International Financial Reporting Standards: The Challenges of Definition of Adoption and Implementation

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Abstract
This study examines the International Financial Reporting Standards adoption practices around the world and the ways these standards are reflected in the financial statements of companies in different countries. It also examines the incentives/motivations for the variations in the type of International Reporting Standards adopted by various countries and the meaning they attached to the term ‘IFRS adoption’. To this end, extant literature on International Financial Reporting Standards was reviewed. Findings indicate that IFRS adoption officially means the undilated application of all International Financial Reporting Standards as issued by the International Accounting Standards Board without any deviation but that many countries have not adhered to this meaning. The study recommends that the International Financial Accounting Reporting Standards Foundation should carry out post implementation surveys and publish on a regular basis, a ranking of countries according to their International Financial Accounting Reporting Standards compliance status. The study also recommends that a global IFRS certification body be established to act as the umbrella body of corporations that are complying with International Financial Accounting Reporting Standards.

Keywords: International Financial Reporting Standards, Adoption, Convergence, Comparability, Implementation, National Standards

Introduction
International Financial Accounting Reporting Standards (IFRS) are accounting standards issued by the International Accounting Standard Board (IASB), an independent organization based in London, UK. The IASB was formally known as the International Accounting Standards Committee (IASC) which was established in 1973 by professional accountancy bodies from Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Japan, Mexico, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Ireland, and the United States of America. As at 2000, the IASC’s standards were known as “International Accounting Standards” (IAS). In 1997, and after nearly 25 years of its existence, the IASC realized that its standards were not being followed worldwide and that various countries were still using their own GAAPs. Simply stated, the IASC discovered that it was serving little or no purpose as far as application of international financial accounting standards were concerned. It therefore came to the conclusion that to effectively perform its role, there was need for a convergence between national accounting standards and practices and high-quality global accounting standards. To achieve this objective, the IASC formed a Strategy Working Party in 1997 which made final recommendations in November 1999. The proposals were approved by the IASC Board in December 1999, and the IASC member bodies did the same in May 2000. This resulted in the new standards-setting body named the ‘International Accounting Standards Board (IASB)’. The IASB calls its rules under the new label “International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS)”. However, it continues to recognize the previous (IAS) issued by the old IASC.

The business community has recognized that accounting is “the language of business” and that financial information is a form of language. For financial information to be useful, it

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should not only be intelligible, but also be comparable. This enables investment and credit decisions to be taken more readily. The accounting profession has been facing the pressure of globalization and has continuously been seeking ways to present financial situations to make them understandable by the entire business community. According to Anderson (1993), a set of international accounting standards will enable comparative analysis of the rates of returns established based on the balance sheets and profit and loss account between companies in competition. Comparison can be achieved only if the accounting system is unique for all the companies involved in the analysis. According to Nobes and Parker (1991), harmonization accounting is necessary because national standards of financial statements are virtually useless; financial markets in more regulated countries are faced with a loss of market share; and multinational corporations are required to submit reports for different nations they do business in. Thus IFRS are to provide high quality accounting standards across nations that would ensure international comparison of financial statements.

One of the thorny issues on the implementation of international accounting standards has been the approach to adoption. In today’s lexicon on IFRS, you hear of “convergence”, “adoption”, and so on. In other words, there seems to be some confusion on what is taking place around the world on IFRS. According to Wong (2004), the question “to what degree do you consider that the international standards have been adopted in your country?”, gave rise to varied responses because there was no universally accepted definition of adoption. Participants referred to “adoption”, “transformation, convergence”, “harmonization” and so on without clearly defining what those terms meant”. According to him without a universally accepted definition of “adoption”, it is difficult to measure progress towards international harmonisation.

Statement of the problem
The IFRS were developed to, among other things; enhance international comparison of corporate financial statements. This is contingent on the uniform adoption and implementation of the standards by various countries. From experience so far various approaches are being used by different countries to adopt IFRS. This has created confusion as to what is actually happening and has therefore raised the following questions: (i) Is it necessary to have a single set of accounting standards all over the world?; (ii) What is the meaning of IFRS adoption?; (iii) Are the various approaches to IFRS adoption in consonance with true meaning of IFRS? (iv) Do the financial reports accurately reflect the type of IFRS ‘adopted’ by the various jurisdictions? v) What are the challenges of a proper IFRS adoption by different jurisdictions? (vi) How can the proper IFRS adoption be realized?

Scope and delimitation
The study is on IFRS adoption: A challenge of definition and implementation. The study will examine adoption of IFRS at the level of the national regulators / standard setters. It does not go into the application of IFRS by companies as adopted by their respective nations. The study also does not explore IFRS on a standard by standard basis, but rather look at IFRS as a whole.

Disposition
This study begins with an introductory section which describes the background to the emergence of the IASB and the IFRS and the inconsistency in the application of the IFRS. It thereafter states the research question. Section 2 deals with the methodology adopted for the study. Section 3 reviews the existing literature dwelling on the need for IFRS, the true meaning of IFRS adoption, the approaches to IFRS adoption around the world and the disclosures in financial statements. It also examines the motivation / incentives for the difference in the various IFRS adopted by
different countries. Section 4 summaries the findings of the study while section 5 discusses the findings. The study ends with the conclusion in section 6 and recommendations for better IFRS adoption and implementation in section 7.

Methodology
The choice of Methods depends primarily on the subject and the purpose of a study (Merriam, 1994). This study is qualitative in nature and do not use any quantitative tool to analyze the data. It is conducted on the basis of literature survey and secondary information. Various journals, newspapers and magazine articles are referred to in writing the paper.

Literature Review
This section discusses the relevant issues relating to the adoption and application of IFRS and the challenges of delineating the real meaning of IFRS adoption. It starts by establishing the need for having IFRS as a single set of global accounting standards and then examines IFRS adoption approaches around the world. After that it looks at IFRS adoption and disclosures in financial statements. Subsequently, the literature review examines the distinction between adoption and convergence before finally looking at the challenges of IFRS adoption.

Need for a single set of global financial accounting standards
According to Ball (1995), the basic economic function of accounting standards is to provide a guide on how commercial transactions are to be implemented. The two issues here are the importance of having high quality financial accounting standards and whether IFRS satisfy the requirements of high quality global accounting standards. According to Bhatatachargee and Islam (2009), ensuring disclosure quality of financial information is mandatory for reducing information asymmetry and solving agency problem in the corporate sector. It has been revealed in the existing literatures that there is a considerable improvements in accounting quality following IFRS adoption (Barth et al., 2006; Barth et al., 2008; Gassen & Sellhorn, 2006; Hung & Subramanyam, 2007).

Gordon (2008) listed the benefits from adoption of IFRS over the world as : (i) Better financial information for shareholders; (ii) better financial information for regulators; (iii) enhanced comparability; (iv) improved transparency of results; (v) increased ability to secure cross-border listing; (vi) better management of global operations; and (vii) increased cost of capital.

Barth, Landsman and Lang (2006; 2008) find that firms that voluntarily adopted IFRS up to 2003 show lower levels of earnings management and more timely loss recognition than a corresponding sample of firms using local GAAP. Also, Daske et al. (2007) find that on average, capital markets respond modestly to voluntary IFRS reporting. In general, the evidence on the association between voluntary IFRS adoption and accounting quality is mixed. However, more recent studies find comparatively better accounting quality among the firms that adopt IFRS (Christensen et al., 2008).

Some researchers argue that high quality accounting standards make reported earnings more accurate and less noisy, and therefore more value relevant. (Ashbaugh & Pincus ; 2001; Hope ,2003; Armstrong et al., 2007; Covrig, Defond, & Hung, 2007). This would make earnings easier to forecast and would improve average analyst forecast accuracy. However, some researchers (e.g. Kothari & Robin ,2000 and Ball, Robin & Wu ,2003) think oppositely. They are of the opinion that managers with low-quality reporting are able to meet a variety of objectives through earnings management, such as a reduction in the volatility of their own compensation, reducing the volatility of payouts to other stakeholders (like employee bonuses and dividends), a reduction in corporate taxes, and avoidance of recognition of loss recognitions..
The Chief Executive Officer of the Nigerian Accounting Standards Board NASB, Jim Osayande Obazee, has stated that the passage of the Financial Reporting Council Bill will pave way for IFRS adoption will put Nigeria on the path to adopting the best to regulation of financial reporting (Obazee, 2011). According to him, with the passage of the bill, and subsequent implementation of IFRS, Nigerian accounting graduates from tertiary institutions will become internationally acceptable and employable since the passage of the bill has a direct link with the adoption of the of International Financial Reporting Standard (IFRS).

Approaches to IFRS adoption around the world

Having established the need for a single set of high quality financial accounting standards all over the world and the fact that most countries have entered into a Memorandum of Understanding with the IASB to implement IFRS, we now examine the approaches to the adoption around the world. We will proceed to group the practices into compartments to see how these countries incorporate IFRS into their reporting systems. The Securities and Exchange Commission (2010) shows that jurisdictions have incorporated or intend to incorporate IFRS into their reporting requirements for listed companies by either: (1) full use of IFRS as issued by the IASB or (2) use of IFRS after some form of national or multinational incorporation process. Irrespective of the method of incorporation used, jurisdictions also require compliance with national laws and regulations. According to SEC (2010), in most cases, additional disclosures required by such laws or regulations are usually incremental to, but not inconsistent with, IFRS.

Under the first approach above, countries accept IFRSs as issued by the IASB without approval by any local body. This approach has the least tendency to create deviations from IFRS as issued by the IASB. It also has the potential to result in a much greater degree of reliance by a national regulators (or other bodies). According to SEC’s research, thus far, very few jurisdictions follow this approach.

The second category comprises jurisdictions that use IFRS after some form of incorporation process. Most of these jurisdictions maintain adopt IFRS without variation. However, some jurisdictions following this approach have not adopted IFRSs as issued by the IASB. This approach enables country-specific issues to be addressed. It could, however, also affect the perception of the use of a single set of global accounting standards.

The Securities and Exchange Commission (2010) divides countries using a national incorporation into: (1) those that converge their local standards with IFRS without a firm commitment to incorporate fully IFRS as issued by the IASB (“Convergence Approach”); and (2) those that carry out some form of local endorsement (“Endorsement Approach”).

Convergence Approach

Under the Convergence Approach, jurisdictions do not adopt IFRS as issued by the IASB or incorporate IFRSs into their accounting standards directly. Instead, these jurisdictions maintain their local standards but make efforts to converge those bodies of standards with IFRS over time. One example under this approach is the Republic of China (PRC).

Endorsement Approach

According to Securities and Exchange Commission (2010), a many countries appear to follow a form of the Endorsement Approach. Under this approach, jurisdictions incorporate individual IFRSs into their local body of standards. Many of these jurisdictions use stated criteria for endorsement, which are designed to protect stakeholders in these jurisdictions. The degree of deviation from IFRS as issued by the IASB can vary under this approach. In some cases, countries appear to adopt standards exactly as issued by the IASB with a high threshold for any country-specific deviation.

A significant number of jurisdictions following the Endorsement Approach are the countries within the EU. Although the EU has brought virtually all of the content of IFRS into
force for various purposes, it is not exactly IFRS as issued by the IASB that is required. For example in France, consolidated reporting by listed companies requires the French language version of the IFRS as endorsed in the EU. (Nobes & Zeff, 2008).

In many countries outside of North America, companies are required to publish unconsolidated statements of each legal entity, so that there are hundreds of such sets of financial statements produced by large groups whether the company is listed or not, and by entities that are not part of a group. Such reporting is allowed to use IFRS in France although it is in the UK (Haller & Eicrle, 2004; and Nobes & Parker, 2006).

According to Nobes and Zeff (2008), another controversial version of “adoption” is that of Australia. In another jurisdiction following the endorsement approach, the law requires require reporting entities to follow Australia standards. The Australian position was proposed by the Canadian Accounting Standards Board for Canada when IFRS is brought into force in 2011 (OSC, 2006). In other words IFRSs are incorporated into the Handbook of the Canadian Institute of chartered Accountants, which is imposed on companies by the Corporation and Securities laws. The endorsement approach involves the need to constantly turn IFRS into national standards and this means that time lags occur.

Condorsement

Another incorporation approach, is colloquially referred to as “Condorsement.” This method was discussed in December 2010 by the U.S. SEC (SEC, 2010). It is one of the approaches being considered by the U.S. in an attempt to ‘wriggle’ out of the ‘IFRS adoption quandary’. The ‘condorsement’ approach is in effect an endorsement approach that combines the characteristics of the incorporation approaches with other jurisdictions that have incorporated or are incorporating IFRS into their financial reporting systems.

Before closing the section on IFRS adoption practices around the world, it is necessary to examine the case of Nigeria. According to NASB (2010), some reporting entities are already using IFRS for non-statutory purposes. Such IFRS-based financial statements must be in addition to the financial statements prepared under relevant Statements of Accounting Standards issued to date by the NASB. The few entities that are already using IFRS for non-statutory purposes are allowed to continue as it will facilitate effective mandatory IFRS at the appropriate time. The use of IFRS by entities prior to national enforcement is referred herein as “voluntary”.

According to the NASB (2010), Where certain regulators require the preparation of IFRS-based financial statements, such financial statements should be in addition to the ones prepared under national GAAP as defined by the NASB. Mandatory Adoption of IFRS is expected to be implemented in three phases in Nigeria starting from January 1, 2012. Thus, the approach by Nigeria is wholesale adoption of undiluted IFRS without any national flavor.

IFRS adoption and disclosure in financial statements

So far we have seen that IFRS (as issued by IASB) is only directly required in very few jurisdictions. This takes us to the issue of what should be disclosed in financial reports as per compliance with IFRS. According to Nobes and Zeff (2008), where the requirements is for a national adoption of IFRS or for national standards based on IFRS, the management and auditors have to refer, among other things to whatever the legal requirement is. In the case of the EU audit reports, the exact wording was discussed by the Federation des Experts Comptables Europeans (FEE), a professional body representing European Auditors. It originally recommended that the reports should say “…. In accordance with IFRS as adopted for use by the EU”. This was turned into a recommendation by the Auditing Practices Board (2005). The European Commission later replaced the “adopted for use in the EU” with “adopted by the EU”. This is the version that is contained in FEE (2005), the Accounting Principles Board (APB)(2006)
and in translation into 20 European Languages. This change was necessitated by variations in audit reports.

Under IAS 1 on presentation of financial statements as revised in 2007, management cannot claim compliance with IFRS unless it complies with all requirements. The amended IAS 1 of 2007 adds a requirement for companies that refer to IFRS but does not fully comply. The amended IAS 1 requires such a company to describe the differences between its reporting and IFRS. But what has been the reporting practices of companies where IFRS is being applied worldwide. In Australia and many Asian countries, corporate reports must refer to compliance with national law and standards, even if they are based exactly on IFRS. According to Christopher and Stephen (2008), this amounts to “dual IFRS reporting”. In other words, reporting both full IFRS and another version of IFRS in the statutory financial statements. They believe that it would not amount to “dual IFRS reporting” if the management and auditors refer to IFRS and to a legal framework.

The Institute of Chartered Accountants in England and Wales ICAEW (2007) carried out a survey of IFRS practices in Europe using 200 listed companies. They find examples of references to IFRS only, to EU – IFRS only and to dual reporting. The ICAEW finds some dual reporting by management in countries other than the UK and Germany, with the highest percentage coming from Netherlands. The EU approved wording is “IFRS as adopted by the EU”. However, in the UK, ICAEW, find that all of the Deloitte reports and some Pricewaterhousecoopers (PWC) reports referred to “IFRS as adopted for use in the European Union”. The study also find that one KPMG report referred to “adopted IFRS” without saying who has adopted it.

Thus the meaning of adoption of IFRS and the way it is reported in the financial statements has continued to generate controversy and has indeed assumed some political dimensions.

Adoption Or Convergence

Let us now go back to the meaning of adoption which at the root of the confusion in the implementation of IFRS globally. The confusion in the meaning of IFRS adoption was ably demonstrated when Angus Thomson of the Australian Accounting Standards Board (AASB) noted that to the effect that Australia has definitely adopted IFRSs (Thomson 2009). This was in response to Nobes (2008) who wrote to the effect that Australia has chosen not to adopt IFRS, but to converge its standards with IFRS. According to Nobes and Zeff (2010), the distinction has major legal and political aspects. According to them, it can affect preparers, auditors and users. According to Nobes and Zeff, the term ‘IFRS adoption’ has also been used in the context of company choices. In the academic literature, the term has generally been used to mean full-scale use by a company of IFRS as issued by the IASB (Ashbaugh 2001; Ashbaugh and Pincus 2001; Barth et al. 2008; Leuz 2003; Radebaugh et al. 2006; Roberts et al. 2008). This is also the meaning of ‘adoption’ IFRS 1 First-time Adoption of International Financial Reporting Standards. Thus adoption can be said to be the full scale implementation of IFRS without any variation.

From the earlier analysis, convergence to IFRS is the key competing terminology with adoption. We will, therefore, attempt to compare and contrast the two terms. According to Illiano (2008), convergence between IFRS and GAAP does not mean that the accounting standards become identical. According to him, convergence means that where transactions are the same or similar, the accounting treatment should also be the same, otherwise there should be enough information in the disclosures to allow the reader to understand the differences. It also requires a continued effort by the standard setters to try to reduce differences in the systems over time. The focus is on having similar general principles. Many have misinterpreted convergence to mean the
development of the same or "identical" standards. According to Illiano (2008), the reality is that convergence never really contemplated "identical" standards.

According to the Institute of Chartered Accountants of India (2008), in general terms, ‘convergence’ means to achieve harmony with IFRS; in precise terms convergence can be considered to design and maintain national accounting standards in a way that financial statements prepared in accordance with national accounting standards draw unreserved statement of compliance with IFRS.

But what does the IASB says? The IFRS Foundation Constitution states that the organisation’s primary objective is to develop ‘a single set of high quality, understandable, enforceable and globally accepted financial reporting standards and that a single set of standards is in the best interests of the global economy. It states further that any divergence from a single set of standards, once transition to IFRSs is complete, can undermine confidence in financial reporting.(IFRS, 2011). According to IFRS Foundation(2011), convergence may facilitate adoption over a transitional period. Convergence, however, is not a substitute for adoption.

