graduates agree on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State.

Hypotheses 1: There is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State.

Table 3: Difference between male and female unemployed graduates on Factors associated with graduate unemployment.

| Variables | N | Mean | SD | Z- cal. | Z- crit. | df | Level of significance | Decision |
|-----------|-----|------|------|---------|----------|-----|-----------------------|----------|
| Male | 400 | 2.75 | 0.99 | 1.10 | 1.96 | 598 | 0.05 | Accepted |
| Female | 200 | 2.79 | 0.95 | | | | | |

The data on Table 3 shows that the z-calculated value of $1.10 < z\text{-critical of } 1.96$; $p < 0.05$ level of significance with $df=598$. The null hypothesis is accepted. This means, there is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State.

Hypotheses 2: There is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State.

Table 4: Difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates

| Variables | N | Mean | SD | Z- cal. | Z- crit. | df | Level of significance | Decision |
|-----------|-----|------|------|---------|----------|-----|-----------------------|----------|
| Male | 400 | 2.55 | 0.86 | 1.35 | 1.96 | 598 | 0.05 | Accepted |
| Female | 200 | 2.64 | 0.88 | | | | | |

The data on Table 4 shows that the z-calculated value of $1.35 < z\text{-critical of } 1.96$; $p < 0.05$ level of significance with $df = 598$. The null hypothesis is accepted. This means, there is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State.

Discussion of Findings

The findings revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the factors associated with graduate unemployment in Rivers State. It further revealed that increase in number of graduate unemployables, lack of job creation investment, lack of relevant skills for jobs, poor manpower planning, over dependence on oil sector, non-liberalization of the economy, non-liberalization of the economy, proliferation of higher education, low level of technology, poor economic policies, rapid population increase, lack of operational law on employment, lack of interest in Agriculture, placement of embargo on employment and job preferences of graduates all have a criterion mean above 2.50. However, with an aggregate weighted mean set of 2.77 above the criterion mean of 2.50, it indicates that these factors are responsible for the inherent graduate unemployment in Rivers State.

The position of higher education in making education relevant and within the reach of average youth is a welcomed development. Higher education graduates unemployment is growing at an alarming rate in Nigeria. Our society today is facing the challenges of acquiring education that gives students the right set of skills and knowledge demanded by the labour market. Akomolafe and Adegun (2009) reiterates that, higher education has an important role to play towards the empowerment of the youths for labour market. There is the need for higher education to see new reality of education in modern world. The reality of education today, is that higher education must turn out students who are ready to fill available jobs in the market place, who are ready to work in flexible organizations that will be constantly changing. Many graduates had engaged in jobs that could not sustain them which only take care of their daily bread. That is why they receive wages far below the expected wages for those working in standard establishment. Ojedele and Ilusanya (2006) also posited that the National Policy on Education specified how higher educational institutions in Nigeria should pursue the goals of developing proper values for the survival of the individual and the inculcation of physical and intellectual skills which will enable individuals to be self-reliant and useful members of the society.

The study also revealed that there is no significant difference between male and female unemployed graduates on the coping strategies among the unemployed graduates in Rivers State. It further revealed that engaging in hobbies, sports and games, engaging in any private income earning jobs, accepting any job available, go back to school to read further, going into apprenticeship and going in search of jobs available, all have criterion mean above 2.50. However, with an aggregate weighted mean set of 2.60 above the criterion mean of 2.50, it indicates that the above strategies help the unemployed graduates to cope with the inherent unemployment situation in Rivers State.

Many graduates of higher education in the country today seems to be highly unemployed, some under-employed and a few number of them self - employed. McClellan (2006) reiterates that, success in the graduate labour market is typically defined as graduates securing employment in jobs which make appropriate use of the skills and knowledge developed in the course of their university studies. Idumange (2004) notes that, a great number of higher education graduates get job outside their disciplines which indicated that their jobs had no relationship with their courses of study. A large number of these graduates also look up to government and private companies for jobs but only a few of them are absorbed. The Agricultural sector which is a vast area for job creation has not been developed enough to provide employment for higher education graduates. Agriculture which has been the main stay of Nigeria economy before the discovery and exploitation of crude oil has not received the due attention to provide job for the youth.

CONCLUSION

Our society today is faced with the challenges of acquiring higher education that gives students the right set of skills and knowledge deemed fit for competition in the labour market. It is desirable of higher education to produce graduates who have ability to think critically and have personal, social and communication skills to meet the requirement of modern labour market. Employable and unemployable graduates are increasingly roaming the streets in search of job which are limited or nearly unavailable. It is important for all stakeholders to plan, strategise and create employment opportunities so as to reduce the alarming rate of increase in graduate unemployment which could lead to uncontrollable youth restiveness in the country in the near future.

Recommendations

- Students should study discipline which may offer better opportunities for employment in future;
- The higher institutions should be advised on the manpower needs of the country;
- Private individuals should be encouraged to float industries in the state to absorb unemployed graduates;
- The government should lift embargo on employment on all sectors; and
- Government should increase on the funding of higher education in the country.

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Teamwork: A Panacea for University Effectiveness

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Abstract

The study examined teamwork and university effectiveness in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria. Three research questions and three null hypotheses were generated to guide the conduct of the study. Literature was reviewed for expert opinions relating to teamwork and organizational effectiveness. An instrument that contains the variables under investigation was used to collect the data from the respondents. The population of Study was 520 persons drawn from 3 public and 3 private universities in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria. In this regard, 118 persons were drawn from the public universities while 90 persons were drawn from the private universities. The responses of the respondents were scored on a 1-4 Likert scaling pattern. The z-test was used in testing the null hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance. Findings of the study include: that university where members have focus on the goals can succeed in achieving the purpose of their existence, university staff who have strong belief in university objectives can help the administration in achieving the its set goals. There is a significant difference between the mean rating of the public and private university lecturers on how shared vision, participation in university activity, constructive communication can lead to university effectiveness. Recommendation include that the university should make more effort to encourage teamwork among the university staff, finally, the university should ensure that there is free flow of communication among the team members.