**Challenges in full adoption of IFRS adoption**

The issue here is the reason why various jurisdictions are having difficulties in fully adopting IFRS as proclaimed by the IASB. According to Illiano (2008), several obstacles remain that work against moving to one set of high-quality, globally accepted accounting standards. According to him, National pride plays a role. Historically, accounting standards have been promulgated on a national level. There is often resistance to the notion that a foreign set of standards could be better overall. The United States is guilty of this and so many other countries with significant economies, such as Japan and India. In fact, Europe still has not completely accepted IFRS in its refusal to sanction certain elements related to hedge accounting (Bhattachargee and Islam,2011; Illiano,2008)

In some jurisdictions, legal issues act as an obstacle. The local authorities must approve the standards used, or accounting standards must be codified into local law. The process for national approval can result in delays or partial acceptance, neither of which serves to facilitate the move to one set of global accounting standards (Jain, 2009; Illiano, 2008).

Standard setters and regulators have similar issues of sovereignty. Political pressures and legal barriers to information sharing among regulators has not made acceptance any easier for various national regulatory agencies. Relinquishing standard-setting authority in favor of, at best, influencing the standard-setting process of another group, especially one that is perhaps geographically and ideologically distant, has met with some resistance. Language can be an obstacle as well. Not just in the translation to or from English, but also the use of similar terms that have different meanings in different countries. Terms like turnover, stocks, and schemes can have different meanings in accounting depending on the country where they are used. In the U.S., we might refer to those same concepts instead as revenue, inventories, and share-based payment plans (IFRS Foundation, 2011; Sacho, 2008; Jain, 2009; Illiano, 2008).

IFRSs must be translated from the official English version. These versions have legal authority in their respective countries. This translation is bound to lead to translation errors and ambiguities (e.g.Nobes, 2006a). Thus, having one set of high-quality, globally accepted accounting standards depends on how they are interpreted and applied. If the single set of rules is interpreted in 50 different ways, all you have is 50 different standards that happen to have the same label.

According to Nobes and Zeff (2008), much of the harmonization since the 1970s has been affected by politics. According to them, the re-unification of Germany in 1990 was a major political factor that contributed to the use of “foreign” accounting rules (US GAAP and IFRS) by
The major issue from the above points put together is whether it is the private sector or the public sector that controls the content of accounting standards. This controversy has a long history (Benston, 1976; Zeff, 1995). In many countries, the state is very interested in financial reporting, especially by listed companies. For example, the authority of accounting standards in the US rests entirely on the SEC. In continental Europe, private sector standards are a recent development in some countries (e.g. France and Germany). The EU’s institutions have maintained a long tradition of unwillingness to cede control to the private sector. This has created a strained relationship between the EU and the IASB and its predecessor (Camfferman & Zeff, 2007). The European Commission and the EU Parliament have engaged in the endorsement process and also demanded greater public accountability from the IASB (European Parliament, 2007).

Summary Of Findings
From the foregoing analysis, the following findings can be made: (i). there is need to have a single set of high quality international financial accounting standards that will provide better information for shareholders and regulator, enhance Comparability of financial statements, improve transparency of results, and increase ability to secure cross border listing; (ii) IFRS adoption means application of FIRS as developed by the IASB in their entirety and without modification. Convergence may facilitate adoptions cover a transitional period. Convergence, however, is not a substitute for adoption; (iii) the practice of many jurisdictions who have adopted IFRS are not in complete tandem with the true meaning of IFRS as proclaimed by the IASB; (iv) many financial reports do not accurately reflect the type of IFRS adopted by the respective jurisdictions; (v) political factors, national pride, legal issues, cultural factors, among others are mitigating factors, against the uniform adoption of IFRS across jurisdictions.

Discussions Of Findings
In this section, we examine the implication of the findings for the issues raised on Adoption of IFRS: The Challenges of Definition and Implementation. The first finding of the study is that there is a need for a single set of high quality international financial accounting standard. Existing literature document the fact that there are improvements in accounting following accounting quality. (Barth et al, 2006; Grassen and Sellhorn, 2006; Gordon, 2008; etc). Overall, the evidence on the association between voluntary IFRS adoption and accounting quality is mixed, although research applying more recent data generally find relatively better accounting quality amount firms that adopt IFRS (Christensen, et al, 2008) Although some have argued that because of certain inherent differences among nations that it is not practically possible to have a single set of uniform accounting Standards all over the world, it has nonetheless not remove the need for such accounting standards globally.

Another finding from the study is that IFRS adoption means whole sale application of IFRS developed by the IASB without modification. Convergence and adoption have been used by different jurisdictions to mean the same thing. But this is not so. Convergence is a process geared towards the final end product. Convergence by definition will usually not lead to adoption. Convergence may narrow national differences but will not produce identical set of global standards because each set of standards has a different starting point and Convergence will not address all of the details.

The study finds also that the practices of many Countries who claimed to have adopted IFRS are at variance with the IFRS as proclaimed by the IASB. One of the criticisms of IFRS acceptance around the world has been the emergence of national IFRS “flavours”. In other
words, countries adopting IFRS are not always adopting the same standards. The term “as adopted” is being used a lot (e.g. China). What that means is that countries are adopting IFRS in principles but are differing on interpretation and actual application/practice. The end result is the need for financial analysts to become more educated and dig deeper into financial statements. The idea that over 100 countries have one set of standard, thus simplifying analysis is false. Analyst must begin to appreciate how each country is “adopting” IFRS.

Financial statements are supposed to accurately reflect and state their underlying accounting standards. The findings of this study indicate that the financial statement in many jurisdictions do not accurately reflect the version of IFRS adopted. In the preparation of financial statements, it is the standard practice that management and auditors have to refer to, among other things, the legal requirements. Under, IAS I on Presentation of Financial Statements as revised in 2007, management cannot claim compliance with IFRS unless it complies with all the requirements. This amended IAS 1 of 2007 adds a requirement for companies that refers to IFRS but does not fully comply. It requires such a company to describe the difference between its reporting and IFRS. But in practice financial statements of various countries have not fully comply with this requirement.

The last finding is that political factors, national pride, legal issues, cultural factors among others are militating against the full global adoption of IFRS. One of the key absentee on the list of IFRS adopting nations of the world is the United State of America. National pride dominate the undeclared reasons why the U.S is not in a hurry to adopt IFRS wholly and exclusively. Historically, accounting standards have been promulgated on a national level. Resistance to changing from established national standards to a different set of globally accepted standards stems in part from the belief that the familiar is likely to be superior to the unknown. There is often resistance to the notion that a foreign set of standards could be better overall. All these explain why the U.S has to rigmarole on the adopt–non adopt continuum and going as far as inventing new accounting lexicon absurdities such as condorsement. Apart from the U.S many other countries with significant economies, such as Japan and India are victims of this phobia. It is noteworthy that many ‘insignificant economies’ or countries particularly developing countries like Ghana, South Africa and of course Nigeria do not suffer from this national pride malaise and have therefore gone ahead to adopt IFRS, hook, line and sinker!

**Conclusion.**

There is no doubt that there is considerable confusion over the meaning of the word “adoption” as it pertains to international accounting standards. From evidence adduced above, only few jurisdictions have directly adopted IFRS, partly because of the resistance of the state to allow a private foreign body to control accounting. As noted earlier in the paper, even jurisdictions that have not fully adopted IFRS would want to say in their reports that they have done so. The position of the IASB is very clear vide IAS I on Presentation of Financial Statements that management cannot claim compliance with IFRS unless it complies with all requirements.

The bitter lesson from the unfolding scenario is that ensuring global high quality financial reporting standards depends on effective control and enforcement mechanism. What has happened now is that the IFRS of the IASB have become a “still birth” and have failed in the objective of ensuring a single set of global high quality financial accounting standards just like its predecessor, the IASC. Many countries have adopted the IFRS label but they have refused to accept the product (the international standards themselves)

Apart from the international oversight bodies, analysts, securities regulators and other users of international financial statements are put on notice that what they see might not actually be what they get from financial statements of companies around the world at least for now. They are therefore put on enquiry into the actual basis on which international corporate financial
statements are prepared and not rely on the mere fact that a particular country claims to have adopted IFRS.

**Recommendation**

Two broad categories of recommendations are made at the international regulatory level. The first category deals with existing structures within the IASB while the second category deals with the creation of a new international oversight body. The existing bodies within the IASB structure are the IFRS interpretation committee and IFRS foundation. In this connection it is recommended that the IFRS Interpretation Committee should (i) Identify areas of divergence before they become entrenched practices by consulting auditors, audit regulators and securities regulators; (ii) Ensure timely public discussion and resolution of request for interpretation or improvements (iii) Correct and clarify the wording of IFRS; (iv) Reach out to all stakeholder to explain the interpretation and implementation process.

On its part, the IFRS Foundation should (i) Undertake post implementation reviews to help identify implementation issues; (ii) Establish formalized cooperation arrangement with securities regulators, auditors and national standard setters to receive feedback on how IFRS are being implemented and encourage action aimed at addressing divergence; (iii) Publish periodically, a ranking of countries according to their IFRS adoption status, clearly distinguishing those that have fully adopted IFRS from pretenders (iv)Integrate the XBRL into the standard setting process. Presently the XBRL taxonomy is prepared after the development of standards.

The second category of recommendations involve the creation of a global monitoring organization known as Global Quality Corporations Union (GQCU) or any other appropriate name. The GQCU system will not require convergence of regulatory approaches Firms within the GQCU will be required to wholly and exclusively comply with IFRS. Entrance into the GQCU will be voluntary. However, members will be required to enter into a private contract whereby they agree to abide by the rules of the GQCU. The GQCU will enforce the implementation of IFRS by all the members of the GQCU, irrespective of the home country since membership is voluntary. The GQCU will be funded mainly by fees from member companies. In this way companies applying IFRS would be clearly distinguishable from those that are not. The creation of the GQC would not in any way negate the IFRS adoption approaches of the various countries. The only snag here is that they be required to reconcile their financial statements to the local GAAP their host states. This is definitely not too high a price to pay for being identified as a Global Quality Corporation (GQC).

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Fraud & Auditors Analytical Procedure: A Test of Benford’s Law

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Abstract
This study employed Benford’s law as a tool for fraud detection and prevention in corporate organizations. The law is based on the principle of observing digit distribution to ensure conformity with the law. Utilizing historical data of selected quoted companies which resulted in an observed frequency count of 1349 digit observations, the study described the utility of the principle in practice. The respondents to other research questions comprised accountants, auditors and accounting tutors, distributed across three states in south-eastern Nigeria. Benford’s Law V2.0 software was used in the digit analysis, while Two-Way Analysis of Variances was used in analyzing the questionnaire responses. Three hypotheses were formulated and tested in the study. The results of empirical data analysis proved the utility of Benford’s law in fraud detection and a statistical technique to be employed in audit analytical procedure. Respondents perceived that statistical techniques were far more adequate than their predecessors’ financial ratios and/or intuition based red flags. This research adds to knowledge by advocating the inclusion of more advanced statistical techniques in audit fraud detection schemes. Employing such in the design of audit analytical procedure could have the dual effect of mitigating risk of auditors and exposing material misstatement inherent in financial statements.

Introduction
The concept of fraud has long been in existence. Okafor (2008) observed that since the advent of commercialization, fraud has been in existence. This view was supported by Wright (2000), who stated that “Fraud is as old as trade and this considerably older than money”. Thus, fraud is a million dollar business and it’s increasing every year in the accounting and financial context. This manipulation were broadly been referred to in the academic literature as Financial Statement Fraud (FSF) or Fraud Financial Reporting (FFR). Fraudulent financial reporting costs the world’s economies billions of dollars a year.

The term, financial statement fraud is defined by the Association of Certified Fraud Examiners (ACFE) as ‘the deliberate misrepresentation of the financial condition of an enterprise, by intentionally misstating or omitting amounts or disclosures in the financial statements so as to deceive their users’ (ACFE, 2007). This view is synonymous with Wells (2004) who opined that, ‘fraud is an intentional act of deception; its forms are generally referred to as lying and cheating’. From this, it could be deduced that the major difference between fraud and error is the intent errors are considered to be unintentional, while frauds are intentional (IFAC, 2006).

This issue of fraudulent financial reporting has transcended from a national to a global issue, particularly due to the reported corporate failures that characterized the 90s and beyond fraud has become one of the greatest threats to the world economy, not only in terms of its impact on our major corporations and key financial institutions, but also; its effect on smaller companies and ultimately the wider public who indirectly pay for the losses through increased cost of goods and

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services. Recent corporate scandals such as: Enron; WorldCom; Global crossing; Tyco; Cadbury Plc; AP Plc; etc. all had similar experiences. In the corporate context and on the strength of decided cases, fraud can be categorized as (Okafor, 2008):

i. Crime committed by insiders against the company, for example; theft, corruption and embezzlement;

ii. Crime committed by insiders for the company, for example; violation of government regulations-tax, securities and environmental laws.

iii. Crime internationally committed by insiders, for example; officers, directors, employees and agents; and

iv. Crime committed by outsiders, for example; vendor, contractors and suppliers.

This view could be summarized as follows: fraud perpetrated by insiders (Management, directors, etc.) for and against the company or fraud perpetrated by outsiders (vendors, contractors, etc.) against the company. Frauds perpetrated by insiders for or against the company have become the thrust of current litigation matters as auditors are frequently called to pay for losses on financial statements certified by them. Given the recent advancements of the 21st century, the resurgence of fraud in corporate organizations has created additional complexities which were not there before. This present day business complexities are evidenced by (Okafor, 2008):

- An increase in the number of transactions because of the rising complexity of modern businesses;
- The developments and advancements in information technology (IT), and;
- A general perception by fraudsters of a low detection risk inherent in such fraudulent practices.

Presently, fraud as it has never been before is increasingly more difficult to detect and as such, a zero prevention level. With the best will in the world, the best accounting procedures and the tightest regulation, inevitably a deliberate, clever, scheming fraudster will be able to break through whatever control are placed in his way and fool the system (Okafor, 2008). Thus, the dynamic nature of fraud coupled with the increase in its sophistication and perpetrated level, calls for an ever growing need for auditors to develop and use more sophisticated audit tools to aid in the detection of fraud. Krakar & Zgela (2009) observed that this growth has lead to a more complicated audit because it became harder to identify possible flaws, mistakes and frauds. Okafor (2008) observed that the perpetration rate supported by technological explosion and global industrialization far exceed the current detection rate.

Thus, the recent audit failures (Barings Bank in Singapore/UK; Allied Irish Bank, in UK; Enron in USA; Societe Generale in France; Rijecka bank in Croatia, etc.) and the issuance of Statement on Auditing Standard No.99, Consideration of Fraud in a Financial Statement Audit (AICPA, 2002) have set the audit profession in search of analytical tools and audit methods to detect fraud. These are the reasons for the lately intensified development of business and information systems auditing (Krakar & Zgela, 2009).

Specifically, SAS No. 99 (paragraph 28) reiterates SAS No. 56 in requiring auditors to employ analytical procedures during the planning phase of the audit with the objective to identify the existence of unusual transactions, events and trends (Durtschi et al., 2004). The application of analytical procedures and an effective use of computer on transaction level data is an efficient means for auditors to partially fulfill their duties with regards to the detection of fraud and material misstatements (Durtschi et al., 2004). This has lead to the development of new auditing
methods and techniques which are based on the use of information communication technology (ICT), especially Computer Assisted Auditing Technique (CAAT) tool (Krakar & Zgela, 2009).

Though, the primary objective of an audit as stated in the Companies & Allied Matters Act (2004) is for an appointed auditor to express a professional opinion on the financial position of an enterprise as contained in the financial statement prepared by the directors. This same Act under Section 368 titled: Liability of Auditors for Negligence, provides under the following subsections:

**+Subsection 1**

A company’s auditor shall in the performance of his duties, exercise all such care diligence and skill as is reasonably necessary in each particular circumstance.

**Subsection 2**

Where a company suffers loss or damage as a result of the failure of its auditor to discharge the fiduciary duty imposed on him by subsection (1) of this section, the auditor shall be liable for negligence and the directors may institute an action for negligence against him in the court.

**Subsection 3**

If the directors fail to institute an action against the auditor under subsection (2) of this section, any member may do so after the expiration of thirty days notice to the company of his intention to institute such action.

The provisions of these subsections could be viewed from two perspectives:

1. Auditors in exercising due care and diligence in the discharge of their duties are required to employ all necessary skills, tools, techniques or procedures in the conduct of the audit assignment.
2. Auditors are still liable to an extent for fraud in firms audited and certified by them. The particular issue gives rise to the criminal charges that are imposed on auditors in recent times.

Empirical studies observed that failing to detect fraudulent financial reporting can expose the auditor to advance legal and or regulatory consequences (Lin et al., 2003). To circumvent incidence of fraud in organizations, auditors mostly employ red flags in assessing the potential risk of transaction. However, Bierstaker et al. (2006), observed two main limitations of the red-flag approach:

*Firstly, that red-flags are associated with fraud but the association is far from perfect, and secondly, it focuses on specific cues because it might inhibit internal and external audit from identifying other reason that fraud could occur.*

Modern technology however, has armed the investigative accountants with tools and techniques not only to track down fraud perpetrators more efficiently that was possible in the absence of those technologies; but also, to carry out a multi-faceted analytical inquiry into the nature of financial frauds and their perpetrators (Bhattacharya et al., 2010). The broad objective of this study is to determine the extent a statistical cognitive model based on Benford’s law could be employed by auditors in their analytical procedure to detect and prevent fraud. This approach would clearly be a significant departure from existing conventional audit techniques, such as: ratio analysis, trend analysis, etc. The specific objectives are to:

1. To determine to what extent digit deviation from Benford’s law signal suspicious and fraudulent accounting transactions.
2. To design an effective fraud detection tool that will aid auditors in their secondary objective of fraud detection and prevention.
3. To ascertain the efficacy of employing statistical methods in fraud detection and prevention more than conventional audit techniques.

Review of Related Literature:

Fraud Definitions & Taxonomy
Fraud, theft and embezzlement are terms commonly used interchangeably. The fundamental difference lies in the legal asylum to each. The term fraud refers to the abuse of a profit organization’s system without necessary leading to direct legal consequences (Phua et al., 2007). According to Vona (2008) fraud is defined as acts committed on the organization or by the organization or for the organization. The acts are committed by an internal or external source and are intentional and concealed. The acts are typically illegal or denote wrongdoing, such as in the cases of financial misstatement, policy violation, ethical lapse, or a perception issue. The acts cause a loss of company funds, company value, or company reputation, or any unauthorized benefit whether received personally or by others.

Davia et al. (2000, cited in Jans et al., 2008) paraphrase this in a number of items that must be identified, when articulating a case of fraud:

- A Victim
- Details of the deceptive act though to be fraudulent
- The victim’s loss
- A perpetrator (i.e., a suspect)
- Evidence that the perpetrator profited by the act(s).