Keywords: Teamwork, University Effectiveness, University Management, Staff, Lecturers, Organization.

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In the recent time, management of educational organization in which the university is inclusive is a thing of concern to many educational managers and as well as other administrators. Discussions abound on issues such as quality of education, total quality management, quality assurance and quality education delivery. The question that may be asked by stakeholders is the strategy that may be adopted by the school administrator to achieve organizational effectiveness. Babson (2005) sees effectiveness as the ability of the organization to achieve its set goals. Ajeke (2008) was in support of Babson (200) when he asserts that effectiveness has to do with the extent to which organizations are able to meet the target or goals set for them by the society. One of the strategies that may be adopted by educational administrator is the application of teamwork strategy. Ejimaji (2010) sees teamwork as the activities of individual workers an organization brought together in order to achieve the overall goals of the organization. Aboloye (2011), describe teamwork as the process of working in a team in pursuance of group or organizational goals Furthermore, there is also a concern on how the university system has been able to adopt information and communication technology to meet the challenges of this era of globalization, and its ability to ensure effective university administration. The effectiveness of the university system is also hinged on its ability to achieve its goals, and as well as the implementation of its policies and programmes in an efficient and most desirable manner. In this regard effectiveness could be described as the extent to which the university system is able to achieve its objectives within a reasonable time and with a minimum expenditure of money.

Ukeje, Okorie, and Nwagbara in Owhonda (2014), in educational organization, effectiveness refers to the extent to which students are achieving their set goals, staff morale is high and that the students drop out is low. Owhonda (2014), states that effectiveness in public utilities is the extent to which services are rendered promptly and satisfactorily while in business organizations it is the extent to which profit is maximized.

From this point of view, it could be seen that the concept of effectiveness uphold that an organization is effective if the organization is able to meet its set goals. However, these suggest that the variety of meanings attached to the term effectiveness in the various aspects of human endeavours.

Our focus on this paper is the university organization, both the public and private universities in the south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria. Suffice it to state that if members work in teams and by having a shared vision, communicate constructively among themselves and actively participate in university activities, it would certainly be possible to run effective university programme where goals and objectives are achievable.

However, from the foregoing, it is merely assumed that teamwork will work in the university, until it is empirically proven otherwise, this study is therefore, is aimed at determining how the application of teamwork among the members of the university system can enhance the achievement of university effectiveness.

The application of teamwork in organization be it educational organization or business organization is necessary for organizational goal attainment. Many organizations such as construction industry, church organization and other business organization has adopted and implemented teamwork as their work strategy. However, the proponents of teamwork argued that constructive communication, shared vision and participation in decision will lead to organizational effectiveness; while on the contrary, many also argued that teamwork may not be a good strategy for organizational effectiveness particularly the university system. Therefore, the thrust of this paper is whether or not the adoption and application of teamwork in the university organization can result to university effectiveness.

The main purpose of the study is to examine teamwork and university effectiveness in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria with a view to determining how:

- Shared vision among the members of the university can enhance university effectiveness;
- To ascertain how constructive communication among the members of university community could enhance the attainment of university effectiveness; and
- To determine how participation in university activities by members could lead to the attainment of university effectiveness.

Research Questions

The following research questions were asked and answered to guide the study:

- How can shared vision by members of the university system lead to the attainment of university effectiveness in South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria;
- How can constructive communication among members of the university community result to the attainment of university effectiveness in South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria;
- How can participation in university activities by members of university community lead to university effectiveness in South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were postulated to pilot the study:

- There is no significant difference between the lecturers of Public and private universities in their mean opinion on how shared vision by university members can lead to University effectiveness in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria.
- There is no significant difference between the lecturers of Public and private universities in their mean opinion on how constructive communication among the members of the university can lead to university effectiveness in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria.
- There is no significant difference between the lecturers of Public and private universities in their mean opinion on how participation by members of the university can lead to university effectiveness in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria.

Theoretical framework

The theory that propels the searchlight for this study is the system theory. Kerlinger in Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1992) sees theory in a more general term and states that a theory is a set of interrelated constructs (concepts) and propositions that presents a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting phenomena. Okai (2013) sees a theory as an entity that has different parts with an interdependent relationship which work towards a common goal. As a corollary, Orlu-Makele (2013), states that within the past decades, a new and powerful thinking has emerged whose central thesis focuses on the enormously complex interdependences that exist between sets of variables and processes required to identify predicable relationships among these variables in almost every entity in the environment. This has produced a mode of thought that is not only interdisciplinary in nature, but also both conceptually rich and ultimately practical. For instance, the general system notion of an organized whole or system occurring in an environment is fundamental in both the Physical social science. According to Ukeje et al. (1992, p. 103), in a broad outline, proponents of systems theory conceived a system as an entity that is composed of:

- A number of parts;
- The relationship of both these parts; and
- The attributes of both the parts and the relationships

Ukeje et al (1992), thus a system may be defined as an assemblage of a set of constituents or elements in active organized interaction as a bounded entity so as to achieve a common goal of purpose which transcends that of the constituents in isolation. The theory holds that an organization in which the university system is inclusive is an integrated system of interdependent structures and functions. It is an organized system that is constituted of persons, who must know what the others are doing, and each must have a shared vision, participate in the activities of the organization and must know the programmes and policies of the organization through constructive communication, and each must be sufficiently

disciplined to obey and implement the policy of the organization. This is to ensure that goals of the organization are being achieved

METHODS

Research Design

The design for the study was the descriptive survey. The variables that are associated with teamwork are collected, analyzed and explained as they occur. Efforts are made to test, the null hypotheses on some variables of teamwork as they have implication for university effectiveness and their results inferred on the population of the study.

Population

The population of the study was 520 lecturers of universities (both public and private universities in South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria. The participants in the study were lecturer II, Lecturer I, and senior lecturers, associate professors and professors drawn from university of Port Harcourt, Imo state university Owerri, Federal University of Agriculture Umuturu, Madonna University Okija, Igbenedion University, Benin, Edo State, and Novena University Amai, Delta State.

Sample and Sampling Technique

Sample of the study was 208 persons consisting of lecturers drawn from the six universities, (3 public and 3 private universities) thereby making 40 percent of the total population. The technique that was used for this study was a simple random sampling technique. This is to ensure that every participant has the opportunity of being selected.

Instrumentation

The instrument that was used in soliciting responses from the respondents is a questionnaire titled teamwork and university effectiveness scale (TUES), the instrument was divided into two sections (A and B). Section 'A' deals with personal data, section 'B' which was subdivided into other sections elicit information on the variables under investigation, and it was structured on a 4 point Likert scale.

Method of Data Analysis

The responses of the respondents were scored on a 1-4 scale as shown under:

- Strongly Disagree (SD)
- Disagree (D)
- Agree (A)
- Strongly Agree (SA)

For answering the research questions, mean scores, weighted mean scores and aggregate mean scores were used while z- test statistics was used in testing the hypotheses.

RESULTS

Research Question 1: How can shared vision by members of university lead to the achievement of university effectiveness?

Table 4.1 Shared Visions by University Staff (Lecturer)

| Items | Public university | Private university | | | |
|---|-------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|--------|
| | \bar{X}_1 | \bar{X}_2 | $\bar{X}_1 \bar{X}_2$ | Rank | Remark |
| University where staff have a focus on the goals can succeed in achieving the purpose of their existence. | 3.02 | 3.61 | 3.32 | 1 st | Agree |
| University staff who share the same vision are motivated to work for the growth of the university. | 2.72 | 3.23 | 3.11 | 4 th | Agree |
| University staff who have the same focus for university success s are inspired to work harder. | 3.02 | 3.16 | 3.09 | 5 th | Agree |
| University staff who have a strong belief for university objectives and goals can help the administration in achieving the goals of the university. | 2.72 | 3.14 | 2.93 | 7 th | Agree |
| University staff who share the same visions show more commitment in the implementation of university programmes. | 3.02 | 3.22 | 3.12 | 3 rd | Agree |
| University staff who have vision of university programmes can condition their approaches to work for greater productivity. | 3.00 | 3.38 | 3.19 | 2 nd | Agree |
| University staff who share similar thought can see it as their fundamental responsibility to ensure the success of their department. | 3.02 | 3.14 | 3.08 | 6 th | Agree |

(Mean set =3.12)

Table 4.1 examined the ways in which shared vision by academic staff of the university system can enhance or lead to university effectiveness. The table reveals high mean score of 3.61 and 3.02 for both public and private university respectively for university staff that have focus on the goals can succeed in achieving the purpose of their existence. In fact, in terms of university staff who share the same vision are motivated to work for the growth of the university the public university had a mean score of 2.72 while the private university scored 3.23. Both the public and private university scored 3.02 and 3.16 respectively for staff who have the same focus for university success are inspired to work harder. In the area of university staff who have a strong belief for university success can assist the administration in achieving the goals of the university the public university had a mean score of 2.72 while the private university scored a mean of 3.14 . For university where staff who share the same vision show more commitment in the implementation of university program the public university had a mean score of 3.02 while the private university had a mean score of 3.22. For university staff who has the same vision of university programme can condition their approaches to work for greater productivity the public university scored 3.00 while the private university scored 3.38. Similarly, high mean score of 3.02 and 3.14 were recorded for the two categories of universities respectively.

In the light of the foregoing, it could be seen that the means on shared vision by university lecturers for university effectiveness were high; this could be seen in the seven indicators. Therefore, it would be reasonable to conclude that shared vision among university staff can enhance university effectiveness.

Research Question 2:

How can constructive communication among university lecturers enhance the attainment of university effectiveness?

Table 4.2: Constructive communication among university lecturers

| Items | Public university | Private university | | | |
|--|-------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|--------|
| | \bar{X}_1 | \bar{X}_2 | $\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2$ | Rank | Remark |
| Communication among university members makes the interchange of organizational expectation possible | 3.16 | 3.28 | 3.22 | 2 nd | Agree |
| The sharing of information among university members makes it possible for work to be done without expression of surprises | 3.02 | 2.83 | 3.22 | 2 nd | Agree |
| Trustful familiarity which school members gain while working in team is a strong determinant of university success | 3.02 | 2.83 | 3.03 | 3 rd | Agree |
| University members who communicate freely learn the behaviours of other group members of which help to create oneness in the university. | 3.14 | 2.92 | 3.03 | 3 rd | Agree |
| Free flow of information in university work challenge group members to search for better solution to problem | 2.84 | 2.98 | 2.91 | 5 th | Agree |
| Team members who can express their ideas through a variety means can make meaningful contribution to group activities in the university. | 2.98 | 2.83 | 2.91 | 5 th | Agree |
| Flexibility in team communication makes it possible for suggestions for organizational growth in the university. | 1.98 | 3.16 | 2.57 | 6 th | Agree |
| Constructive communication among university members in group keeps them together for higher productivity. | 3.58 | 3.37 | 3.51 | 1 st | Agree |

(Mean set = 4.14)

Table 4.2 used a list of eight activities to examine the ways constructive communication among university lecturers can lead to the achievement of university effectiveness. Communication among university members makes the interchange of organizational expression possible. It was high in public and private university; this could be seen in the mean scores of 3.16 and 3.28 for the two categories of universities respectively. In terms of sharing of information among university members makes it possible for work to be done without expression of surprise, the public university scored 3.02 while the private university scored 2.83. In terms of trustful familiarity which university members gain while working in team is a strong determinant of university success, it would be recalled that both public and private university recorded 3.02 and 2.83 respectively.

Similarly, the public university registered a high mean score of 3.14 while the private university registered a mean score of 2.92 for university members who communicate freely also learn the behavior of other group members which in turn help to create oneness in the university.