The Institute of Internal Auditors Standard 1210:A2 under a section called ‘what is fraud’ states that fraud encompasses a range of irregularities and illegal acts characterized by intentional deception or misrepresentation, which a individual knows to be false or does not believe to be true. Fraud essentially involves using deception to make a personal gain for oneself dishonesty and/or create a loss for another (CIMA, 2009). The various definitions of fraud are meant to capture the legal, social and institutional dimensions of fraud as they manifest in everyday life.

There are many types of corporate fraud, including the following common frauds (CIMA, 2009):
1. Theft of cash, physical assets or confidential information
2. Misuse of accounts
3. Procurement fraud
4. Payroll fraud
5. Financial accounting misstatements
6. Inappropriate journal vouchers
7. Suspense accounting fraud
8. Fraudulent expense claims
9. False employment credentials

Fraud in corporate organizations can be broadly classified into two: external and internal/corporate fraud. Internal fraud refers to such fraudulent acts committed by parties within an organization, e.g. management fraud, employee fraud, etc.
External fraud comprises fraud categories committed by parties external to the entity, e.g. fraud committed by vendors, suppliers, and contractors, who might over bill, double bill, or substitute inferior goods. Customers may also play that game by feigning damage or destruction of goods in order to gain credit and allowances (Okafor, 2008). A more recurring aspect of corporate fraud is occupational fraud. Occupational fraud and abuse may be defined as: “The use of one’s occupation for personal enrichment through the deliberate misuse or misapplication of the employing organization’s resources or assets” (ACFE, 2006). This fraud category is function of the managerial position of the perpetrator involved which results in two major distinctions of management and non-management fraud employee fraud.

Benford’s Law Origin:
Digital analysis based on Benford’s law is a form of data mining approach to audit that examines the properties of digits in accounting data for character identification. Data mining is about finding insights which are statistically reliable, unknown previously, and actionable from data (Elkan, 2001). This data must be available, relevant, adequate, and clean. Also, the data mining problem must be well-defined, cannot be solved by query and reporting tools, and guided by a data mining process model (Lavrac et al, 2004). There are often two main criticisms of data mining-based fraud detection research: the dearth of publicly available real data to perform experiments on; and the lack of published well-researched methods and techniques (Phua et al., 2007). Digital analysis based on Benford’s Law is a computer-assisted audit technique that if applied to an entire population of transaction data could reveal significant deviations which either errors or fraud items (Nigrini & Miller, 2006).

The first known work on the “Probability distribution of digits” dates back to the 18th century. In 1881, Simon Newcomb, an astronomer and mathematician, published a two-page article titled “Note on the frequency of use of the different digits in natural numbers” in the American Journal of Mathematician. His article detailed his empirical observation that library copies of books of logarithms were considerably more worn in the beginning pages which dealt with low digits and progressively less worn on the pages dealing with higher digits. His conclusion was that scientists, researchers, etc. used such tables to look up numbers starting with the numeral one.
more often than those starting with the numeral two, those starting with two more often than those starting with three, and so on progressively. Newcomb derived a formula for calculating the probability that a number has any particular non-zero first digit as:

\[
\text{P (d) } = \log_{10} (1 + 1/d)\]

Where:
- \(d\) is a number 1, 2, 3…. 9, and
- \(P\) is the probability that the first digit of a number is one is about 30 percent while the probability the first digit is a nine is only 4.6 percent.

Durtschi et al. (2004) stated that Newcomb could not provide any theoretical explanation for the phenomena he described and his article went virtually unnoticed. More than half a century later, a physicist at the General Electric (GE) Research Laboratories, by name Frank Benford came up with the same observation. In his article titled “The Law of anomalous numbers” published in the Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society in 1938, he detailed his observation that the first few pages of logarithm table books were more worn than the last few. He came to exactly the same conclusion Newcomb had arrived at years prior; that people (scientists, researchers, and all those that made use of such tables) looked up number that began with low digits more often than those that had higher digits. Both Newcomb and Benford agreed that there was in existence more numbers that began with lower digits than those that began with higher digits. Benford went a step further than Newcomb by testing his hypothesis against varying data sources.

Nigrini and Mittermarier (1997) observed that Benford approach was to empirically test the first digit frequencies of 20 lists of relatively large numbers (20, 229 observations) and 10 lists of relatively small numbers (2, 968 observations). His empirical results showed that an average of 30.6 percent of the large numbers had a first digit 1. In contrast, only 4.7 percent of the large numbers had a first digit 9. Benford (1938) hypothesized that naturally occurring data, when ordered, should form a geometric sequence. Nigrini and Miller (2006) observed that the link between a geometric sequence and a Benford set (a set of numbers that closely conforms to Benford’s Law) is well known in literature. Benford (1938) in the Part II of his paper “Geometric Basis of the Law” observed that “Nature counts geometrically and builds and functions accordingly”.

Through the use of integral calculus, Benford (1938) derived formulas for calculating the expected digital frequencies for first, second and digit combinations in lists of numbers. The formulas are shown below:

\[
\text{Prob. (D}_1 = d\text{)} = P(d \leq D_1 < d + 1) \quad (1)
\]
\[
= \log_{10} (d + 1) - \log_{10} (d) \quad (2)
\]
\[
= \log_{10} (1 + 1/d) \quad (3)
\]

Where, \(D_1\) is a significant number’s first digit.

Table 1: Expected frequencies for all digits 0 through 9 in each of the first four places in any number.
From the table, it can be seen that the frequencies of the first digits are heavily skewed with an expected frequencies of 30.1 percent for the digit 1, and only 4.6 percent for the digit 9. The second digit frequencies are less skewed. For the first-two digit combinations, 10 will have an expected probability of 4.14 percent, and 99 an expected probability of 0.44 percent. Benford (1938) observed that numbers consistently fell into a pattern with low digits occurring more frequently in the first position than large digits. Thus, the mathematical tenet defining the frequency of digits became known as Benford’s Law (Durtschi et al., 2004).

Hill (1996, as cited in Nigrini & Mittermaier, 1997) in his study reviewed a number of empirical studies using Benford’s Law and showed that:

> 'If distributions are selected at random (in any “unbiased” way), and random samples are then taken from each of these distributions, the significant digits of the resulting collection will coverage to the logarithmic (Benford) distribution'.

Durtschi et al. (2004) in their study identified accounting data sets that are likely to conform to the law and those that would not. Nigrini and Miller (2006) introduced a second order test of Benford’s Law that could be used by auditors for the detection of fraud, errors, and fabricated data. They noted that the second order tests generate few false positives and can detect rounded data, data generated by linear regression, data generated by using the inverse function of a known distribution, and inaccurate ordering.

**Accounting Data Sets That Conform To The Law**

Most accounting-related data can be expected to conform to a Benford distribution, and thus will be appropriate candidates for digital analysis accounting data consists of transactions that result from combining numbers. Accounting numbers are often the result of a mathematical; process. For example, the sales figure is given by a multiplication of the items sold with the price of the item, while purchases is given by a multiplication of the quantity of items bought with the price.

Similarly, other expenses and revenue accounts items are expected to conform. Account size, meaning the number of entries or transactions, also matters. In general, results from Benford analysis are more reliable if the entire account is analyzed rather than sampling the account. Empirical studies have shown that the larger the data set, the more accurate the analysis and the quicker the test detect a fraudulent entry. Durtschi et al. (2004) observed that in addition to an
auditor’s judgment in determining which populations fit a Benford distribution, there exist some tests that reveal whether or not Benford’s law applies to a particular data set.

Wallace (2002) observed that if the mean of a particular set of numbers is larger than the median and the skewness value is positive, the data set would likely follow a Benford’s distribution. Durtschi et al. (2004) stated that this is true since observations from a Benford distribution have a predominance of small values. Durtschi et al. (2004) however cautioned that relying only on such tests as a screening process, before applying digital analysis, is that if an account contains sufficient bogus observations it could fail the tests; thus, digital analysis would not be applied when, in fact, it should.

**Accounting Data Sets That Do Not Conform To The Law**

Not all accounting data sets are expected to conform to Benford’s distribution. In deciding whether a data would conform caution must be exercised. Etteridge and Srivastava (1999) observed that data set which when tested does not conform to the distribution may show only operating inefficiencies or flaws in the system rather fraud. The law however would not apply to assigned numbers, such as telephone numbers, car license plate numbers, or numbers that are influenced by human thought, such as supermarket prices, or ATM withdrawals. Accounts that have a built-in maximum value would not conform. The table below summarizes the situations where Benford’s Law would and would-not be applicable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When Benford Analysis Is Likely Useful</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sets of numbers that result from mathematical combination of numbers –</td>
<td>Accounts receivable (number sold x price) Accounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Result comes from two distributions</td>
<td>payable (number bought x price)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transaction-level data – No need to sample</td>
<td>Disbursements, sales, expenses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On large data sets – The more observations, the better</td>
<td>Full year’s transactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts that appear to conform – When the mean of a set of numbers is</td>
<td>Most sets of accounting numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greater than the median and the skewness is positive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When Benford Analysis Is Not Likely Useful</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data set is comprised of assigned numbers</td>
<td>Check numbers, invoice numbers, Zip codes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numbers that are influenced by human thought</td>
<td>Prices set at psychological thresholds ($1.99), ATM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts with a large number of firm-specific numbers</td>
<td>withdrawals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where no transaction is recorded</td>
<td>An account specifically set up to record $100 refunds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thefts, kickbacks, Contact rigging</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Durtschi et al. (2004)

**Auditor’s Analytical Procedure**

The term “analytical review procedure” (changed to “analytical procedure” by SAS No. 56) was introduced in the authoritative auditing literature in 1970, when Statement on Auditing Procedures (SAP) No. 54 (AU section 320.70) was issued. The statement specified that sufficient competent evidential matter “is obtained through two general classes of auditing procedures:
a. Tests of details of transactions and transactions balances
b. Analytical review of significant ratios and trends and resulting investigation unusual fluctuations and questionable items. Analytical procedures were being used, however, in audits prior to 1970. In fact, in 1950 the American Institute of Accountants (Subsequently changed to the American Institute of Certified Public Accountants) stated: “One way this (the analysis and review of data) is accomplished is by comparison of balances in the trial balance at the balance sheet date with those in the trial balance at the end of the previous comparable period, noting for investigation any items which appear to be out of line with previous experience: another is the comparison of the gross profit percentage during the current period with the corresponding percentages in previous periods” (Audits by Certified Public Accountants, 1950).

Analytical procedures refers to the analysis of significant ratios and trends including the resulting investigation of fluctuations and relationship that are inconsistent with other relevant information or which deviate from predicted amounts (Chow, 2009). Analytical procedures include the consideration of comparisons of the entity’s financial information with, for example (Internal Standard on Auditing 520, 2009):

- Comparable information for prior periods.
- Anticipated result of the entity, such as budgets or forecasts, or expectations of the auditor, such as an estimation of depreciation.
- Similar industry information, such as a comparison of the entity’s ratio of sales to accounts receivable with industry averages or with other entities of comparable size in the same industry.

Analytical procedures also include consideration of relationships, for example (International Standard on Auditing 520, 2009):
- Among elements of financial information that would be expected to conform to a predictable pattern based on the entity’s experience, such as gross margin percentages.
- Between financial information and relevant non-financial information, such as payroll costs to number of employees.

The various possible methods that may be used to perform analytical procedures were listed by the standard as: methods range from performing simple comparisons to performing complex analyses using advanced statistical techniques. Analytical procedure may be applied to consolidated financial statements, components and individual elements of information. Analytical procedures are an important type of evidence on an audit. They involve a comparison of recorded values with expectations developed by the auditor. They consist of evaluations of financial information made by a study of plausible relationships among both financial and nonfinancial data. Auditing standards require that the auditor conduct analytical procedures in planning the audit.

Analytical procedures can be helpful in identifying the existence of unusual transactions or events and amounts, ratios, and trends that might have implications for audit planning. There are three types of analytical procedures:

1. Preliminary analytical procedure
2. Substantive analytical procedure
3. Final analytical procedure.

In today’s highly competitive auditing environment, auditors must use effective and more efficient procedures in their audit. When applying analytical procedures, the auditor will, generally, do the following:

1. Develop expectations
2. Define what will be considered a material difference between expected and recorded amounts
3. Identify significant differences
4. Investigate the causes of the significant differences
5. Reach a conclusion.

Research Design And Methodology
The study adopted both the historical and exploratory research design in obtaining the necessary information needed for the study. The historical data of selected quoted companies were obtained from the Nigeria Stock Exchange Factbook (2010/11) version, while the respondents to the questionnaires were distributed across two states namely: Anambra and Enugu, for the purpose of this research. These two states are situated in the south-eastern part of Nigeria.

Hypothesis Analysis And Interpretation
Hypothesis i

\( H_0: \) The Observed Data do not follow the Benford’s Distribution  
\( H_1: \) The Observed Data follow the Benford’s Distribution

Table 3: Frequency Distribution of Digit 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Your Data</th>
<th>Expected Data</th>
<th>Diff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>29.06</td>
<td>30.103</td>
<td>-1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>17.609</td>
<td>1.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.49</td>
<td>12.494</td>
<td>1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>9.691</td>
<td>-0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.71</td>
<td>7.918</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>6.695</td>
<td>-0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>5.799</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.</td>
<td>5.115</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.576</td>
<td>-1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Benford’s Law V2.0

Result:
Correlation Coefficient - 0.99230
Co-Variance - 60.27140
Digits with high Differences - 2

Table 4: Frequency Distribution of Digit 1,2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Your Data</th>
<th>Expected Data</th>
<th>Diff</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-9</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-19</td>
<td>29.0586</td>
<td>30.05</td>
<td>-0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>19.4218</td>
<td>17.56</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>13.4915</td>
<td>12.44</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>8.8213</td>
<td>9.65</td>
<td>-0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>7.7094</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>6.1527</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>-0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>5.8562</td>
<td>5.77</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-89</td>
<td>6.0044</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-99</td>
<td>3.4841</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>-1.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Source: Benford’s Law V2.0

**Result:**

| Correlation Coefficient | - | 0.93700 |
| Co-Variance             | - | 0.63981 |
| Digits with high Differences | - | 20 - 29 |

The alternate hypothesis is accepted as both results showed a high correlation coefficient.

**Hypothesis 2**

H₀: Auditors fraud detection ability is not a function of his employed analytical procedure
H₁: Auditors fraud detection ability is a function of his employed analytical procedure

**Table 5: Survey Research Results on Fraud Detection Ability and Analytical Procedure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Question Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Financial statement fraud are often the result of manipulations in individual books of accounts of the company</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Analytical procedures serve as a deterrent to fraud by targeting specific individual account for analysis</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Analytical procedures should be employed subject to the nature of business the company indulges</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Employing analytical procedures during audit exercise reduces the probability of material misstatement in financial accounts</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Analytical procedures targeted at Income and Balance sheet elements have a higher probability in detecting fraud</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>To mitigate and safeguard auditors against legal they should employ tools with a high probability of detecting fraud in that industry class</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey (2012)

**Table 6: Two-Way ANOVA Test of Between-Subjects Effects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>22.302*</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.460</td>
<td>12.461</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
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<td>2250.250</td>
<td>6286.540</td>
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<tr>
<td>STATE</td>
<td>6.879</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.879</td>
<td>19.219</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>1.421</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.421</td>
<td>1.986</td>
<td>.142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STATE * Sector</td>
<td>12.071</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.035</td>
<td>16.861</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>37.227</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>16.861</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2361.440</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>59.529</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Square = .375 (Adjusted R Square = .345)

**Conclusion:**

The ANOVA (Test of Between-Subjects Effects) table showed a statistically significant F-value of 16.861 (Sig .000) at 2 degrees of freedom.
**Decision Rule:**

\[ F_{\text{Calculated}} > F_{\text{Critical}} \rightarrow \text{Reject the Null Hypothesis} \]

16.861 > 9.00 \rightarrow \text{Reject the Null Hypothesis}

Therefore, the alternative hypothesis ‘Auditors fraud detection ability is a function of his employed analytical procedure’ is accepted. R square had a value of .375 and adjusted R square .345 indicating that 34.5% of variation could be explained by the model.

**Hypothesis 3**

- **H₀:** Statistical techniques do not provide auditors with greater fraud detection ability than conventional techniques
- **H₁:** Statistical techniques provide auditors with greater fraud detection ability than conventional techniques

**Table 7: Survey Research Results on Fraud Detection Ability and Statistical Techniques**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/No</th>
<th>Question Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Statistical tools are more effective and efficient than traditional financial ratios in fraud detection</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The advent of computer and information processing systems has shed new insights on fraud detection possibilities</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Computer assisted techniques render results faster than their manual counterparts</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Statistical techniques by marking use of figures yield more reliable results than psychological red flags</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Statistical techniques are most adequate in modern organizations were volume and value of transactions render manual audit procedures useless</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>There is a need for the tutoring of auditors on new and robust techniques for data minining for fraud detection</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Field Survey (2012)

**Table 8: Two-Way ANOVA Test of Between-Subjects Effects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>6.473^a</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.295</td>
<td>6.297</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>2728.650</td>
<td>13272.010</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STATE</td>
<td>2.847</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.847</td>
<td>13.849</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STATE * Sector</td>
<td>4.280</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.140</td>
<td>10.408</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>21.382</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2811.960</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>27.855</td>
<td>109</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Square = .232 (Adjusted R Square = .195)

**Conclusion:**

The ANOVA (Test of Between-Subjects Effects) table showed a statistically significant F-value of 10.408 (Sig .000) at 2 degrees of freedom.

**Decision Rule:**

\[ F_{\text{Calculated}} > F_{\text{Critical}} \rightarrow \text{Reject the Null Hypothesis} \]
10.408 > 9.00 – Reject the Null Hypothesis
Therefore, the alternative hypothesis ‘Statistical techniques provide auditors with greater fraud
detection ability than conventional techniques’ is accepted. R square had a value of .232 and
adjusted R square .195 indicating that 19.5% of variation could be explained by the model.

Summary of Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations:
Based on the results of the empirical data analysis, the following findings were made:
1. Analytical procedures serve as a deterrent to fraud by targeting specific individual
  accounts for analysis.
2. Auditors employ analytical procedures taking cognizance of the nature business the
  company engages in.
3. Employing analytical procedures during audit conduct reduces probability for any
  significant material misstatement by targeting income and balance sheet elements.
4. Employing statistical tools could serve as evidence in legal disputes against auditors for
  negligence in an audit assignment.
5. Computer assisted audit techniques render result faster and efficiently than their manual
  counterpart.
6. Fraud corrodes shareholder confidence as a result of declining dividend per share
  evidenced in the low growth of profitability ratios.
7. Consumers are less inclined to product purchase from fraudulent corporations resulting in
  declining revenue.
8. Auditors need to be strengthened by appropriate industry specific corporate governance
  frameworks to curb incidence of corporate fraud.

Conclusion
The menace of fraud in corporate organizations hinders the long-term performance and
sustainability of such organizations. Tackling fraud incidence is therefore a sine qua non for
 corporate growth on a sustainable basis. Economies riddled by fraud and corrupt practices are
also deemed to collapse. NDIC reports on bank frauds reveal that the phenomenon is on the
increase even in the nation’s banking system. Auditors charged with the responsibility of attesting
to the true and fair view of financial statements need to design and inculcate adequate statistical
 techniques, increasing their fraud detection and prevention rate. Thus, ultimately safeguarding
them against criminal charges for negligence and providing evidence in civil litigations.

Recommendations
The following policy recommendations are therefore suggested:
1. Replacing conventional fraud detection techniques with more appropriate data mining
   approaches to match the operating capacity of 21st century corporations.
2. Employing Computer Assisted Audit Techniques (CAATs) based on their relative
   strengths and weakness in the fraud detection and prevention process.
3. Designing an audit program that captures relatively potential areas of weakness and
   possible fraud in the system.
4. Where auditors employ CAATs a liaison between the audit department and the
   Management Information System (MIS) is deemed appropriate, this will have the dual
   effect of:
   ✓ Reducing information and knowledge overload where computers are employed in the
     analysis
   ✓ Sequential monitoring of transactions to verify and confirm audit trail issues.
5. A feature of modern organizations is an increase in the volume of transactions,
   employing a just-in-time approach for information and data analysis would ensure;
Redundant information is reduced.
Techniques are employed and utilized as deemed appropriate to the transactions involved.
Positive feedback to management of potential weakness in system immediately.

6. The need for establishing adequate Internal Control Systems and appropriate managerial oversight is deemed necessary. The results of the data mining techniques could be strengthened by relying on the processing outcomes of the internal audit department in the form of established internal control systems.

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Appendix
Graph of Digit 1 Distribution

Graph of Digit 1.2 Distribution
Globalisation And Current Economic Crisis

John O. Asogwa

Abstract
Communication has shown itself as the arrowhead behind the speed at which information and technology are moving. Also, globalization points at the efforts made by different national economic systems to operate under the same umbrella by means of improved communication as occasioned by the use of computers and internet systems. This study takes a look at the rate globalization has taken place and the economic crisis associated with it. Findings indicate that the more we are being globalized, the more we witness economic crisis, especially in Africa. Down to Nigeria, economic crises have become multidimensional, and most of our leaders are unwilling or unable to rise to their responsibility. The terrorist attacks being witnessed these days are found to be associated with globalization and communication. Way forward including finding out ways to eradicate poverty, avert terrorism and becoming security conscious.

Introduction
From the stone age down through the dark ages and then the pre-modern world of civilization, even in the 20th century, the world has been moving in a kind of push-and-pull speed. This consideration is on the basis of economic and statistical growth. In the wake of the new millennium, a sudden speed gear was engaged and everything on wheels began to run in digits… and so from jet age, we saw the computer age which now has shown a new profile that can be tracked only by phenomenon of its kind of speed. The ICT formally known as mere IT (Information Technology), now has a new clause inserted. It has become ICT (Information and Communication Technology). Communication has shown itself as the arrowhead behind the speed at which information and technology are moving. So in view of this, globalization flies on three cardinal wings; INFORMATION, COMMUNICATION and TECHNOLOGY. Whatever inventions there may be in the modern world revolve around the three in one way or the other.

The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary of Modern English defines global as “covering or affecting the whole world”, and globalization as “the fact that different cultures and economic systems around the world are becoming connected and similar to each other because of the influence of large multinational companies and improved COMMUNICATION”. Communication above has been carefully written in upper case for its expedience in this discourse. The same dictionary further defines ‘to globalize’ as “operating around the whole world”. What more? The text is self-explanatory. Economic globalization simply points at the efforts made by different national economic systems to operate under the same umbrella by means of improved communication as occasioned by use of computers and internet systems. It is often said that the world is becoming a global village. This means that very soon, one can monitor his business and indeed the whole world wherever he is from the screen. The internet has come to prove that possible. Global networking is such a fast-tract web that disperses information at amazing speed multi-directionally. This is why the GSM phone (Global System Mobile) has come to outplay the analogue phone in the communications market. Electronic-mail (e-mail) has outplayed the post offices while e-banking also has started drifting aside manual banking. In fact, the arrival of Automated Teller Machines (ATM) has made cash withdrawals easy from banks. The machines are taking over the digital speed.

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Global Economic Crises
The globe itself has been boiling in different angles, especially at the turn of the new millennium. On assumption of office, President Barrack Obama was encompassed by the global economic melt down; a situation where economic crunch forced oil prices to fall due to slack in demand. Other global commodities also slashed in the market and the result quickly told on OPEC market forcing oil producing countries to look inwards. State and local government subventions in Nigeria, for instance, were being reviewed because, like most countries, essential commodities are being pilled without international sales. Number of barrels of oil being produced on daily basis also came down. In fact, parts of America that mainly depend on entertainment and ICT like California and Los Angeles were also affected. New York City first did an outcry when their stock exchange market started telling an unfamiliar tale. The Arab Emirates that depend mainly on tourism had to think twice when tourists and hoteliers sat back home. So, it was a general recreation period. Only recently have some countries begun to creep out of their economic clefts.

The most popular people in Europe today are not those who attempt to discover anti-retroviral drugs for HIV patients or outright vaccines for its cure, not those who plead for the much canvassed globalization, but those who manufacture nuclear weapons and explosives that can aid genocide and wholesome extermination. Those who lead destructions have become more popular than those who lead construction. War, peril, violence, distrust, pornography and prostitution are only a few of the most popular events in the world today. Such killer situations have made stories of earthquake, cyclone, hurricane and volcanic eruptions mere moonlight tales. It is obvious that most of the riotous circumstances that erupt globally are occasioned by greedy leaders who want to remain in office for a life time. Some have been declared life-presidents by timid citizens, while others are still holding it down the necks of their followers to endorse them for life. To such leaders, globalization means gathering the whole world for them to rule. Adolf Hitler, Saddam Hussein, Osama Bin Laden, were few of such, while Yasser Arafat, TYoweri Museveni, Gobachev, Muamar Ghadafi and others kept stranglehold on religion as back-ups, others are booting from behind sectarian reasons to “rule their world”.

African Economic Crises
According to Nnamani (2004), “human history is replete with the price of misplaced trust paid in blood by men. Sisera placed his life at the hands of Jael, wearied by combat and escaping from a lost war, he placed his life in the hands of Jael and paid with his life”. The above recount by a revolutionary writer and lawyer is a well known story in the bible. I have chosen to pull the excerpts because the major problem of African economic violence has been that of misplaced trust or better put, lack of trust. When presidents are not sure of the loyalty of their vice presidents, governors fear the next steps made by their deputies and a permanent secretary becomes a threat to a minister, the result is often commotion or full blown state of emergency.

In Burkina Faso, captain Thomas Sankara, the youngest ruler ever in Africa, who toppled government, was yet to settle down in office when his ‘trusted’ friend and next-in-command captain Blaise Compaore overtook and killed him, then took over power. Sankara was buried in a mass grave and the commotion that followed that period in Burkina Faso took time to settle. It was a case of double coup. “Coup making is not a Nigerian creation. Neither is it of an African origin. According to Encyclopaedia Americana, one of the first modern coup d’etats was initiated and executed by Napoleon Banoparte 210 years ago, precisely on November 9, 1799.”

The above was curled from a write-up by a war insertion in an attempt not to make coup making an African sin. He was taking us back to the story of Napoleon who tricked the French first republic to a Paris suburb where they were surrounded by
trigger-hungry soldiers and when the executives were dissolved, Napoleon took over. This shows how badly political distrust has always eaten the world.

According to Uche (2009), “No African leader wants to leave office, not while power still intoxicates and absolute African power intoxicates absolutely afro-centrically”. The sit tight policies of these leaders are not helping matters. Nearly all measures towards improving their economies are hypocritically deceptive. They are concerned more about building individual dynasties of power and wealth. ‘Survival of the wicked’ is the game and nearly all of them play it well.

According to Ogunbayo (2010), “Uganda’s political crisis is getting worse. The opposition is moving against Yoweri Museveni… They are accusing him of nepotism and also planning to elongate his tenure as to allow him to succeed him…”

**Nigeria Economic Crises**

Economic crises in Nigeria have become multi-dimensional. Nearly all of them are incited in one way or the other. They are all anti-global in nature. The major problem of Nigeria emanates from the actual frame work drawn by the colonialists. In the words of Achebe (1983), “the Nigerian problem is the unwillingness or inability of its leaders to rise to their responsibility, to the challenges of personal example, which are the hallmarks of true leadership”. In the light of the above fact, I wish to segment the economic crises in Nigeria thus:

**A. Coup D’état**

As mentioned earlier, coup plotting, which gave Nigeria over thirty five years of military experience, was our main economy-shaker. However, in the present dispensation, let us concentrate on the power play between greedy leaders and the tussle among the down-trodden hungry masses – where globalization is absolute mirage. Recently, there were coups even at homes. Mothers are plotting with sons to topple fathers, economic sabotage is in the increase by disloyal followers who are bent on stuffing a good man out of office, some innocent ones are languishing in jails for offences they know nothing about, while the actual culprits go about making more inferno. No problems; they have political godfathers in high places. Brigandage and coup have also gone to churches and worship places; fanatic are busy doing more than the clergy are preaching, seizing the slightest opportunity ferment trouble. The list is endless.

**B. Lack of Self-Confidence**

The worst virus left behind in the Nigerian scene by the white man was inferiority complex. No one trusts his personal ability, let alone the man beside him. Except in recent years when black heads are rearing up in sports and computers, we had lived a life of such inferiority complex that no company in Nigeria (even if it is owned by a Nigerian), thrived without some white men sitting at the board. Expatriates lead and we follow. According to Achebe (1975),

“Here then is an adequate revolution
for me to espouse – to help my society
Nigeria believe in itself and put away
the complexes of years of denigration
and self abasement…”

**C. Religious Fanaticism**

The loudest persons in Nigerian are religious fanatics and those who hide behind religion to make trouble. They do not pretend at all when it comes to showing the world how well intolerance can make another testament of a holy book. Nearly all the violent eruptions in
Nigeria are caused by religious intolerance. So high has the tension risen that in recent times, the hitherto peaceful city of Jos has become a battle field. In the words of Ejigbo (2010), “let me state here that the civil war did not end in 1970. For the same reason and by the same style, all the religious killings in the North are tributaries to the war”. With the kind of carnage recently being witnessed, globalization is put to a belt, unless it is the type that presents Nigeria as a telecast for the world to watch via internet and satellite systems. In deed, the war did not end. On Wednesday, March 17, 2010, Muamar Ghadafi of Lybia advised Nigeria to split into two in order to finally see peace. In his words, “the only thing that can put an end to the blood shed is the emergence of another Mohammed Jinnah… splitting Nigeria would stop the blood shed and burning places of worship. Of course, Ghadafi was referring to what happened in Pakistan in 1947 when Mohammed Ali Jinnah split the country between the Hindus and the Muslims, though not without some revolutionary blood shed.

Marginalization
There had been outcries from different quarters by those who felt left out in the share of the ‘national cake’ especially those from territories where the raw materials are gotten. In the North, people are killing to save the religion. In the South, they are kidnapping expatriates and shooting about to register their anger. In the East, looting and kidnap too has been in the increase. In the West, top politicians are being slain like animals meant for occasions, etc. Generally, those who feel left behind can only come to the front by force. Recently, the Niger Delta Militants who were granted amnesty and had “surrendered all” their ammunitions resounded their presence by dispersing a post amnesty meeting of stakeholders in Warri with bomb blasts. Note that guns were “surrendered” but now, bombs are being used to signal a comeback. If care is not taken, time will come when Nigerian youths will be doing street demonstration with scorch missiles and atomic bombs.

D. Cyber Crime
‘Yahoo yahoo boys’ took over the stage for a long time, using skillfully crafted stories and impersonation to swindle millions of dollars off unsuspecting white magnates. After a clampdown was declared on them, they seem to have entered the banks now using cunning powers to dupe people of their hard earned money. Some have specialized in ATM theft as well as GSM phone connections that finally pave way for broad day theft. We are talking about the same internet originally meant to boost communication.

Globalization Threatened
As long as judgment and justice stand afar off from each other, and truth is fallen in the streets, true globalization remains a far-fetched idea. Given such instances, equity can never enter the global gates. Not while the Middle East is always boiling and Africa is busy testing the latest nuclear products on brotherlands. Not while the globe still consists of the entire world not just America, Japan, Russia, France and Germany. It has become necessary for peace to reign so that true globalization can be achieved. Globalization has started in actual sense, but in what direction are we heading to considering the obstacles on the way? We do not seem to know because the roads are blocked by skulls and skeletons of slain citizens. Unless globalization is meant for the making of a screen on which pictures of war, coups, religious intolerance and bloodshed would be appraised, then globalization is here.
Terrorism Defined
The definition of terrorism has proved controversial. Various legal systems and government agencies use different definitions of terrorism. Even the international community has been slow to formulate a universally agreed, legally binding definition of this crime. These difficulties arise from the fact that the term “terrorism” is politically and emotionally charged. (Hoffman, 1998). There are so many definitions of terrorism, but terrorism expert, Walter Laqueur concludes that the “only general characteristic generally agreed upon is that terrorism involves violence and the three of violence”.

Some scholars defined terrorism thus: League of nations in 1937 defines terrorism as “all criminal acts directed against a state, intended or calculated to create a state of terror in the minds of particular persons or persons in the general public”. Also Udenta (2005), defines terrorism as “a calculated and conspiratorial use of violence or threatened use of violence for the attainment of political goals”.

James M. Poland, a professor of criminal justice at California State University, gives a slightly different definition. He states that “terrorism is the premeditated, deliberate, systematic murder, mayhem, and threatening of the innocent to create fear and intimidation in order to gain a political or tactical advantage, usually to influence an audience”.

Positive Side of Globalization
Nobel Prize winner in economics, Amartya Sen claims that globalization “has enriched the world scientifically and culturally, and benefited many people economically as well. Human Development Report 1999, likewise points out that globalization “offers enormous potential to eradicate poverty in the 21st century”. The reason for this optimism is the dramatic increase in prosperity that globalization has brought in its wake.

Some analysts also feel that globalization has made countries more reluctant to go to war with one another. Thomas L. Friedman, in his book: The Lexus and the Olive Tree, asserts that globalization “increases the incentives for not making war and increases the cost of going to war in more ways than in any previous era in modern history”. Global solidarity has also improved with globalization. Human rights organizations have been able to tap the resources of the internet to promote their causes effectively. The 1997 international treaty outlawing land mines, for example, was achieved in part by using electronic mail to mobilize diverse support groups, throughout the world. This grassroots approach was hailed as a “new way of conducting international diplomacy with government and civil society working together closely to tackle global humanitarian crisis.

Globalization has broken down the national economic barriers and has brought the spread of international trade, financial and production activities. This has made trade very simple and easy. Technology has revolutionized communication in the last decade. Access to people and information practically anywhere in the world has become quicker, cheaper and easier.

Negative Side of Globalization
One of the concerns about globalization is that it has widened the gap between the haves and have-nots. While global wealth has undoubtedly increased, it has become concentrated in fewer hands. This has manifested in the fast-growing gap between the world’s rich and the poor.
Another basic worry involves the environment. Economic globalization has been fuelled by market forces that have much more interest in profits than in the protection of the planet. Global mergers and intense competition pressure companied into corporate restructuring and streamlining of their operations is also in focus. This leads to job losses, poor wages and insecurity. Hiring and firing of workers, according to the current needs of the market, makes sense for a company concerned with increasing profits but it plays havoc with peoples’ lives.

International media certainly is not the main bye-product that facilitates terror. Perhaps the main facilitator stemming from globalization is communication technology. There are many communication devices taken for granted in western societies that have changed the way terrorist operate. Digital communication devices come in handy here. “Clansmen fighting Americans in Somalia in the early 1990s used digital phones that could not be tapped. The internet, mobile phones and instant messaging have given many terrorist group a truly global reach.

Human rights organizations are understandably worried about the concentration of the world’s wealth in the hands of a privileged few. For instance, Awake (2002) reports that the fortune of America’s riches surpassed the combined net worth of 100 millions of his fellow Americans and many governments in the third world. Thanks to television and internet, the impoverished mankind know perfectly well how their rich counterparts live, although they see little chances of improving their own lot. This unfairness in the global neighborhood clearly sows many seeds of unrest and frustration.

The terrorist attacks showed that political globalization is as powerful a phenomenon as the globalization of the economy. To deal with ever-increasing international relations, many organizations were set up, including the United Nations, the North American treaty organizations, the organization of American State, and so on. In these forums, many people come together to share ideas. At the same time, similar forums provide a hub for ideas and process of co-ordination and co-operation used by terrorists, thus creating reactions that vitiates well-intended global policies.

Cultural differences introduced by globalization are thought of as one of the causes of international terrorism. Usually, indigenous people blame the perceived corruption of their customers on religion and language.

**Effects of Terrorism on Globalization**

There is no doubt among economists that wars, terrorism and political instability have significant negative effects on the economies in which they take place. Recent economic literature investigates both the consequences of political violence and the mechanisms that transform this violence into economic damage and concludes that the economy of the world usually drops rapidly. For example, the September 11, 2001 terrorist attack had significant economic repercussions for the United states and world markets. The New York stock exchange, the American stock exchange and NASDAQ did not open on Sept. 11 and remained closed until September 17 due to certain damages. When they finally opened, the stock market index fell 684 points or 7.1% to 8920, its biggest ever one day point decline in history.

Due to terrorism, several countries get off from the main stream and are left behind in the fields of communication and technology, which adversely affect the globalization process. The efforts to prevent terrorists from moving their resources is leading to greater scrutiny of banks and setting up of new measures that will slow down the flow capital. This also slows down genuine
businesses. Similarly, the fear that porous borders allow terrorists to enter target countries is leading to new rules about border patrol, visa regulation and monitoring of foreign travelers. These checks embarrass genuine businessmen and also slows them down. It may amount to stating the obvious but it is a fact that new security measures introduced at the airports to check terrorism, have already raised the cost of travel and affected the profitability of the airline industry.

Governments are increasing international co-operation to monitor the flow of information, people and monies across the borders. These heightened measures are a result of changes in priorities. Cost is now second to security and therefore in pursuit of safety, profits are being sacrificed. If this state of affairs persists, globalization will be retarded and the very instruments that facilitate and accelerate it will be blunted.