On the issue of whether the free flow of information in the University work can challenge group, members to search for better solution, the public university registered a mean score of 2.98 while the private university registered 2.84. In terms of team members who can express their ideas through a variety means can make meaningful contribution to group activities. The public university has a mean score of 2.98 while the private university has a mean score of 2.83. However, in terms of flexibility in teams communication, public university has a low mean score of 1.98 while the private university had a high mean score of 3.16. In the last indicator both public and private university had high mean scores of 3.58 and 3.37 respectively.

Therefore, considering the magnitude of the high mean scores in the table it is also reasonable to conclude that constructive communication among university members can also enhance university effectiveness. In this regard, the answer to research question 2 is that constructive communication by university members can lead to the achievement of university effectiveness.

Research Question 3: In what ways can participation in university activities by members of university community lead to university effectiveness?

Table 4.5: Participation among university members for university effectiveness

| Items | University | University | | | |
|--|-------------|-------------|-----------------------|------------------|----------|
| | \bar{X}_1 | \bar{X}_2 | $\bar{X}_1 \bar{X}_2$ | Rank | Remark |
| University members who take part in group activities contribute to the making of educational development | 3.00 | 3.61 | 3.31 | 6 th | Agree |
| Department members that allow all members to contribute to the making of departmental decisions can achieve most of their set targets. | 3.30 | 3.30 | 3.30 | 7 th | Agree |
| Departmental goals are easily achieved where departmental members are allowed active participation in departmental affairs | 2.70 | 3.60 | 3.15 | 9 th | Agree |
| Universities whose activities are not focused on few members are known for the achievement of their targeted goals. | 3.72 | 3.22 | 3.47 | 4 th | Agree |
| Departmental members who are allowed active participation in group activities focus their attention on the achievement of the goals of the department. | 3.46 | 2.99 | 3.23 | 8 th | Agree |
| Department members who actively participate in the activities of the department activities can identify obvious group distractions that help them to work and contain the distraction. | 3.85 | 3.30 | 3.61 | 1 st | Agree |
| General participation of departmental members in the affairs of the departmental provides comic relief to members when they get board. | 3.42 | 3.62 | 3.52 | 2 nd | Agree |
| Department members who establish meaningful relationship with themselves and jointly work to ensure effective implementation of universities programme. | 3.71 | 3.30 | 3.51 | 3 rd | Agree |
| Active involvement in departmental programmes of action helps university members to judiciously utilize their talents to achieve departmental goals. | 3.12 | 3.01 | 3.07 | 10 th | Agree |
| Work teams that allow general participation by group members tap from their knowledge of administrative theories that help in running effective university. | 2.68 | 2.30 | 2.49 | 11 th | Disagree |
| General participation by all members of the department work group help in sharing skills that assist in the effective conduct of the university activities. | 3.58 | 3.24 | 3.41 | 5 th | Agree |

(Mean set =3.27)

Table 4.3 examined the ways in which participation in University activities can enhance university effectiveness. The table reveals that both public and private university had a high mean occurrence in all the eleven indicators. In this regard, it would be recalled that the public university has a mean score of 3.00 and the private university scored 3.61 that members who take part in group activities will in turn contribute to make educational decision. In another indicator such as educational groups that allow all members to contribute to the make education decision can achieve most of their set targets, the public university recorded a mean score of 3.30 while the private university also had a mean score of 3.30. In terms of university goal that are easily achieved where organizational members who are allowed active participation in organizational affairs, the public university had a mean score of 2.70 while the private university has 3.60. In terms of organization whose activities are not focused on few members are known for the achievement of their target goals, the public university recorded a mean score of 3.72 while the private university scored 3.22. Similarly, in another group of indicators, such as school members who are allowed active participation in group activities focus their attention on the achievement of the goals of the university the public university scored 3.46 while the private university scored 3.22. Furthermore the from the data analysis, departmental members who actively participate in university activities can identify obvious group distraction that help them to work and contain the distractions, both public and private university recorded 3.85, and 3.30 respectively. The table further reveals that the public university recorded a mean score of 3.42 while the private university scored 3.62 in the area of general participation of university member in the affairs of university can provide comic relief to members when they get bored. In terms of university members who establish meaningful relationship with themselves and jointly

work to ensure effective implementation of university programmes the public university has a mean score of 3.71 while the private university has a mean score of 3.30. Both public and private university recorded a mean score of 3.12 and 3.01 respectively in the area of active involvement in university programmes for action and it helps university members to judiciously utilize their talents to achieve university goals.

Similarly, high mean score of 2.68 for public university and a low mean score of 2.30 was recorded for private university for work team that allow general participation by group members to tap from their knowledge of administrative theories that help in running the university effectively. However, both type of university recorded a high mean score of 3.58 and 3.24 respectively for general participation by all members of university workgroup that help in sharing skills that assist in the effective conduct of their university activities.

From the foregoing examination of table 4.3 the answers to research question 3 is that participation in university activities among university members contribute to the achievement of university effectiveness. Furthermore, university whose members actively participate in university activities can quickly identify some obvious group distractions that can actually help them work and contain the distraction.

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference between the mean ratings of public and private university on how shared vision by members of the university can lead to the achievement of university effectiveness.

Table 4.4: Test of Difference between public and private university on how shared vision by members of the university can enhance university effectiveness

| Variables | N | X | STD Deviation | Df | Z-Cal | Z-tab | Remark |
|----------------------|-----|--------|---------------|-----|-------|-------|-------------|
| Public Universities | 118 | 28.899 | 4.793 | 206 | 2.735 | 1.96 | Significant |
| Private Universities | 90 | 27.504 | 3.112 | | | | |

A critical look at table 4.4 shows that the respondents of public universities had a mean score of 28.899 and a standard deviation of 4.793 while the respondents of private universities had a mean score of 27.504 and a standard deviation of 3.112. At the degree of freedom of 206, the z- calculated value was 2.735 while the z- table value was 1.96; since the z- calculated value of 2.735 was greater than the table value of 1.96, the null hypothesis was rejected and the alternate hypothesis was accepted. As a result the implication is that there is a significant difference between the mean rating of the public and private universities on how shared vision by members of the universities can enhance universities effectiveness.

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference between the mean ratings of public and private universities on how participation in university activities can enhance the attainment of university effectiveness in south-south geo-political zone of Nigeria.

Table 4.5: Test of difference between public and private University on how participation in university activities can enhance university effectiveness

| Variables | N | X | STD Deviation | Df | Z-Cal. | Z-tab. | Remark |
|----------------------|-----|-------|---------------|-----|--------|--------|-------------|
| Public Universities | 118 | 22.37 | 2.713 | 206 | 2.524 | 1.96 | Significant |
| Private Universities | 90 | 21.11 | 2.121 | | | | |

Table 4.5: Shows the mean ratings of public universities of 22.37 and 21.11 for private universities of 206, the Z-calculated value which is 2.524 is greater than the Z-table value of 1.96 hence the null hypothesis is rejected. As a result, the implication is that a significant difference exists between the public and private universities on how participation in University activities can enhance university effectiveness.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference between the mean ratings of lecturers of public and private universities on how constructive communication can enhance the attainment of university effectiveness in south-South geo-political zone of Nigeria.

Table 4.6: Test of difference between public and private university on how constructive communication among the members of the university can enhance the attainment of university effectiveness

| Variables | N | \bar{X} | STD Deviation | Df. | Z-Cal. | Z-tab. | Remark |
|----------------------|-----|-----------|---------------|-----|--------|--------|-------------|
| Public Universities | 118 | 27.231 | 89.227 | 206 | 2.719 | 1.96 | Significant |
| Private Universities | 90 | 25.172 | 69.729 | | | | |

Table 4.6 shows the mean ratings of public universities and that of private universities. A critical look at the table shows the mean ratings of public universities of 27.231 and 25.172 for private university. The Z-calculated value which is 2.719 is greater than the Z- table value of 1.96; hence the null hypothesis is rejected. As a result, the implication is that a significant difference exists between public and private university on how constructive communication by members of the university can enhance the attainment of university effectiveness.

Summary of Findings

Based on the foregoing analysis of data interpretation, the findings of the study are summarized:

- University where members have focus on the goals can succeed in achieving the purpose of their existence.
- University staff that have strong belief for university objectives and goals can help the administration in achieving the goals of the university.
- University staff who share similar thoughts can see it as their fundamental responsibility to ensure the success of their department.
- Communication among university members makes the interchange of organizational expectation possible.
- Free flow of information on university work challenge group members to search for better solution to problem.
- Team members who can express their ideas through a variety means can make meaningful contribution to group activities in the university.
- Departmental members that allowed to contribute to the making of departmental decisions can achieve most of their set targets.
- Departmental goals are easily achieved where departmental members are allowed active participation in departmental affairs.
- General participation by all members of the department work group help in sharing skills that assist in the effective conduct of the university activities.
- Active involvement in department programme of activities help university members to judiciously utilize their talents to achieve departmental goals.
- Departmental members who establish meaningful relationship with themselves, and jointly work to ensure effective implementation of university programme contribute to school goal attainment.
- There is a significant difference between the mean ratings of the lecturers of public and private universities on how shared vision by group members can enhance university effectiveness in South-South geo-political zone of Nigeria.
- Significant difference exist between the public and private universities lecturers on how participation in university activities can enhance university effectiveness.

- Significant differences exist between the public and private university lecturers on how constructive communication by members of the university can enhance university effectiveness.

Recommendations

- The university should make more efforts to encourage teamwork in the university, the university management should make more efforts to encourage teamwork by organizing regular workshops on teamwork; this is to ensure that members appreciate the benefits of teamwork.
- There should be free flow of information in the university especially among the team members, this is to ensure that they have access to information, and in turn they will contribute meaningfully to the university activities.

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Boko Haram: Nigeria’s Invincible Enemy

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Abstract

Boko Haram is identified as famous Nigeria’s insurgent group that emerged in the first decade of the 21st century. The group’s deadly attacks affect the general public including the civilians and the security forces. This causes distress especially in the northern part of the country. The aim of the write up is to elucidate the insurgent activities vis-à-vis security/insecurity of the nation. Using the content analysis of the available literature, it has been observed that the group gains momentum and strengthens its territorial dominance. And, this situation exposes the security system as weak and unreliable. Some of the factors associated with the whole scenario include among other things; law enforcement corruption, proliferation of unemployment/poverty within the teeming populace and poor/inadequate modern crime fighting tools for the security agencies. Unless and if the stakeholders and Nigerian communities join hands in fighting the enemy, it will continue to be invincible. This as security experts believe will cause nothing but a total collapse of the national system.

Keywords: Boko Haram, civilian populace, invincible enemy, Nigerian government, security/insecurity.

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“Until recently, the greatest course of anxiety in terms of personal security is violent crime. Today, bombing of targets in occupied public buildings or in the open areas where people congregate has become the greatest anxiety of personal security for almost all Nigerians and non-Nigerians living in Nigeria”(Obasanjo, 2012).

“It is my belief that Nigeria's security challenges both in content and context are purely internal and remedies could therefore be found through domestic efforts. In other words, the reference point should be on how to improve on the major basic areas of grievances ranging from the provision of basic essential needs of the people, improved infrastructures and good governance in general,”(Muhammad, 2013).

“Bad governance has been responsible for the security challenges bedevilling the country. So many things are still going wrong because the leaders in the country have refused to allow things to work properly. The security challenges facing the country wouldn't have degenerated into the present situation if those in power did what were expected of them” (Abubakar, 2013).