Today, terrorism influences events on the international stages and hinders globalization to a very large extent. Prior to Sept. 11th 2001, the dominant issues were geo-economic in nature. Globalization and humanitarian issues occupied the agenda of international summits and international organizations. But now, geopolitics and security concerns have once again become the central issue like the recent American government organized Nuclear Security Summit held on April 13th 2010, and which our own President Jonathan and other fifty world leaders attended. In that Summit, President Jonathan declared that nuclear terrorism is, indeed one of the most challenging threats to international security.

**Internet:** - Some 3000,000 new users get connected to the internet every week. In 1999, it was estimated that 700 million people were expected to come on line by the year 2001. The result, explains Friedman (1998), is “that never before in the history of the world have so many people been able to learn about so many other people’s lives, products and ideas”. This is used positively by business men and negatively by terrorists.

**Telephone:** - Fibre-optic cables and satellite networks have slashed telephone costs. The cost of a three-minute call from New York to London fell from $245 in 1930 to $.35 cents in 1999. Wireless networks have made the mobile phone as common place as the computer. By the end of year 2011, there will be an estimated 2 billion people, using mobile phones and many of these users will be able to use their phones to access the internet. The advantage of low cost of telephone cost can be reaped by both business men and international terrorists.

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Customers Evaluation Of Electronic Banking Performance In Nigeria

Okeke, Clement Ikenna

Abstract
Against the backdrop of the great promise and benefits of e-banking in Nigeria witnessed by the tremendous rise in its usage and application, this study sought to determine the issues and challenges arising from it from the perspective of customers. To be able to generate data for the test of formulated hypotheses, we elicited data from 304 respondents drawn from the population of end-users of e-banking services in Lagos metropolis. The hypotheses were tested at 95% level of significance using Z test of proportion and the following deductions made: the deployment of e-banking causes banks to lose customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine; e-banking has an effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks; and e-banking has an effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers. In conclusion we observed that e-banking has been firmly established in Nigeria but it is however yet an imperfect payment system. To perfect it, we made recommendations on sustaining the benefits of e-banking and empowering customers to take greater advantage of it, sustaining the capacity of e-banking to make the society safer by reducing the need to carry/store cash, and measures and strategies for retaining customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not machines.

Background Of The Study
The most profound change in the Nigerian banking environment is perhaps, the advent of electronic banking (e-banking). E-banking refers to the effecting of banking instructions by electronic means. This process eliminates the use of paper in executing customers’ instructions. It incorporates information management to facilitate on-line transactions by organizing, routing, processing and tracking transactions.

The three broad types of e-banking are internet banking (where customer’s instruction is obtained and discharged through the internet), Smart Card Banking (the conduct of banking transactions through the use of electronic cards - value card, ATM card, cash card, etc) and mobile/telephone banking (the conduct of banking through the use of phones).

The benefits of e-banking are numerous as witnessed by the consequential reaction of a tremendous rise in usage and application. The potential appears to be unlimited, ranging from virtual banks to e-cash. Through faster information dissemination, e-banking enables transactions to be requested and processed faster than any other means of banking. By allowing customers to enjoy services anytime, anywhere, e-banking provides convenience to them. It also enables coverage of prospects in the advertisement of banks’ services since these can be viewed from all parts of the world. More importantly e-banking enables wider service capacity of banks and promises to bring about better security of money since most times physical cash does not get to change hands.

In-spite of its promises, e-banking faces a myriad of issues and challenges. There are many risks associated with it and great many disadvantages linked to it. The disadvantages include the huge capital outlay needed to deploy and maintain it, fraud (it is possible to commit fraud through e-banking) and human factor – some persons would usually prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine. How we deal with these risks and disadvantages will define the future of e-banking in Nigeria.
Nigeria can overcome the challenges of e-banking and take advantage of its opportunities by drawing some lessons from its own experiences. After about six years of full implementation of
e-banking by all Nigerian banks, the time is ripe to sit back and reflect on how e-banking has fared and chart the way forward.

**Statement Of Problem**

The central problem in this study was to assess the performance quality of e-banking vis-à-vis customers. This assessment would help in determining the gaps in expectations and performance that exist and proffer measures and strategies that would close the performance quality gaps and make e-banking operations effective and efficient and mutually beneficial to banks and their customers and the Nigerian society.

The implementation of e-banking by Nigerian banks has been bedeviled by many hiccups. These include great losses to electronic frauds suffered by banks. According to Godwin (2008) internet fraud targeting financial institutions is an emerging challenge in Nigeria. Financial institutions reportedly lost N7.2b to this threat in 2007. Many customers have complained of hidden and escalating charges by banks. Writing on ‘banks’ charges and supervision by CBN: ‘Issues Arising’ Sobowale (2008) noted that what is supposed to be the guide to Bank charges is not only out-dated (effective January 1, 2004) but does not cover bank charges especially the ones deriving from e-banking. The consequence is that users of e-banking facilities are left at the mercy of banks.

**Research Objectives**

The central objective of the study is to identify the critical issues and challenges that have been thrown up since the emergence of e-banking in the Nigerian banking industry and recommend measures and strategies for addressing them and ensuring that e-banking fulfils its promises of consumer convenience and enhanced profitable banking operations.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

1. Establish the extent to which the deployment of E-banking is affecting the ability of banks to retain customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not machines.
2. Ascertain the extent to which e-banking has impacted on the level of frauds and incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers in the society.

**Formulation Of Hypotheses**

The following hypotheses deriving mainly from the research questions are formulated:

1. Ho: Deployment of E-banking has no effect on customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine.  
   Hi: Deployment of E-banking has an effect on customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine.

2. Ho: E-banking has no effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks.  
   Hi: E-banking has an effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks.

3. Ho: E-banking has no effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.  
   Hi: E-banking has an effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.

**Significance Of The Study**

Specifically, the findings and recommendations of the study will reduce the present challenges customers are facing in accessing e-banking services. Such challenges will cover privacy, fraud, hidden charges, and delivery channel platform failures, among others. Customers will also be better informed on how best to avail the benefits of e-banking services while mitigating the challenges. Better informed e-banking service users will conduce to greater understanding and
cooperation between them and those serving them. It will also lead to better appreciation of the liabilities and responsibilities of the customers in engaging in e-banking transactions with the vendors. Technology will only be useful to man, or its usefulness maximized when it is deployed to serve human beings, the way they want to be served. This study will establish gaps as perceived by customers in the way technology is delivering e-banking services. It will also proffer measures for filling the identified gaps and ensuring that critical needs of man are adequately served by appropriate technology.

Definition Of Terms

Electronic Banking: The conduct of banking processes of deposit, payment, confirmation and enquiries through the use of electronic media (CBN, 2003).

Electronic Payment System: any transfer of funds, other than a transaction initiated by a cheque or other similar paper instruments, made through an electronic terminal, equipment or process to effect a credit or debit to the account for the beneficiary or the originator (CBN, 2003).

Internet Banking: A type of e-banking where a customer’s instruction is obtained and discharged through the internet. This sort of banking offers customers the possibility of enjoying banking services from the comfort of their homes or offices (Turker, 2000).

Human Factor: Banks losing customers who prefer being served by human beings instead of machines (Datamonitor, 2004).

Internet Fraud: The exposure of e-banking to fraudsters, hackers and other criminally minded persons who could access, retrieve and utilize confidential information from the system if appropriate security measures are not put in place to checkmate unauthorized intrusion into the system (Data monitor, 2004).

Conceptual Framework For E-Banking Service Quality Measurement

This study adopted a conceptual framework that sought to establish customers’ normative expectations of e-banking and then measured the performance perceptions of Nigerians who have used e-banking in the recent past. The customers’ expectations of e-banking are anchored on the expected benefits and advantages of e-banking as a payment instrument. These will include:

- Convenience
- Inexpensive (cost)
- Convenient bill paying medium
- 7/24 availability
- Bank from anywhere
- Security
- Safety
- Reduction in incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.

Review of Studies on E-Banking

A major study on e-banking in UK was for SMEs (Brown et al, 2004). It was a case study of Fortis Bank UK. The study focused on the UK banking industry’s current approach to meeting the banking needs of SMEs. It investigated the questions raised by the industry’s assumptions that internet banking will replace personal computers (PC) based banking as the preferred electronic channel between banks and their SME clients in the future. The case reported on the 2-year project at Fortis UK to develop and sell an internet business banking service to its SME clients. SME response was unexpectedly negative. It is therefore not always that an internet banking channel will replace PC based banking as the preferred electronic channel by SME clients.
A Nigerian based e-banking study was carried out by Eze (2001). The study was a critical examination of Information Technology Strategic Variables from Developing Countries’ Perspective: the case of banking industry. This descriptive cross-sectoral, survey research examined the degree of impact that the strategic application of IT on competitive rivalry, customer acquisition, retention, products/services, cost reduction, alliances/mergers, and government requirements could likely have in making Nigerian banks domestically and globally competitive. The survey was conducted among all the solvent banks in Nigeria using a questionnaire instrument, which was a hybrid adapted from models constructed by Mahmood and Soon in 1991 and Palvia in 1997 to measure the impact of strategic IT-variables on a domestic/global firm. The analysis was broken down into large, medium and small-sized banks and ranking methodology developed for the analysis. The findings suggested that the variables competitive rivalry, customer acquisition/retention, cost reduction and alliances/mergers could likely have the greatest impact on competitive advantage through the strategic application of IT for small-sized banks. The findings further revealed that the variable products/services could likely exert the greatest impact on competitive advantage for medium-sized banks, while the variable government requirements could likely have the greatest impact on competitive advantage for large-sized banks.

Another important study on e-banking was conducted by Anandarajan, Murgan et al (2000). The study was on technology acceptance in the banking industry: a perspective from a less developed country. The study observed that in the last decade, IT has proven to be the major enabler that has helped multi-national corporations to integrate their worldwide operations. However, studies show that many of these foreign subsidiaries, especially in less developed countries, under utilize their information systems, thus not making a significant contribution in improving the performance of organizations. Previous research, which investigated the factors that motivated individuals in accepting IT, were conducted in developed countries. Since less-developed countries differ culturally from developed countries, it is important to identify the factors which motivate individuals in these countries to accept as well as use IT. This study sought to investigate this issue. A comprehensive questionnaire on micro-computer acceptance and its resulting impact was collected from 88 users in six banks in Nigeria. The results suggested that social pressure is an important factor affecting microcomputer usage. These social variables can be extended to the acceptance of e-banking in Nigeria.

Another Nigerian study to learn from opportunities for failure with electronic commerce, a case study of electronic banking was carried out by Huang, (2003). The study reported on the experience of the First Atlantic Bank on Nigeria as it embarked on the implementation and introduction of internet and mobile banking services. Based on the concept of a logic of opposition, the study conceptualized the case company’s effort with a specific emphasis on the mode and impact of learning that occurred intra and inter-organizationally.

The case considered how being a first mover in a given market can be crucial, not more because of the opportunity for developing customers’ trust in order to ensure the success of future innovations. In addition, the case illustrates the problematic nature of evaluating the success or failure of an innovation. Further, it shows how failure can be an intermediate step to future success, while making the point, counter-intuitively perhaps that blindly listening to customers may prove to be a barrier to successful innovations. Thus, firms might capitalize from what might initially be perceived as failure, in particular through transforming an opposing force into a promoting one.

For effective functioning of e-banking in Nigeria, Ezeoha (2006) studied some success prescriptions for e-banking regulation in Nigeria. The study argued that for e-banking to assume a developmental dimension in Nigeria and for the country to be fully integrated in the global financial environment, the prevalent level of frauds in Nigeria (and among Nigerians) must first
be addressed. It suggested that the ways to do this are first to get the relevant local laws in place and in consonance with international laws and conventions; get the citizens well educated on the intricacies of internet usage and frauds as well as the regulatory implications of wrong/fraudulent uses of the internet; ensure that all the major background problems such as poverty, corruption and bad governance are addressed and; ensure adequate interface and collaborations between Nigerian local law enforcement agents and the various international agencies that are presently pursuing the cause for safe internet community.

The most comprehensive report on electronic banking in Nigeria was presented by the Technical Committee on Electronic Banking (CBN, 2003). This committee set up by CBN had 16 members drawn from CBN, NDIC and the operators in the banking sectors with the mandate to draw up a regulatory framework for the conduct of electronic banking in Nigeria. The committee relied on questionnaire as the major instrument for eliciting data from all the banks. The committee found and concluded that there are many issues relating to e-banking, and that some of them have assumed critical urgency. It recommended that CBN put in place guidelines that would ensure that, the operation of e-banking does not limit the effectiveness of CBN’s monetary policy operations, the risks associated with the channel are controlled and confidence in the banking and payment system is enhanced and market participants are fully protected. The primary objective should be to preserve the integrity of the payment system and to ensure that the role of the CBN in promoting monetary stability and managing a sound financial system is not jeopardized.

**Research Methodology**

The nature of the research work suggests survey method as the appropriate research instrument. Survey research has been “defined as the investigation of the behaviour, opinions or other manifestations of a group of people by questioning them (Anyanwu, 2008). It is also the best available method to social and management researchers who are interested in studying individuals as the unit of analysis.

The population of the study had individuals as its units of analysis. These were individual users of e-banking services. The study relied principally on the views expressed by the elements of the population studied in testing formulated hypotheses.

Questionnaire was the principal instrument used in eliciting data from relevant elements of the study population. The questionnaire had two sections. Section one covered the profile of the respondents. Section two contained questions that produced data used in testing formulated hypotheses. To facilitate the completion and analysis of the questionnaires, options were provided for the questions. Respondents were however allowed to provide their responses outside the options given where appropriate.

To enhance the validity and reliability of the questionnaire as a measuring instrument, we subjected the draft to a peer review and the second draft to a pre-test. The result of the pre-test exercise led to the restructuring of redundant and inclusion of new questions as appropriate. Given that the population size of electronic banking services users in Lagos could not be precisely determined, we relied on the result of a pilot survey. In the survey, 20 customers visiting the five banks (4 from each) were surveyed. They were asked the question: do you use electronic banking services in your bank? It was discovered that 30% answered yes while 70 percent answered no. This pattern of response encouraged us to use the formula for sample size for proportion:

\[ n = \frac{Z^2 \cdot pq}{e^2} \]
Where

\[ \cap = \text{required sample size} \]

\[ Z = \text{statistical value corresponding to desired confidence level (5\%)} \]

\[ P = \text{the approximate value of those who answered yes.} \]

\[ Q = 1 - P = \text{the estimated proportion of those who answered no.} \]

\[ e = \text{the maximum acceptable margin of error.} \]

Applying this formula, we determined the sample size to be approximately 330. The sample size of 330 was divided evenly among the five banks to arrive at 66 for each. The 330 respondents were selected using convenience sampling. The first willing 330 customers visiting the five banks within the two weeks the questionnaire was administered were surveyed. This gave a response rate of 92.12%.

**Presentation, Analysis And Interpretation Of Data**

In this section, the data elicited from the respondents are analyzed, presented and interpreted. Out of the 330 questionnaires administered, 304 were returned and analyzed.

**Analysis Of Customers Data**

In this section, data collected from customers who were familiar with E-Banking and have had personal transaction relationship involving E-Banking are analyzed and presented. We first analyzed the bio-data of the respondents and followed up with general analysis of data relating to formulated hypotheses.

**Profile of Respondents**

The variables of profile covered such bio-data as gender, age, marital status, highest educational qualification, sectoral employment and annual income of respondents. The analysis showed the following:

- The gender distribution of respondents was 65.46% and 34.54% for males and females respectively.
- The age distribution of respondents in a descending order is 34-41 years (33.88%), 42-49 years (28.29%), 26-33 years (18.42%), 50-57 years (17.43%) and 58 years and above (0.99%).
- The age brackets 34-41 years and 42-49 years when combined accounted for 62.17% of the respondents.
- The marital status distribution of the respondents showed that 254 (83.56%) of the respondents were married. The remaining respondents were single (14.47%), divorced (1.64%) and widowed (0.33%).
- The highest educational qualification distribution of the respondents was PhD (1.97%), Masters (28.62%), B.Sc/HND (34.21%), OND/NCE (2.63%), SSCE/GCE (1.32%) and Professional qualifications (31.25%).
- The distribution of the annual income of the respondents is arranged in a descending order thus; N1m – N3m (43.09%), less than N1m (31.58%), N3m – N5m (14.8 0%), N5m – N7m (4.61%), N7m – N9m (1.97%), N9m – N11m (1.64%), N11m – N13m (1.32%) and 13m and above (0.99%). While the highest annual income bracket is N1m – N3m (43.09%) the lowest is N13m and above (0.99).

**General Analysis of Customer Data**

In this section we present the analysis of core research questions for the study. The key data analyzed here were used in testing formulated hypotheses. We started by establishing that the
respondents had been engaged in transactions with Nigerian banks. This is very important because only individuals who have had previous dealings with Nigerian banks can make objective assessments of them. The analysis showed that all the respondents have had previous engagements and transactions with Nigerian banks. They were therefore in a good stead to comment on the banks.

The researcher felt that it would not be enough for respondents to have just engaged in transactions with Nigeria banks. He wanted to be sure that they have had firsthand experience of e-banking in Nigeria. He therefore, required them to confirm their familiarity with e-banking in Nigeria. Their responses showed that all the respondents were familiar with e-banking in Nigeria. Having had firsthand experience of e-banking in Nigeria, the researcher was confident that the respondents were knowledgeable and therefore in a good position to assess the performance of Nigeria banks with respect to e-banking.

Having established that respondents have actually engaged in e-banking in Nigeria, we sought to establish the e-banking channels they have recently used. Their responses showed in a descending order the following:
- ATMs (24.39%)
- Deposit notification (13.74%)
- Electronic Fund Transfer (11.2%)
- Mobile banking (SMS) (10.93%)
- Pay Direct (10.37%)
- Internet/Web Banking (9.91%)
- Telephone banking (6.64%)
- Credit Card (5.89)
- PC Banking (3.64)
- Debit Card/electronic purse (2.99%)
- others (0.37%)

Banks should note the major channels of e-banking mostly used by customers.

### Table 1: E-Banking Makes Banks’ Customers To Enjoy Services Anywhere And Anytime At Their Convenience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>61.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>36.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>304</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 1 shows 188 (61.84%) of the respondents strongly agreeing that E-banking made banks customers to enjoy banking services anywhere and anytime and consequently enhanced their banking convenience. We note that only 1.64% of respondents disagreed that e-banking enhanced customers’ convenience.