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INTRODUCTION

Boko Haram as the name implies is a combination of two words from *Hausa* and *Arabic* languages. It signifies that western education that came to Nigeria through colonial domination is forbidden. According to the sect's ideology, the nation shall be Islamized as the current system is contaminated. To achieve this goal, revolution must be on the move. Therefore, the group embark on insurgent activities as the only alternative to make its ambition realistic. This in a more stylish form accelerates the strength of the sect in an ever unexpected fashion. Consequently, the advent of these insurgent activities had caused and is still causing a great loss to the economy and social setting of the Nigerian polity (Achumba, Ighomereho, & Akpor-Robaro, 2013). Some researches carried out have identified unemployment among the teeming youth, illiteracy and poverty as responsible factors for insurgents' movements (Azahalu, Akwara, John, Morufu & Joseph 2013). Others, as scholars argue include; law enforcement corruption and inadequacies vis-à-vis police personnel and policing strategies (Idris, 2013; Smith, 2007). Gofwen (2004) argued that, violence such as ethno religious affect the nation building process. Recent studies indicate that criminal gangs' members are largely the youth born out of unemployment/poverty disasters (Akande & Okuwa, 2009).

Affirming the argument, members of the insurgent group are found within the tender youth ages. This gives the insurgents more confidence and power spirit in the context of their struggle. Along this line, the group gains momentum to superseding government's strength (Eme & Ibietan, 2012). More evidently, the year 2014 witnessed a territorial secession by *Boko Haram* sect in three northeast states. This is a failure to Nigeria's government and success to insurgency (www.hrw.org/news/2014/07/15/nigeria; www.un.org/en). The paper looks at these in the context of *Boko Haram* emergence, activities and effects. This is done in the nexus of national security. The three quotations above from three eminent Nigerians tell a lot about the current precarious condition in the country.

OBJECTIVE OF THE PAPER

The major objective of the article is to find out the reasons behind the emergence of *Boko Haram* and the effect of the group's activities on the Nigerian polity. It is aimed at finding out, the sect emergence, growth, strength, impact and territorial dominance.

METHODS

This paper is based purely on literature review. It is conceptual by type. Scholarly articles from different scholars and experts were used to generate academic discussions in understanding the subject. Analysis is being made to relate some responsible factors with the current insecurity situation brought by insurgent activities. The articles consulted consist of those written by scholars in Nigeria and those outside the country.

STRUCTURE OF DISCUSSIONS

The analysis is divided into sections: The emergence of *Boko Haram*, the sect activities and effects in Nigeria, government and the public welfare, security system versus *Boko Haram* in Nigeria, Terrorism in the global context. Lastly, conclusion is drawn on the basis of the discussion made.

THE EMERGENCE OF BOKO HARAM

Founded by Late Mohammed Yusuf in 2002, Jama'atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda'awati Wal-Jihad alias *Boko Haram* sect emerged in northeast of Nigeria (Cook in Eme & Ibietan, 2012). As an Islamist movement, it strongly opposes man-made laws. The organisation seeks to abolish the secular system of government and establish Sharia Law in the country. Its name in the popular Nigeria's *Hausa* language literally translates as '*Western education is forbidden*'. The group first gained international recognition following its eruption in 2009. It propagates that not only interaction with the Western World life style is forbidden, but it is also against the Muslim establishment and the government of Nigeria (Bartolotta, 2011). Today,

the sect is responsible for thousands of killings in the country (Eme et al., 2012, p. 47). It is which Baiyewu (2012, p. 9) called something like “Bermuda Triangle,”

THE SECT ACTIVITIES AND EFFECTS IN NIGERIA

Since its outburst with security forces in 2009, *Boko Haram* has created widespread insecurity across northern Nigeria. The group increased tensions between various ethnic communities, interrupted development activities and frightened off investors. Its members have been responsible for nearly daily attacks in the northern states (Eme et al., 2012, p. 45). These combats claimed a lot of damages to the general polity. And, below is a summary of losses incurred from 2009-2012.

Table 1: Summary of the attacks by the sect and the losses incurred

| Year | State(s) Affected | Number of Attacks | Casualties | | |
|-------|---|-------------------|------------|---------|---------------|
| | | | Killed | Injured | Destructions |
| 2009 | Yobe | 1 | 4 | - | |
| 2010 | Plateau, Abuja | 5 | 330 | Many | - |
| 2011 | Borno, Kaduna, Yobe, Niger, Bauchi, Abuja, Zaria, Katsina, Plateau, Adamawa | 23 | 373 | 101 | Many vehicles |
| 2012 | Adamawa, Kano, Kaduna, Kogi | 7 | 361 | 80 | - |
| Total | 12 | 36 | 1,068 | 181 | Many |

Source: Adapted from (Achumba, Ighomereho & Akpor-Robaro, 2013)

In the first three years (2009-2012) the statistics show that there were no attacks in the seven states of the north. These are, Kwara, Benue, Zamfara, Gombe, Taraba, Sokoto and Kebbi. Those affected were twelve, although the seven are being affected by the recent sectarian violence. However, recent statistics released by the human rights watch indicated that an estimate of two thousand and fifty three (2053) people were killed by *Boko Haram* in over ninety five (95) times attacks in more than seventy (70) towns/villages in the first six months of 2014. Similarly, United Nations reported more than six hundred and fifty thousand (650,000) inhabitants were displaced within the same period. And, two hundred and thirty four (234) secondary school female students were abducted by the same insurgent group (www.un.org/en).

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In economic terms, the effects are a systemic distortion of existing economic patterns and structure in the Northern region. In another report by the Human Rights Watch (HRW), the region lost more than 935 of its human capital between 2009 and 2012. In terms of finance and investment, though direct and indirect loses are unquantifiable, a World Investment Report (WIR) of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), estimated that the domestic economy lost a whopping ₦ 1.33 trillion Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), owing to the activities of insurgents going by the name ‘*Boko Haram*’. And, these conditions create fears making investment chances for investors narrow (Suleimanin Eme & Ibietan, 2012). Analysts argued that the Nigerian transportation/aviation industry that makes ₦ 3 billion every day is being reduced to half due to *Boko Haram* insurgency. UNCTAD report indicates that, FDI flows to Nigeria fell to \$6.1 billion (₦ 933.3 billion) in 2010, a decline of about 29 per cent from the \$8.65 billion (₦1.33 trillion) realized in 2009 fiscal year. Also, statistics obtained from the 2010 annual report by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) showed that the total foreign capital inflow into the Nigerian economy in 2010 was \$5.99 billion. The record showed that FDI represented about 78.1 per cent drop from \$3.31 billion in 2009 (Okereocha in Eme & Ibietan, 2012).