### Table 2: E-Banking And The Committing Of Frauds In Banks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>37.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>24.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>20.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>304</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 2 shows that 150 (49.34%) of respondents agreed that e-banking facilitated the committing of frauds in banks and 25.98% of the respondents disagreed with the proposition. A significant proportion of the respondents 75 (24.68%) were undecided on this issue.
Table 3: E-Banking And The Loss Of Customers Who Would Prefer To Be Attended To By Fellow Human Beings And Not A Machine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>41.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>18.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>304</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 3 shows that while 78 (25.67%) of the respondents agreed that e-banking caused banks to lose customers who preferred to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine, 182 (59.87%) disagreed. We note that 44 (14.47%) of the respondents were undecided on this issue.

Table 4: E-Banking And The Reduction Incidents Of Robbery Attacks On Cash Carriers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>57.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>28.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>304</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 4 shows that a great majority of respondents 263 (86.52%) agreed that e-banking made the society safer by reducing incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers. Only 11.18% of the respondents disagreed with this proposition and a smaller percentage (2.3%) was undecided on the issue.

Table 5: Rating Of Nigerian Banks In Delivering E-Banking Transactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>42.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>16.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>304</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 5 shows the rating of Nigerian Banks in delivering e-banking transactions on a scale of poor to excellent. In a descending order, the respondents rated Nigerian banks good (42.11%), very good (34.87%), fair (16.78%), excellent (5.26%) and poor (0.99%)

Table 6: Extent Of Customer Satisfaction With The Overall Delivery Of E-Banking Services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alternative</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Highly satisfied</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>12.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat satisfied</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>75.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indifferent</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somewhat dissatisfied</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly dissatisfied</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>304</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 shows 268 (88.16%) of the respondents were satisfied with the overall delivery of e-banking services by Nigerian banks. Nevertheless 6.58% and 5.26% of the respondents were dissatisfied and undecided with the overall delivery of e-banking services in Nigeria.

We conclude that the extent of customer satisfaction with the overall delivery of e-banking services in Nigeria is high.

Table 7 Respondents Assessment Of The Benefits Of E-Banking In Three Dimensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Significantly High</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Significantly Low</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduced Transaction Costs</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>20.72</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>29.93</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ATM and Internet Channels are cheaper than tellers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect Information</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>17.76</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>32.24</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Information is readily available to all market participants on multiple providers because there are sites that aggregate information on product offerings)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect competition</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>22.04</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>31.91</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Internet brings about transparent pricing and aggregation of buyers and sellers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 7 shows the assessment of reduced transaction costs in a descending order to be high (29.93%), moderate (28.95%), significantly high (20.72%), low (10.20%) and significantly low (10.20%).

We note that on the aggregate 51.65% of the respondents assessed reduced transaction costs as a benefit of e-banking to be at least high.

On perfect information through which e-banking aggregates information on product offerings on particular sites, the aggregate assessment is at least high (50.0%) with moderate accounting for 26.97%, only 23.03% of the respondents assessed this benefit to be at least low.

Concerning perfect competition, through which internet brings about transparent pricing and aggregation of buyers and sellers, the assessment is 53.95% (at least high), 25.99 moderate and 20.07% (at least low)

On the aggregate, the three benefit dimensions are assessed high (51.54%), moderate (27.30%) and low (21.16%). We conclude that the benefits are important and highly rated but still need to be reinforced in order to raise the level of customer satisfaction with e-banking service.

Table 8: Extent To Which Respondents Will Adopt Emerging Opportunities In E-Banking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>0 No</th>
<th>1 Some Extent</th>
<th>2 Large Extent</th>
<th>3 Fully</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Invoice payment management (receipt point for company bills).</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(18.09%)</td>
<td>(40.13%)</td>
<td>(22.70%)</td>
<td>(19.08%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Online credit cards payment</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(12.83%)</td>
<td>(31.47%)</td>
<td>(33.55%)</td>
<td>(18.42%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Online mortgage applications</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(17.76%)</td>
<td>(38.16%)</td>
<td>(27.30%)</td>
<td>(16.78%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Person-person e-mail payments (real time payment to anyone with an e-mail address).</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(18.75%)</td>
<td>(32.24%)</td>
<td>(29.61%)</td>
<td>(19.41%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td>205</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(16.86%)</td>
<td>(36.43%)</td>
<td>(28.29%)</td>
<td>(18.42%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The emerging opportunities in e-banking assessed were invoice payment management, online credit cards payments, online mortgage applications and person-person e-mail payments. Table 4.8 shows that an aggregate of 16.86% of the respondents will not adopt the emerging opportunities while 18.42% will fully adopt them. In between we have 36.43% and 28.29% of respondents that will adopt the emerging opportunities to some extent and large extent respectively.

Table 9: Assessment Of The Disadvantages Of E-Banking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Very significantly</th>
<th>Significant</th>
<th>Insignificant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>77 (25.33%)</td>
<td>133 (43.75%)</td>
<td>94 (30.92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fraud</td>
<td>93 (30.59%)</td>
<td>131 (43.09%)</td>
<td>80 (26.32%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human factor (prefer being attended to by human beings and not a machine)</td>
<td>62 (20.39%)</td>
<td>109 (35.86%)</td>
<td>133 (43.75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>232 (25.44%)</td>
<td>373 (40.90%)</td>
<td>307 (33.66%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 9 shows the assessment of cost to be significant (43.75%), insignificant (30.92%) and very significantly (25.33%). A total of 69.08% of the respondents considered the cost disadvantage of e-banking to be at least significant. For fraud as a disadvantage factor of e-banking, a significant majority of 73.68% of the respondents considered it to be at least high. Human factor as a disadvantage element of e-banking attracted 56.25% respondents assessment of at least significant. On the aggregate 66.34% of the respondents considered the disadvantage factors of e-banking to be at least significant. 33.66% thought otherwise.

Table 10: Assessment Of The Advantages Of E-Banking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Very Important</th>
<th>Important</th>
<th>Unimportant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Faster processing</td>
<td>244 80.26</td>
<td>58 19.08</td>
<td>2 0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience (customers can enjoy services anywhere, anytime)</td>
<td>252 82.89</td>
<td>51 16.78</td>
<td>1 0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wider coverage (advertisement can be viewed from all parts of the world)</td>
<td>198 65.13</td>
<td>92 30.26</td>
<td>14 4.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service capacity (more people can be served at the same time)</td>
<td>199 65.46</td>
<td>96 31.58</td>
<td>9 2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security (reduces carrying of physical cash)</td>
<td>242 79.61</td>
<td>58 19.08</td>
<td>4 1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>1,135 74.67</td>
<td>355 23.36</td>
<td>30 1.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 10 captures the assessment of faster processing advantage of e-banking to be very important by 80.26% of the respondents. The convenience advantage was assessed even better as 82.89% of the respondents assessed it to be very important. The advantage factor that attracted the least assessment is wider coverage. Only 65.13% of the respondents considered this to be very important. The advantage factor that attracted the lowest assessment of unimportant is convenience with 0.33% of the respondents.
We conclude that the advantage factors of e-banking were generally considered to be very important by the respondents.

Test Of Hypotheses
The 3(three) hypotheses formulated for the study were tested at 95% confidence level using Z test of proportion for data generated from 304 customers surveyed.
The formula used for Z statistics is:

\[ Z = \frac{x - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \]

Where
\[ x = \text{respondents supporting } Ho \]
\[ n = \text{sample size} \]
\[ p = \text{probability for } Ho \text{ acceptance (50%)} \]

Decision rule: Reject Ho and accept Hi when the computed Z value is greater than the absolute Z.05 and accept Ho when the computed Z < the absolute value of Z 0.05.

Test of Hypothesis One
Ho: Deployment of E-banking has no effect on customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine.
Hi: Deployment of E-banking has an effect on customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine.
For the test of hypothesis one (1), we relied on data on table 3. We note from the table the values for the following:
\[ x = \text{Number of respondents supporting } Ho \text{ (182).} \]
\[ n = 304 \]
\[ p = 50\% \]
\[ Z = 3.44 \]
Given that computed Z value (3.44) is greater than the tabulated value of Z (1.64) and falls outside the critical/acceptance region of Ho, we conclude that deployment of E-banking causes banks to lose customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine.

Test of Hypothesis 2
Ho: E-banking has no effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks.
Hi: E-banking has an effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks.
To test hypothesis two for acceptance or rejection we relied on data on table 2. The table revealed the following as the values for:
\[ x = 79 \]
\[ n = 304 \]
\[ p = 0.5 \]
\[ \alpha = 0.05 \]
We computed the value of Z to be:
\[ Z = -8.37 \]
Given that Z (-8.37) lies outside the critical/acceptance region, for Ho, we reject Ho, accept Hi and conclude that E-banking has an effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks. The deployment of E-banking has facilitated the committing of frauds in banks.

Test of Hypothesis 3
Ho: E-banking has no effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.
Hi: E-banking has an effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.
To test the above Ho for acceptance or rejection, we relied on data on table 4. The values for Z test of proportion were derived from the as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= 34 \\
n &= 304 \\
p &= 0.5 \\
\alpha &= 0.05
\end{align*}
\]

The value of Z was computed thus:

\[
Z = -17.09.
\]

Given that the computed value of Z (-17.09) falls outside the acceptance region of ± 1.64, we reject Ho, accept Hi and conclude that E-banking has an effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers. By reducing the need to carry cash always, E-Banking makes the society safer by reducing incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.

Discussion And Interpretation Of Findings

E-Banking Channels Mostly Used By Customers

The e-banking channels mostly used by customers were shown to be ATMs deposit notification, electronic fund transfer, mobile banking and pay direct. These are the options that crossed the 10% benchmark. This finding is in agreement with relevant contemporary literature (Technical Committee on E-banking in Nigeria (CBN, 2003) and Ezeoha (2006)).

Banks are challenged to sustain the interest of customers on these channels and deploy their principal resources towards increasing their usage. The issues of why customers are mostly using these channels and how they can increase their use of them should be addressed. It should be noted that these channels are easy to use and do not require things like internet access, telephone or other gadgets.

The least used channels were identified to be internet/web banking, credit card, telephone banking, PC banking and debit card/electronic purse. These channels are not being commonly used because of the requirements of computer, internet access, computer literacy, telephone network, etc for their use. It is expected that the more infrastructure and support facilities are available, the greater the usage of the channels. There is also need to create more awareness of these channels, educate and encourage customers to use them.

Customers Preference to be served By Human Beings

E-banking is machine driven. It is believed that machines are faster and more efficient in service delivery than human beings. Increasingly therefore e-banking is relying more on machines and less on human beings in delivering banking services. Interacting with machines poses special problems. Customers must be able to follow all necessary instructions in this interaction. They must be literate and have clear sights. They must also have facilities like telephone, internet access and computers to access some of the services. These requirements are often hard to meet and therefore hinder access to e-banking services.

More importantly, we note that customers are human beings and mostly enjoy the social interaction engendered by relating with human beings. We note that human beings are better placed to relate with customers who are not sufficiently literate and those who have special needs. Machines cannot do all these. This finding is in line with Anandarajan’s (2000) conclusion that social variables can be extended to the acceptance of e-banking in Nigeria.

It is against this backdrop that we note that 25.66% of the respondents indicated that banks may likely lose customers who would prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine. 25.66% is a highly significant proportion and suggests that banks should pay attention to the issue of machines replacing human beings completely.
Need to Carry Cash and Reduction of Robbery Attacks on Cash Carriers
E-banking certainly reduces the need to carry cash by individuals and organisations. The ultimate aim of e-banking is to achieve a cashless society. The need to carry cash is reduced when e-banking provides an alternative payment system. It also gives individuals access to their money at all times of the day. Money therefore is cashed as and when it is needed. ATMs facilitate this. This finding is supported by contemporary literature (CBN, 2003, Eze, 2001 and Ezeoha, 2006). By reducing the need to carry cash, the motivation for robbery attacks is diminished. It is therefore rational that 86.52% of the respondents agreed that e-banking makes the society safer by reducing incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.

Facilitation of Banking Frauds
Does e-banking facilitate the committing of fraud in banks? 49.34% of customers and 75.0% of banks answered yes. The study therefore concludes that e-banking facilitates the committing of banking frauds. This position is in line with reviewed literature. According to NDIC, (2009) ₦10 billion was lost in 2007 and ₦17.5 billion in 2008. (http://www.thisdayonline.com) This finding poses challenges to both banks and customers. Banks are challenged to ensure that frauds from inside and outside are minimized. Customers are challenged to safeguard and protect their cards and PIN at all times and confirm their bank statements to guide against inaccurate debiting of their accounts.

Summary Of Findings
- Deployment of e-banking has effect on customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not a machine. This can cause banks to lose customers. Banks should note this preference of human beings to machines in banking transactions and ensure that human beings are not totally eliminated in e-banking channel options.
- E-banking has an effect on the level of fraud being committed in banks. The deployment of e-banking has seemingly facilitated the committing of frauds in banks. Efforts will therefore be needed by banks to build institutional and human capacities that will assist them to check electronic banking related frauds.
- E-banking has an effect on the level of incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers. By reducing the need to carry cash always, e-banking makes the society safer by reducing incidents of robbery attacks on cash carriers.
- The e-banking channels recently used by the respondents are ATMs (24.39%), Deposit notification (13.74%), Electronic Fund Transfer (11.2%), mobile banking (SMS) (10.93%), Pay Direct (10.37%), Internet/Web Banking (9.91%), Telephone banking (6.64%), Credit Card (5.89), PC Banking (3.64), Debit Card/electronic purse (2.99%) and others (0.37%). Banks should note the major channels of E-banking mostly used by customers.
- E-banking makes banks’ customers to enjoy banking services anywhere and anytime and consequently enhancing their banking convenience.
- A greater percentage of respondents agreed that e-banking facilitates the committing of frauds in banks
- The respondents are largely satisfied with the delivery of e-banking transactions by Nigerian banks.
- The extent of customer satisfaction with the overall delivery of e-banking services in Nigeria is high.
- On the aggregate 66.34% of the respondents considered the disadvantage factors of e-banking to be at least significant. 33.66% thought otherwise.
the advantage factors of e-banking were generally considered to be very important by the respondents.

**Conclusion**

Based on tested hypotheses and major findings of the study, we came to the following conclusions that:

- The extent of customer satisfaction with the overall delivery of e-banking services in Nigeria is high. E-banking has the following positive attributes: enhanced banking convenience and reduction of the need for individuals to carry cash and consequently reduction in robbery attacks on cash carriers. Conversely, e-banking is facilitating the committing of frauds in banks, customers being attended to by machines and risks associated with banking transactions being significantly high.

- The emergence of E-banking and its wide deployment by all the banks and increasing acceptance by many Nigerians are realities of a nation emerging as a modern economy. It is hard to imagine banking and payment systems in Nigeria outside the electronic channel options. E-banking has been firmly established in Nigeria. It is however yet an imperfect system. Low level of literacy and internet access, poor telephone network coverage and functionality, inadequate infrastructural support and ICT platforms of banks are all challenges denying Nigerians of the full benefits/advantages of e-banking.

**Recommendations**

Deriving from the findings and in addressing the objectives of the study, we proffered the following recommendations.

- **Sustaining the benefits of E-banking and empowering customers to take greater advantage of it.**
  
The benefits of e-banking are enormous and increasing. As the system gets better, customers will be better served, more satisfied and willing to adopt new e-banking services. Banks are challenged to seek to record improvements in their delivery of e-banking services. Investments in appropriate technology cannot be over-stressed in achieving this. Provision of infrastructural facilities by governments at all levels will assist banks in the noble task of rendering excellent services to customers. As the quality of e-banking services improves, there is need to empower customers through promotional efforts to become aware, try, accept and patronize the services more frequently and consistently.

- **Sustaining the capacity of E-banking to make the society safer by reducing the need to carry/store cash.**
  
Making the society safer by reducing the need for individuals and corporate bodies to carry cash is a major positive contribution e-banking has made to all stakeholders. The capacity of e-banking to sustain and deepen this benefit should be enhanced. Banks should pursue this strategic objective by spreading and deepening the e-channel options that facilitate access to cash and payment at points of sale. Extensive use of cards and ready availability and accessibility of ATMs and POS terminals will lead to the realization of a cashless society. This will surely reduce the need to carry cash and demotivate cash robberies.

- **Measures and strategies for retaining customers who prefer to be attended to by fellow human beings and not machines.**
  
Machines drive e-banking channels. It must also be noted that e-banking like other forms of transactions is a social phenomenon. Human beings should continue to be part of the cycle. We recommend that banks should find creative ways of integrating human beings into e-
banking without sacrificing efficiency that is the hallmark of e-banking. We only urge that the system and process of e-banking should not totally eliminate human interactions.

References


Audience Assessment of NTA’s Reportage of the Boko Haram Crisis in Northern Nigeria

**Sunny Udeze, PhD**

And

**Okechukwu Chukwuma**

**Abstract**

Mass media exists primarily to serve public good. This they do with up-to-date happenings in the society. These happenings include amongst others, the outbreak of crisis. In line with the various documents and agencies regulating the operation of the media, emphases have always been made for the media not just to report but to adequately report daily events for the consumption of the audience. One unacceptable development in Nigeria that has attracted even the foreign media is the Boko Haram crisis-a development which (as argued by scholars and other media audience) often give birth to conflicting media reports. However, could this be said of NTA reportage of the Boko Haram crisis? The above question formed the fulcrum on which this study revolved. Survey research methodological approach was employed to ascertain the assessment of the residents of Enugu metropolis on the reportorial angles of NTA as it concerns the Boko Haram crisis. Using Taro Yamane formular, a sample of 400 was drawn from a total population of 717,291 which (according to the 2006 census figures released by the National Population Commission) is the population of the three local government areas that constitute Enugu metropolis. Questionnaire served as the instrument for data collection. To this end, 400 copies of the questionnaire were administered to elicit responses from the respondents, using systematic random sampling technique. At the end of the study, it was unveiled, amongst others, that the audience believed NTA has not given adequate report of the Boko Haram crisis. In line with the findings of the study, it was recommended amongst others that NTA must as a function of utmost necessity shun biased/one-sided reports (always supporting the government) and give a good account of the crisis. NTA must also include more of discussion/analytical programmes where in-depth and incisive discussions will be held with conflict experts, victims and the residents of the area who are eye-witnesses of the conflict. This will help create proper understanding of the issues at stake in order to facilitate early resolution of conflict.

**Introduction**

Conflict is no doubt a malaise that has continued to ravage virtually all parts of the world. It engenders stagnation as well as retrogression in all facets of life. It equally engenders acrimony and hatred amongst the inhabitants of a given society. Development communication scholars (Bright 2010, Charles 2009, Kane 2010) have contended that no development agenda (be it political, economic, social etc) can thrive in the midst of crisis. They further contend that crisis enthrones underdevelopment and impoverishes the people.

Several countries of the world have witnessed and are still witnessing one form of crisis or the other. The Liberian war, Somalian crisis, Rwanda’s genocide, Sierra Leonean war, Libyan crisis, Bahrain unrest, clampdown on Yemen, and the Syrian conflict are obvious instances of the above assertion. The outcomes of these conflicts, amongst others, have been devastating and painful.

Crisis in Nigeria has been an integral part of her structure. Right from the amalgamation of the Northern and Southern protectorates by Lord Luggard in 1914, the country has known no peace. It has been one form of crisis in the North or the other in the South with many of them having ethno-religious undertones.

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Of all the ethnic and religious related crises painted above, none has threatened the very foundation of the Nigerian State like the current crisis masterminded by the Boko Haram sect. The Sect which is officially known as Jama’atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda’awati wal-jihad (Arabic language) has orchestrated series of deadly attacks which has left hundreds of lives and properties destroyed. These attacks which started in July 2009 when the Nigerian Police started investigating the sect following reports that it was arming itself, have gone sophisticated with bombs detonation every now and then (www.wikipedia.com/bokoharm.origin).

The sect which opposes western education, culture, modern science and democracy was formed in 2002 by late Ustaz Mohammed Yusuf in Maiduguri, Borno State. Boko Haram, which literally means western education (Boko) is sinful (Haram), is believed by many as a break-away republic from the deadly Maitatsine Group of 1980s. In fact, the history of Boko Haram is as elusive as the group itself and studies on the group remain inconclusive about its origin. According to some sources, the group has evolved from various efforts by extremists’ elements dating back to the 1940s through the end of the 1990s that sought to radicalize various segments of northern Nigeria. To some other sources, Boko Haram started in 1995 as Sahaba and was initially led by Lawan Abubukar, who later left for the University of Medina in Saudi Arabia for further studies. Late Yusuf Mohammed who was killed in a controversial circumstance in 2009 by men of the Nigerian Policies Force was said to have taken over the leadership after the departure of Abubakar and indoctrinated the sect with his own teaching which he claimed were based on purity and Sharia law.

Shortly after his take over, he commenced what many described as intensive membership mobilization after his first release from police custody in November 2008 in Maiduguri. This intensive mobilization recorded huge success. He allegedly had over 500,000 members before his demise and usually taxed them one naira, which approximated to N500, 000 daily (Madike, June 2011). The Almajiri system in the north made this mobilization easy.

To nip the festering crisis in the bud, the late president Umaru Yar’Adua ordered the deployment of the military to contain those government described as dissidents. After initial resistance, Boko Haram fell to the superior fire power of the military, and Yusuf, its leader, was arrested and handed over to the police. Hours later, police executed Yusuf alongside his alleged sponsor, Alhaji Buji Foi, who was the Commissioner for Religious Affairs during the first term of former Governor Ali Modu Sheriff of Borne State.

Despite the death of the once dreaded Yusuf, the group has continued its attacks. In fact, the insurgence has just gone critical and has indeed assumed a very dangerous dimension. From the time the group was formed to the present day, it has carried out lots of successful attacks most of which were bomb blasts which have left hundreds of people dead and properties destroyed. Some of these deadly attacks are the August 26, 2011 bombing of the United Nation’s Building in Abuja which left over 25 persons dead with several others seriously wounded and the Christmas day bombing of St. Theresa’s Catholic Church, Madalla, in Suleja Local Government Area of Niger State which left 43 people dead and several others injured. (Emewu, 2011, Suzan, 2012).

With these attacks, Nigeria was ranked 19th “most at risk” country from terrorist attack in the world, according to a survey released on August 2011 by UK-based Global Analysts, Maplecroft. With this ranking, the country is now among countries that are at an “extreme risk” from terrorist attacks. Nigeria’s current status according to Maplecroft is attributed mainly to the uprising by the militia sect (Bakare, August, 2011).

Several attempts made by the government to stop this group from carrying out deadly attacks on the Nigerian nation have not produced any result. The deployment of military personnel and police to flash points of Yobe, Maiduguri, Bauchi, Niger and Abuja, have made situation worst as the group has become so sophisticated. Unarguably, the group has defiled all solutions. Nigerian security community is quite helpless as it has been stretched very thin. The
June 16th 2011 bombing of the Police Headquarters in Abuja, is a pointer to this fact. Some have even argued that the political and financial support the group receives from northern politicians and Al Qaeda has made it impossible for the federal government to dislodge it. Several panels set up by the government have not equally helped matters. In the face of all these, the question is, what role can the media play since other institutions seem to be failing Nigerians?

The media whether traditional or modern have over the years, been seen as agents of change. Certainly not always positive or always negative but alternates from one to the other and vice versa. Human beings on the other hand crave for change, preferably, a continuous positive change. But this is quite impossible because the human condition by nature makes this an unattainable goal. In effect, there is a breakdown of order, not only within the self, but also outside the self, stretching towards man’s immediate environment and beyond. When this happens, there is breakdown of the process of smooth flow of information from one source to the other. This bridegroom of the communication process usually arises either because one of the parties sees himself as deliberately disadvantaged or imagines himself disadvantaged irrespective of the true state of affairs (Anyanwa, 2004, p.110). In most cases, one sees his belief system or religion as superior to that of others. Because of human nature in him, he tries to prove this, which usually results to a serious conflict. All these boil down to perception. Brody (1987, p.73), stated that human beings perceptions are their realities when they believe they are ill treated, they behave accordingly, even where reality is quite different.

This perception, whether real or not, usually arises as a result of inadequate information or the absence of an information at all. This is the catalysts to conflict. In other words, the mass media can both generate and solve conflict; the former through inciting coverage, inadequate reporting, none reporting etc, the latter can resolve conflict or crisis through objective and balanced reportage; adequate and non-sensational reportage; and surveillance reportage (Anyanwa, p.110).

In the face of the current security crisis in the country orchestrated by Boko Haram sect, the mass media can play an effective role in resolving the crisis through adequate coverage. The surveillance function of the media (beware surveillance) must be effectively played, to warn people of an impending danger. Through effective reportage, those perpetuating the crisis can have their perception changed, and peace loving Nigerians can equally step up their security consciousness.

Statement of the Research Problem

Over the years, insecurity resulting from various violent activities of militia groups and ethno-religious unrests has threatened and continues to thwart the craze for socio-economic and political growth of societies the world over. Boko Haram insurgency has only come to worsen matters in the Nigerian socio-economic, religious and political landscape. The sect through several attacks and bombings with High Improved Explosive (HIE) has brought to question the ability of the country’s intelligence community in this regard. This is perhaps the worst in the anal of the nation’s security history since the end of the civil war in 1967.

In the search for global peace, the mass media, being the forerunner in promoting development, consequent upon peace, have continued to use their various communication strategies like news reporting not only to avert violence and strife, but to douse tension when the chips are down. Most times, those aggrieved are provided with alternative platform in the media to air their grievances instead of taking to arms. Studies have shown that through adequate, balance and objective reportage, people who hitherto would have taken to arms to express their displeasure are informed, enlightened and most importantly convinced to seek the option of dialogue or legal redress.

However, how the mass media, especially the Nigerian Television Authority which are caught between sensationalizing stories to boost patronage and objectively informing the people
play this role, is another matter altogether. Many have come to accuse the broadcast media especially government owned NTA of being biased in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis. Is this truly the case with NTA’s reportage of the current crisis?

The researchers were therefore interested in finding out how NTA has so far reported the crisis. The surveillance function of the media was subjected to an empirical test to find out whether NTA effectively performed this function in their reportage of the Boko Haram crisis. The researchers also ascertained whether NTA took adequate cognizance of the principle of objectivity in their reportage of the crisis.

**Objectives of the Study**

To give this study a focus, the researchers raised the following objectives;

1. To find out whether NTA adequately reported the Boko Haram.
2. To ascertain whether NTA was timely in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.
3. To find out whether NTA has effectively played the surveillance function of the media in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.
4. To ascertain whether NTA has contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its report.

**Research Questions**

In line with the objectives of this study, the following research questions were asked;

1. Has NTA so far given adequate coverage to the Boko Haram crisis?
2. Has NTA been timely in the reportage of Boko Haram crisis?
3. Has NTA effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis?
4. Has NTA effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis?

**Research Hypotheses**

Four hypotheses were formulated for the study. They are;

**Hypothesis One**

Hi: NTA has adequately reported the Boko Haram crisis.
Ho: NTA has not adequately reported the Boko Haram crisis.

**Hypothesis Two**

Hi: NTA has been timely in its reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.
Ho: NTA has not been timely in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.

**Hypothesis Three**

Hi: NTA has effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.
Ho: NTA has not effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.

**Hypothesis Four**

Hi: NTA has effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reportage.
Ho: NTA is not yet to effectively contribute to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reportage.

**Significance of the Study**

The imperativeness of this study lays on the fact that conflict resolution experts and scholars alike have not come up with (if any) enough concrete research data on Audience Assessment of NTA’s Reportage of the Boko Haram Crisis. This inspired the researcher to
embark on this study. Thus, a study of this kind shall provoke the emergence of other similar studies in this area.

Again, findings of this study will serve as a reference point for broadcast media practitioners (especially television) on how best to cover crisis of this nature in order to better serve their audience(s).

The intelligent community (Police, SSS, Military etc) will equally find the outcome of this study valuable since it will enable them know how best to use the media during security challenges like this.

More so, institutions of learning (universities, polytechnics, colleges of education, etc) shall as well find this work very helpful in the teaching and learning of conflicts and media studies.

**Literature Review**

Insurgencies, terrorism and other forms of conflicts are very devastating developments that easily attract adequate media coverage globally. In postcolonial Nigeria, we have witnessed war and other forms of ethno-religious conflicts which research findings have unveiled that these conflicts received adequate media attention. Bola (2010, p.83) affirmed the above when he revealed in his study that conflicts in Nigeria have consistently received maximum media coverage. Timiebi (2010, p.45) agreed with the finding of Bola when he revealed in his study that the Niger Delta Militancy crisis was adequately covered by the Nigerian mass media, particularly, the broadcast media. Remi (2010, p.31) also agreed with Bola and Timiebi when he also found out from his study that the media gave adequate coverage to Jos crisis.

Apart from adequacy of coverage, the criterion of timeliness is very important. It is a fundamental and an expedient criterion for newsworthiness. For news (especially hard news) to make the desired impact, timeliness is a core demand. It is a yardstick amongst others, which is always employed to assess the worthiness of an event. Laying credence to the above assertion, Okunna (1999, p.46), affirmed that “the quality of newness is the most fundamental of the criteria for determining what should qualify as news”. Supporting Okunna’s assertion, Uwakwe, (2005, p.50), affirmed that;

> The more recent an event is at the time of going to air or publication, the more timely and interesting it becomes. The closer the event, the more interesting it is; currency gives news life. Remember, “Nothing is as dead as yesterday’s news”. This “latest development” gives news its last minute effect.

Obviously, the factor of timeliness is no doubt very necessary when reporting events, including the emergence of crisis. Code 1.4.3 of the Nigerian Broadcasting Code asserts that;

> In calling attention to crisis, timely basic information shall be provided to assist the public and to facilitate rescue and other forms of amelioration. In so doing, the practitioners shall be protected by the commission.

The above assertion is no doubt, an obvious attestation to the necessity of timeliness in conflict reportage. In fact, it is very correct to state here that timeliness is a social responsibility which places a demand on the media to give timely account of events. Here, it goes far beyond
just giving account of events. Rather, timely account is seriously expected of the media. This is very fundamental. Ozoh, (2000, p.2), opined;

News is often regarded as a perishable commodity. Therefore, it must be timely if it is to have value. This is in the sense that if an account of an event is not rendered as soon as it happened, such an account may become stale later on. In essence, therefore, one of the principle consideration in deciding on the newsworthiness or not of an event is whether an account of such an event at the given time is timely…. Television and radio excel in this regard.

Furthermore, Okunna, (p.46), in agreement with the assertion of Ozoh, affirmed that;

Timeliness is the newness of news. A newsworthy event should be reported after the shortest possible time interval following its occurrence. Otherwise, it ceases to be news.

More so, Ngwu, (2000, p.38), opined that;

We regard news as a perishable commodity. As such, it must be timely in order to have value. This is in the sense that you render an account of an event as soon as it happened. In other words, the account must have recency. If the account is not timely, the news becomes stale.

Ngwu, (p.52) further contends that ―because news has always been regarded as a perishable commodity, which is capable of getting sour, and coupled with competition from other mass media organizations, the reporter always find himself faced with deadlines for filling news reports‖.

In Nigeria, scholars have contended that the media have not been timely in their reportage of conflicts. Afolabi (2010, p.63) lends credence to the above assertion when he unveiled in his study that the Nigerian media have not fared well in timely reportage of insurgencies, particularly the Niger Delta crisis. Yusuf (2010, p.92) agreed with Afolabi when he equally found in his study that the media have failed in giving timely account of Jos crisis. Ikenna (2009, p.101) further lends credence to the above findings when he unveiled in his study that the Nigerian media have not been very timely in their account of events, especially insurgencies.

Another core responsibility of the media is the surveillance function. Here, the media are expected to bring to the consciousness of the public impending dangers. This function places a demand on the media to cover, analyze and report significant developments within and outside a given society. Lasswell (1984) in Odigbo (2003, p.178), opines that “they (mass media) watch over, guard and alert society of impending problems and often proffer the way forward”.

Studies have revealed that the Nigerian media have not fared well in this regard. Okpara (2010, p.31) unveiled in his study that the Nigerian media are yet to effectively play the
surveillance function of the media in their reportage of conflicts. He contended that this has led to the unabated conflicts in Nigeria. Okali (2011, p.75) lends support to the above finding when he unveiled in his study that the Nigerian media have not done well in discharging their surveillance role, particularly in the Boko Haram crisis.

In reporting daily occurrences, including the outbreak of conflicts, the media, despite the ownership pattern are generally expected to display a real sense of objectivity. They must ensure balance and fairness in their reports. This implies that their reports must be free from bias. To guarantee this, all parties involved must be given equal attention. Stories must not be one sided. Facts must be separated from opinions. All over the world, virtually the entire broadcasting codes and journalism ethics emphasize objectivity in news reportage. In Nigeria for instance, code 3.3.3 of the broadcasting code states that “all sides to any issue of public interest shall be equitably presented to ensure fairness”.

Also, code 2 (i) of the code of ethics for Nigerian journalists affirmed the above when it states that;

The public has a right to know. Factual, accurate, balance and fair reporting is the ultimate objective of good journalism and the basis of earning public trust and confidence.

Unfair and unbalanced journalism is capable of eroding away public confidence in the reporter or the media organization. (Udoudo and Bassey, 2001, p.43).

In Nigeria, it is very expedient to ask how the media have fared in upholding objectivity, particularly during conflicts. Ademola and Okeke (2011, p.14) confirmed in their study that the Nigerian media have been biased in reporting crisis in Nigeria. Oputa, (2011, p.67) also unveiled in his study that objectivity was not observed in media coverage of the Niger Delta crisis. Lawrence (2011, p.99) equally revealed in his study that the Nigerian media, particularly the broadcast media have been biased in their reportage of the Boko Haram insurgency. He further contended that their reportage of the insurgency have most often glorified the act of terrorism.

Theoretical Underpinning

Theories are maps of realities. This implies that they help to give explanations as to why things occur the way they do. They serve as clarifiers of events. This indicates that theories are relevant tools to ensure clarity of events.

Consequent on the above, this research is anchored on the framing, individual differences and social responsibility theories.

Framing Theory

This is a fundamental and unique theory which lots of media houses have adopted and utilized in their day to day operations. The theory opines that the way media frame words in their reportage impacts on public understanding of the issue and consequently determine their responses. Fairhurst and Star (1996, p.2), assert that “a frame refers to the way media and media gatekeepers organize and present the events and issues they cover, and the way audience interpret what they are provided”. This theory is similar to the agenda-setting theory. Frames influence the perception of news by the audience, this form of agenda setting not only tells what to think about, but also how to think about it. (fairhurst et al, 1996, p.3).
Accordingly, the way and manner the Nigerian broadcast media frame words in their reportage of the Boko Haram insurgencies impacts seriously on the perception of the public on the issue. It determines to some extent, how the public perceive the Boko Haram insurgency.

**Individual Differences Theory**

This theory seeks to explain the differences amongst human beings in terms of their reactions or responses to issues. Wogu, (2008,p.119) asserts that “this approach holds that each and every member of the audiences possesses unique qualities, which accounts for the differences in behaviour”. One strong reason mass media messages cannot have the same effect on all members of a mass media audience is because there are individual differences in personality characteristics among such members. (Bittner, 1989).

In line with this study, the differences in the psychological trait of Nigerians largely affected their responses on how the broadcast media reported the Boko Haram insurgency.

**Social Responsibility Theory**

This theory according to Ndolo, (2005, p.35) “owes its origin to an American initiative – the 1947 Hutchins Commission on the freedom of the press”. The theory emerged as a result of the fact that the unlimited freedom advocated by the libertarian theory can be abused. Ndolo, (p.35) asserts that “the idea arose from fears expressed that free market of ideas was been threatened by ownership restrictions to rich individuals or large corporations”.

This theory opines that the media must discharge their duties responsibly. In their bid to report events, they must display high sense of responsibility by reporting accurately. Theodore Peterson, in sandman et al (1972, p.170) as cited in Ukonu (2007, p.32), gave credence to the above assertion when he stated that “the press is obliged to be responsible to society for carrying out certain essential functions of mass communication in contemporary society to the extent that the press recognizes its responsibility and makes it the basis of operational policies”. Also affirming the above assertion, code 2 (ii) of the code of ethics for Nigerian journalists, asserts that “a journalist should refrain from publishing inaccurate and misleading information….“ The implication of this code is to enforce responsibility in the practice of journalism in Nigeria.

Accordingly, in the emergence of a critical and very disturbing situation like the Boko Haram insurgency, the media (broadcast media) owe the public a responsibility to come up with prompt, balanced, accurate, objective and well verified reports. They must acknowledge the fact that they exist to serve the public and as such, they have a duty of not just serving the public, but serving them responsibly. This is the thrust of the social responsibility theory.

Consequent on the above, it can be stated here that the extent to which the Nigerian broadcast media observed this responsibility in their reportage of the Boko Haram insurgency went a long way to determine the kind of responses that were elicited in this study.

**Methodology**

Survey research method was employed for this study. Survey research method entails the collection of standardized information from a specific population or sample by means of questionnaire. This type of research method is the most appropriate when the goal is to sample the opinions of persons on issues.