GOVERNMENT AND THE PUBLIC WELFARE

It is apparent that there is a poor public welfare in the country. In general, a lot of under privileges suffer from the vicious cycle of poverty consequent upon the inherent factors of the collapse of the rule of law, unemployment, and corruption. By way of evaluation, the study of Obadan and Odusola (2001) indicated that, unemployment in Nigeria became more acute since 1980s, and this trend has been on increase ever since. Okafor (2011) added that it carries some negative consequences encouraging criminal behaviour.

Few among these effects include the emergence of street youths and urban urchins (“area boys”). However, the 2010 Nigeria’s population estimate was 160,000,000. During this era, an average of only 50,200,000 (31%) were employed. The other 109,800,000 (69%) were either unemployed or lack job satisfaction (NBS, 2010). Fifteen percent (15%) of the nation’s work force was unemployed in 2008 while the figure rose to 20% in 2011 (CBN, 2013). Additionally, 40% to 60% of unemployed Nigerians were aged between 15-25 years (Akande & Okuwa, 2009). Incidentally, the paraded members of criminal groups fall within these stipulated ages observed (Azahalu, Akwara, John, Morufu, & Joseph, 2013).

Although underdevelopment is a common phenomenon in Nigeria, the northern case is the most precarious. A UN based study captured by Eme and Ibieta (2012) shows that poverty in the most northern states is nearly twice that of the rest of the country. The health indicators reflect this. Educational standards are just as bad. Literacy in the far north is 35 percent as opposed to 77 percent in the rest of the country. Seventy-seven percent of women in the far north have no formal education, compared to only 17 percent in the rest of the country. Generally, the factors narrated in the context of national security which government fail to manage are possible reasons behind *Boko Haram* insurgency.

SECURITY SYSTEM VERSUS BOKO HARAM IN NIGERIA

A burden that largely lies in police hands could be better understood by looking at the meaning of police and policing in the context of modernity. Alemika (2009, p. 483) defined policing traditionally ‘as the diverse mechanisms or measures (consciously) employed by the community to enforce its values, norms, and rules through protective devices (target hardening), surveillance, detection, and apprehension of suspects’. Similarly, police are law enforcing agents whose main function is to provide security and maintain law and order in the societies, states and nations (Ahmad et al., 2013, p. 72). It was argued that ‘police are agencies of the state employed to maintain the social order (Chukwuma, 2005, p. 2).

Law enforcement agencies within the Nigerian context as argued by Alemika and Chukwuma (2003) include other Para military such as NDLEA, Customs and concise, FRSC, Civil Defence, Immigration, SSS etc. The common obligation of these agencies is to protect lives, properties vis-à-vis security maintenance. At this point, both police and the military are a connecting bond in the war against *Boko Haram* to maintain the internal security in the country. Meanwhile, quality must be put in place for the agency to be effective and serve the purpose for which it has been established (Nilson & Oliver, 2006; Alemika & Chukwuma, 2003). Williams and Williams (2007) in another context argued that availability of modern devices to law enforcement police agencies play a vital role in the management of nation’s security. Some of these devices include; patrol cars and laptop computers (Mobile Computer) which all make homeland security effective.

Ironically, the situation in the country shows that *Boko Haram* gains momentum because the weapons used by the sect members are more sophisticated than those of the Nigerian security forces. Consequently, the middle of 2014 witnessed an invasion of more than ten towns in the northeast states of Adamawa, Borno and Yobe by the group (www.hrw.org/news/2014/07/15/nigeria). Alemika and Chukwuma (2003) observed that, the problems of inhuman condition of police cells, poor working gadgets (that include; communication devices and transportation vehicles) and un-hygienic working environment are few among many things that disturb the security sector in Nigeria. Other obstacles are; low commitment to duty from the officers, indiscipline, police criminal connivance, poor police-public relations, poor knowledge of law, lack of integrity and a total disregard of human rights (Le, 2008). Okunola and Ojo (2012) added that, problems of resources management inadequacies is another impediment. The sector is full of sentiments, selfishness and corruption which scholars such as Smith (2007) opined to be more common phenomenon in Nigeria. Ladapo (2012) maintained that the outstanding obstacle is inadequate funding.

Aremu, Pakes and Johnstone (2011) further explained factors responsible for promoting corruption among law enforcement agencies. They include; the security system itself, poor remuneration, poverty, recruitment procedures and organisational climate. Incidentally, Holmes (2012) relates corruption to lack

of commitment of some government's policies. Memoli and Pellagata (2014) see the effect as being systemic in the current global era. Studies continue to show that corruption in the Nigerian security sector has diminished its capacity to maintain effective law and order (Okiro, 2007). Idris (2013) concluded that there exists a perfect correlation between corruption and insecurity in Nigeria. The institutional controls become weak and ineffective to deter evil. This testifies the Merton's (1968) anomie theoretical postulation where relative sense of normlessness exists in society. Individuals are stereotyped into conformists, innovatists, ritualists, retreatists and rebellions. In this regard, corruption engulfs security sector in Nigeria as the security managers accept the cultural goal (+) and reject the institutional means (-). Empirical evidences from transparency international (TI) and Mo Ibrahim foundation confirmed corruption/insecurity nexus in the country (Idris, 2013).

Table 2: Transparency and Corruption Ranking of Nigeria (2001-2010).

| Year | CPI | Transparency (%) | No. Of Countries Covered | Ranking | Corruption (%) | Ranking |
|------|-----|------------------|--------------------------|---------|----------------|---------|
| 2001 | 1.0 | 10 | 91 | 90 | 90 | 2 |
| 2002 | 1.6 | 16 | 102 | 101 | 84 | 2 |
| 2003 | 1.4 | 14 | 133 | 132 | 86 | 2 |
| 2004 | 1.6 | 16 | 145 | 144 | 84 | 2 |
| 2005 | 1.9 | 19 | 158 | 152 | 81 | 6 |
| 2006 | 2.2 | 22 | 163 | 142 | 78 | 21 |
| 2007 | 2.2 | 22 | 179 | 147 | 78 | 32 |
| 2008 | 2.7 | 27 | 180 | 121 | 73 | 59 |
| 2009 | 2.5 | 25 | 180 | 130 | 75 | 50 |
| 2010 | 2.4 | 24 | 178 | 134 | 76 | 44 |

Source: Adapted from Idris (2013).

From the table above, Nigeria recorded poor results in terms of transparency considering the corresponding CPI grade in the ten year period. The country achieved the highest transparency score of 27 only in 2008. The transparency % score is seen as bi-modal having common scores of 16 and 22 with each appearing twice in the years of 2002, 2004, 2006 and 2007 respectively. Similarly, the average % of corruption across ten year period is 80.5% which is very high and retrogresses instead. However, the average corruption ranking is 22. It still sounds discouraging taking into cognisance the highest number of countries covered upon which the analysis is made. That is, a maximum of 180 countries each in the years 2008 and 2009. Generally, Nigeria's corruption is worse.

Table 3: Security and Insecurity Ranking of Nigeria (2001-2010).

| Year | Score on Security (%) | Security Ranking | Score on Insecurity (%) | Insecurity Ranking |
|------|-----------------------|------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|
| 2001 | 43 | 43 | 57 | 10 |
| 2002 | 42 | 43 | 58 | 10 |
| 2003 | 42 | 43 | 58 | 10 |
| 2004 | 41 | 45 | 59 | 8 |
| 2005 | 43 | 43 | 57 | 10 |
| 2006 | 42 | 44 | 58 | 9 |
| 2007 | 44 | 43 | 56 | 10 |
| 2008 | 47 | 36 | 53 | 17 |
| 2009 | 44 | - | 56 | - |
| 2010 | 46 | 36 | 54 | 17 |

Source: Adapted from Idris (2013).

It could be inferred that, the highest score of security in Nigeria was recorded in 2008 with 47%. Unfortunately, it dropped to 44% and 46% in the years of 2009 and 2010. The distribution of percentage score is uni-modal, recording a common value of 42% in the years of 2002, 2003, and 2006. The highest security ranking was 45, only in the year 2004. In terms of insecurity, the country achieved the least 8th

position only in 2004. The ranking across ten year period in this regard is also uni-modal as the nation had a common position of tenth in the years 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005 and 2007. This could be augmented by the country's current global security position of 148th as against the 146th in 2012 (GPI, 2013). This is far worse than before. And, the least said the better. Although the country is more secured ahead of Iraq (159th), Syria (160th), Somalia (161st) and Afghanistan (162nd).

TERRORISM IN THE GLOBAL CONTEXT

It became globally and popularly known violent crime after the saga of September 11th 2001. Experts believed that terrorism generally involves the illegal use of force against innocent people to achieve a political objective. According to US State Department, the term terrorism means premeditated, politically motivated violence, perpetrated against non-combatant targets by subnational groups or clandestine agents, usually intended to influence an audience. The term international terrorism means terrorism involving citizens or the territory of more than one country.

A terrorist group is any group practicing, or that has significant subgroups that practice international terrorism (US code, 1999). Usually, it involves a type of political crime that emphasizes violence as a mechanism to promote change. Terrorists systematically murder and destroy or threaten such violence to terrorize individuals, groups, communities or governments into conceding to the terrorists' political demands (Wilkinson, 1977, p. 49). This act is distinguished from conventional warfare, because it requires secrecy and clandestine operations to exert social control over large populations (Gibbs, 1989). Looking at these explanations, it can be understood that, Boko Haram insurgency, although a localised terrorism has impacted greatly on the national economy of Nigeria. However, the security dilemma brought by the group gains momentum within the African continent. The effect of Boko Haram goes beyond Nigeria, but other countries such as Niger, Cameroun, Chad and Mali.

CONCLUSION

The major objective of the paper is to elucidate the strength of *Boko Haram* sect and analyse the insurgent activities to see how it affects the socio-economic wellbeing of the country. However, its emergence and subsequent activities cause severe havoc to the peace and progress of the Nigerian state. The genesis of this security dilemma shall be traced to the overwhelming factors such as poor governance, unemployment and poverty hunting the northern part of the country. Other relevant issues are law enforcement corruption and illiteracy among the teeming populace. Also, inadequacies in police agency vis-à-vis personnel and tools that could not cater with the rising security challenges stand to be another factor. Available evidences from different scholarly views indicated that there is a correlation between these factors and the *Boko Haram* emergence. Similarly, it can be inferred that a lot of damages have been in course since 2002 (when the group's campaign started) to date. Although the major strides came up in July 2009 during which the founder (Late Yusuf) was killed, *Boko Haram* insurgency still seems impeccable. Nonetheless, the Nigerian security system have been indolent in facing these challenges. A saga that had today gained popularity not only among Nigerians, but the international community. Meanwhile, the speed at which the group accelerates and overtakes Nigeria's territories, entails nothing but an element of secession. The first of its kind after the end of civil war in 1970. Also, with the kind of weapons and war strategies the group adopts, it will be very difficult if not impossible for the authorities to overcome the insurgency. This is because *Boko Haram* can evidently be portrayed as indestructible, invisible and invincible enemy. However, to succeed in managing the insecurity bedeviling the nation or a total eradication of the sect, the following measures need to be put in place.

1. Public welfare shall be improved in the rural areas of the country especially in the north.
1. Unemployment must be tackled with an upper hand.
2. Poverty eradication strategies shall be introduced to touch the life of the common man.
3. Corruption especially among the law enforcement agencies must stop.
4. Rule of law must be restored.
5. Trainings, additional personnel and weapons shall be supplied to Law Enforcement Agencies.

6. Transparency and accountability must be the engines of government at local, state and national levels.

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