The population of this study is the entire residents of Enugu Metropolis. According to 2006 census, the population of Enugu Metropolis is 717291.
Table 1: Population Distribution of Enugu Metropolis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>L.G.A</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enugu-East</td>
<td>131,214</td>
<td>145,905</td>
<td>277,119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enugu-South</td>
<td>93,758</td>
<td>104,247</td>
<td>198,032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enugu-North</td>
<td>118,895</td>
<td>123,245</td>
<td>242,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>343,867</td>
<td>373,424</td>
<td>717,291</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Taro Yamane formular was employed to draw a sample of 400 from the total population. The systematic random sampling technique was deployed for this study. This sampling technique is considered most appropriate for this study because it gives everybody in the population equal chance of being selected. Questionnaire served as the measuring instrument. Tables and percentages were used to present and analyse the data while chi-square was used to test the hypotheses.

Test of Hypotheses

The researcher used Chi-square formula as his statistical instrument for testing the hypotheses.

Chi-square formula

\[ X^2 = \sum \frac{(of - ef)^2}{ef} \]

Where of = observed frequency
ef = expected frequency
\[ \sum \] = summation

\( X^2 \) distribution is worked out by the value of its Degree of Freedom (df). Contingency Table was equally used to work out the Expected Frequencies

Decision Rule: Reject the null (Ho) hypothesis and accept the research / alternate (Hi) hypothesis if the calculated \( X^2 \) value is greater than the Table Value

Expected Frequency (fe) = \( \frac{\text{Total Roll} \times \text{Total Columns}}{\text{Grand Total}} \)

Degree of Freedom (df) = (Roll - 1) (Column - 1)

Hypothesis One

Hi: NTA has adequately reported the Boko Haram crisis.
Ho: NTA has not adequately reported the Boko Haram crisis.

Tested Data: Data collected and presented in table 2 was used to calculate the expected frequency

Table 2: How the Respondents rate NTA Reportage of the Boko Haram Crisis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Adequate</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t Say</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in the table above indicate that 116 respondents representing 29.4 percent said that NTA adequately covered the Boko Haram activities, 220 respondents said that NTA did not give adequate coverage to the Boko Haram activities while 58 respondents representing 14.7 percent could not say anything in that regard.
Table 3: Contingency Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>65 (65.1)</td>
<td>51 (50.9)</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Adequate</td>
<td>123 (123.4)</td>
<td>97 (96.6)</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t Say</td>
<td>33 (32.5)</td>
<td>25 (25.5)</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>221</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>394</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expected Frequency Calculation

\[
ER = \frac{\text{Roll Total} \times \text{Column Total}}{\text{Grand Total}}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roll</th>
<th>Cell</th>
<th>(x)</th>
<th>(-)</th>
<th>394 =</th>
<th>65.1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
<td>65.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
<td>50.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>220</td>
<td></td>
<td>123.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>220</td>
<td></td>
<td>96.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>58</td>
<td></td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Chi-Square Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Of</th>
<th>Ef</th>
<th>of-ef</th>
<th>((of-ef)^2)</th>
<th>((of-ef)^2/ef)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>-.1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td>123.4</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>-.5</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>394</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(X^2\) value calculated = 0.02

To find degree of freedom:

\[
df = (R - 1)(C - 1)
\]

\[
3x1
\]

\[
df = 3
\]

Level of significance = 5% = 0.05

At 3 significant level, the table value is 7.815

**Decision Rule:** Reject Ho if the \(X^2\) calculated value is greater than the table value and vice versa.

Since the calculated value (0.02) is less than the table value (7.815), the null hypothesis was accepted and the alternate rejected. This therefore means that NTA has not adequately covered the Boko Haram crisis.

**Hypothesis Two**

Hi: NTA has been timely in its reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.

Ho: NTA has not been timely in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.

**Tested Data:** Data collected and presented in table 6 was used to calculate the expected frequency
Table 6: Whether NTA was Timely in Reporting the Boko Haram attacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>58.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Information in Table 6 above shows respondents’ responses on whether NTA been timely in reporting the Boko Haram’s attacks. The table shows that 165 respondents representing 41.9 percent said that NTA has been timely in reporting the Boko Haram attacks, while 229 respondents said that NTA has not been timely in reporting the Boko Haram crisis.

Table 7: Contingency Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>93 (92.6)</td>
<td>72 (72.4)</td>
<td>165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>128 (128.4)</td>
<td>101 (100.6)</td>
<td>229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t Say</td>
<td>33 (32.5)</td>
<td>25 (25.5)</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>394</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expected Frequency Calculation

\[ E_{ij} = \frac{R_i \times C_j}{Grand \ Total} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roll</th>
<th>Cell</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roll 1</td>
<td>Cell 1</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>92.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll 1</td>
<td>Cell 2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>72.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll 2</td>
<td>Cell 1</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>128.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll 2</td>
<td>Cell 2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>100.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Chi-Square Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Ef</th>
<th>of-ef</th>
<th>(of-ef)^2</th>
<th>(of-ef)^2 / ef</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>93</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>128</td>
<td>128.4</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>100.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>394</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

X^2 value calculated = 0.007

To find degree of freedom

\[ df = (R - 1)(C - 1) \]

\[ df = 2 \times 1 = 2 \]

level of significance = 5% = 0.05

at 2 significant level, the table value is 5.991

Decision Rule: Reject Ho if the X^2 calculated value is greater than table value and accept the Hi if the reverse is the case. Since the calculated value (0.007) is less than the table value (5.991), the null hypothesis was accepted and the alternate rejected. This therefore means that NTA has not been timely in the coverage of the Boko Haram attacks.

Hypothesis Three

Hi: NTA has effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.
Ho: NTA has not effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in the reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.

Tested Data: Data collected and presented in table 9 was used to calculate the expected frequency

Table 9 Whether NTA has effectively played the Surveillance function of the Media in Reporting the Boko Haram crisis?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>36.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>249</td>
<td>64.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>394</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data in the table above show that 145 respondents representing 36.8 percent are of the view that NTA has effectively played the surveillance function of the media in reporting the Boko Haram crisis while 249 respondent representing 64.2 percent said NTA has not effectively played the surveillance function of the media in reporting the Boko Haram crisis.

Table 10 Contingency Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NTA</td>
<td>81 (81.3)</td>
<td>64 (63.7)</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIT</td>
<td>140 (139.6)</td>
<td>109 (109.3)</td>
<td>249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>394</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Expected Frequency Calculation

\[ ER = \frac{\text{Roll Total} \times \text{Column Total}}{\text{Grand Total}} \]

Roll 1, Cell 1: 221 x 145 = 394 = 81.3
Roll 1, Cell 2: 173 x 145 = 394 = 63.7
Roll 2, Cell 1: 221 x 249 = 394 = 139.6
Roll 2, Cell 2: 173 x 249 = 394 = 109.3

Table 11: Chi-Square Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Of</th>
<th>Ef</th>
<th>of-ef</th>
<th>(of-ef)^2</th>
<th>(of-ef)^2/ef</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>81</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>139.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>109</td>
<td>109.3</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>394</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.0038</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

X^2 value calculated = 0.0038

To find degree of freedom

\[ df = (R - 1) (C - 1) \]
\[ = (2 - 1) (2 - 1) \]
\[ = 2 \times 1 \]
\[ = 2 \]

Level of Significance = 5% = 0.05, at 2 significant level, the table value is 5.991.
**Decision Rule:** Since the calculated value (0.0038) is less than the table value (5.991), the null hypothesis was accepted while the alternate was rejected. This therefore means that NTA has not effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in reporting the Boko Haram crisis.

**Hypothesis Four**
Hi: NTA has effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reportage.
Ho: NTA has not effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reportage.

**Tested Data:** Data collected and presented in table 12 was used to calculate the expected frequency.

**Table 12: Whether Respondents agree that NTA has effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reports.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>29.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>55.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t Say</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>394</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the response of the respondents on whether NTA has effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis. 116 respondents, representing 29.4 percent agreed that NTA has effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis, 220 respondents, representing 55.8 percent disagreed while 58 respondents, representing 14.7 percent indicated can’t say.

**Table 13: Contingency Table**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreed</td>
<td>65 (65.1)</td>
<td>51 (50.9)</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagreed</td>
<td>123 (123.4)</td>
<td>97 (96.6)</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can’t Say</td>
<td>33 (32.5)</td>
<td>25 (25.5)</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>221</strong></td>
<td><strong>173</strong></td>
<td><strong>394</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Expected Frequency Calculation**

\[
ER = \frac{\text{Roll Total} \times \text{Column Total}}{\text{Grand Total}}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roll</th>
<th>Cell</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roll1</td>
<td>Cell1</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll1</td>
<td>Cell2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>116</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roll2</td>
<td>Cell1</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roll2</td>
<td>Cell2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>220</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roll3</td>
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<td>221</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>58</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roll3</td>
<td>Cell2</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 14 Chi-Square Table**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Of</th>
<th>Ef</th>
<th>of-eff</th>
<th>(of-eff)^2</th>
<th>(of-eff)^2/ef</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>50.9</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.0002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td>123.4</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
X² value calculated = 0.02
To find degree of freedom
\[ df = (R - 1) (C - 1) \]
\[ (3 - 1) (2 - 1) \]
\[ 3 \times 1 \]
\[ df = 3 \]

Level of significance = 5% = 0.05
At 3 significant level, the table value is 7.815

**Decision Rule:** Reject Ho if the X² calculated value is greater than the table value and vice versa.
Since the calculated value (0.02) is less than the table value (7.815), the null hypothesis was accepted and the alternate rejected. This therefore means that NTA has not effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reportage.

**Summary of Findings**
Four hypotheses were formulated and tested using chi-square goodness of fit. Results from the test revealed that the entire four null hypotheses were accepted while the alternate hypotheses were all rejected. Consequent upon the above, four findings were revealed. Below are the findings:
1. NTA has not adequately covered the Boko Haram crisis.
2. NTA has not been timely in its reportage of the Boko Haram crisis.
3. NTA has not effectively played the surveillance function of the mass media in reporting the Boko Haram crisis.
4. NTA has not effectively contributed to the resolution of the Boko Haram crisis through its reportage.

**Conclusion**
As affirmed earlier, this study focused on unraveling the perception of the audience on how NTA has so far reported the Boko Haram crisis. To prosecute this goal, four objectives were raised, from where four research questions were drawn and four hypotheses were consequently formulated and tested. Based on the results from the test of the four hypotheses, the researchers conclude that NTA has failed in reporting the Boko Haram crisis. This is because effective and responsible journalism demand that fundamental issues like the Boko Haram crisis must be given adequate media attention. In critical development like the Boko Haram crisis, the media must do away with biased and sycophantic reports. NTA is yet to fully take cognisance of this fact in reporting the Boko Haram crisis. Taking a critical look at NTA reports of the crisis and data obtained from this study will give credence to the above facts.

**Recommendations**
Following the findings of this study, the researcher hereunder makes the following recommendations.
1. NTA and other government owned broadcast stations in general must, as a function of utmost necessity give adequate coverage to the Boko Haram crisis and other conflict related outbreaks. This is an important demand which they must satisfy. The people need to be informed about developments around them. It beholds on the media to play this role by effectively notifying the public on developments around them. They (NTA and other
government owned broadcast stations) must understand that the information function is the core reason for their establishment which they must at all times uphold.

2. NTA and other government owned broadcast stations must as well take serious cognizance of the fact that timely reports, (especially on conflicts) go a long way to determine the value of such a report. Ngwu and Ozoh (2000) all affirmed that news is a perishable commodity which often requires timely report to make the desired impact. NTA and others alike must endeavor to promptly satisfy this criterion of newsworthiness. They must understand that timely reports in times of crisis can go a long way to save lives or curtail the level of damage that would have occurred. It will help attract the attention of relevant rescue agents and other well-meaning Nigerians in order to put the situation under control.

3. As stated earlier, the surveillance function of the media empowers the media to keep watch of the environment and report any perceived impending danger. NTA and by extension, other government owned broadcast media must imperatively recognize this function. They must at all times efficiently carry out what researchers call “environmental scanning” to detect impending dangers and notify the audience accordingly. This, to a large extent, enables the audience to either avert the danger or adjust for minimal effect. NTA and others alike must scan the environment and notify the public on the activities of Boko Haram to enable the people in and around the affected areas position or reposition to avoid any form of victimization. Also, reports as a result of surveillance can as well help the security agents to put the situation under control. Surveillance function is an indispensable role.

4. Furthermore, NTA and others alike must acknowledge that journalism thrives on the platform of objectivity. They must ensure they uphold objectivity by reporting events the way they are without adding or subtracting. Just as the NUJ code of ethics asserted, all sides of the issue must be given equal attention. Often, there have been situations where government broadcast stations downplay/misrepresent the number of causalities in the various Boko Haram mayhem. To effectively observe this (objectivity), facts must be separated from opinions. This form of factual journalism secures the confidence of the people and as well enhances the credibility of the media outfit.

5. NTA must effectively apply the tenets of peace journalism and shun unbalanced (one sided) journalism-always supporting the government in their reports. Instead of relying more on government as their source, they need to incorporate a wide range of sources to accommodate not just government views but the views of others involved in the conflict. This will provide the platform for rivalry sides to communicate with each other in order to enhance conflict resolution.

6. Government must restrain itself from interfering in the running of NTA and other broadcast stations alike. Just like Ogbuoshi (2010, p.45) asserted, “Privately owned media enjoy more freedom than government owned media. Government must give NTA the freedom to effectively account on developments without any or much interference in their reportage. In line with this recommendation, code 1 of the NUJ code of ethics affirmed that “decisions concerning the content of news should be the responsibility of professional journalists”. Government has no constitutional powers to decide for the media the kind of news to accept and air. They must allow professional journalists to do their job.

7. Conflict sensitive journalism should be initiated and taught in journalism schools, mass communication departments and other journalism related fields in Nigerian tertiary institutions. This will enhance a better understanding of the dynamics of conflicts by journalists and as well engender a more responsible reporting of conflict situations in the news media.
8. Further studies should go beyond Enugu metropolis and widen the scope of study for an all encompassing result which will either uphold or refute the findings of this study.

References


Promoting the Demand For Private Universities In Nigeria: A Survey of Representative Private Universities

By
Onyemaechi Joseph Onwe

Abstract
The problem focus of this study is two-fold: the rising need for university education and strategies for promoting demand for private universities in Nigeria. The study aimed at contributing to educational policies and manpower development in Nigeria, with special emphasis on strategies for promoting the administration and demand for private universities. The methodology is purely that of the survey design, requiring administration of research questionnaire and drawing inferences based on responses to the relevant research questions. The process involved a survey of selected representative private universities in the Western part of Nigeria as such universities appear more prevalent in this geographical area than other areas in Nigeria. A survey of literature on the promotion of private universities worldwide was also found necessary. With appropriate statistics and analytical tools, the study found as follows: first, the need for product, promotion, pricing and planning strategies for effective administration and promotion of private universities in Nigeria; second, the need to build public trust in the operation of private universities in Nigeria; third, the most important factor responsible for recent emphasis on the establishment of private universities in Nigeria is the efficacy of free market mechanism in the allocation of resources, as well as cultural change concerning pedagogy and the desire to apply modern teaching techniques; fourth is the existence of unique promotional problems requiring unique solutions in private universities in general; and, fifth, the fact that the problem of matching theory with practice in Nigeria arise from lip-service attention paid to programmes’ needs assessment. Based on these findings, the study recommends as follows: a service/product strategy that stresses stakeholders’ needs; a promotion strategy that involves persuasion and influence; and, a pricing strategy involving price limits and planned price variations.

Keywords: Demand, Private universities, Promotion, Pedagogy, Chi-square, Marketing, Cultural change, Needs assessment.

Introduction
The emergence of private universities in Nigeria has been long standing, but it was of recent that the federal government, through its education policies, began to appreciate its economic significance. This was made visible by the number of private universities and polytechnics being approved in recent times. Such approvals were in response to recent crisis associated with access to public higher education institutions.

Available statistics indicate that, between the years 1999 and 2005, only about 11 percent of total JAMB applicants were admitted to Nigerian universities on the average (Federal Ministry of Education, 2007). This discouraging education statistics is a cause for alarm, given the relative importance of education in economic development. Nigerians can therefore, appreciate the need for private universities.

The evolving issue has been centered on how the emerging private universities can be effectively developed and managed to meet the demand in Nigeria. This researcher is guided by the proposition that marketing will be an effective strategy in the development of the private higher education industry. We are also guided by the literal view that marketing is more than mere institutional presentation and the generation of information. It is also the development and delivery of educational and auxiliary services for which there is a desire or need or both, at a price and under financial arrangements that permit the intended beneficiaries to take advantage of the services (Litten, 1980: 43).

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School of Management Sciences
National Open University of Nigeria
It is a general theoretical belief that the attention given to the marketing of higher education had focused on the benefits that formal adoption of marketing principles and techniques could bring to individual institutions. The attention of this study will be focused on the role of marketing in the promotion and development of private universities in Nigeria as a whole, and not individual universities. This article is systematically organised as follows: Section 2 reviews the relevant literature; section 3 summarises the methodology. In section 4, we present the results and discussions; and, in section 5, the article concludes with recommendations for the way forward in promoting demand for private universities in Nigeria.

**Review of The Relevant Literature**

The collapse of Communism in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe had brought about a lot of changes on the world scene. Breslen (1999) notes that a remarkable development was the emergence of institutions of higher learning in the private sector. This privatization of higher education is a worldwide phenomenon. The trend could have far-reaching consequences not only for higher education, but also for the social and economic development of many countries. Referring to the growth in private universities in Asia, for example, Bray (1998:1) observes that one striking feature of the decade is the advance of the capitalist modes of production in almost all parts of Asia. In addition, this development were found apparent even in countries that have for long operated capitalist economies but have had government protected education system. The major manifestation of the change has been the advance of privatization in countries. The World Bank (1994:5) underlines the significance of this trend by pointing out that private institutions are important elements of some of the strongest higher education systems to be found today. They can respond efficiently and effectively to changing demand, and increase educational opportunities with minimal educational cost. Societies now regard higher education as more of a “private good” than public good, with limited immediate and positive externalities to justify public support. This has been one immediate justification for privatization of public tertiary institutions.

Observing the trend in marketing activities of the 1970s, Kotler (1979: 38) argues that, of all the classic business functions, marketing has been the last to arrive in the nonprofit scene. Historically, nonprofit organizations were only interested in accounting systems financial management, personnel administration, and formal planning. Because educational institutions operated in a sellers market, marketing was ignored.

It is of interest to note the basic reason for the recent worldwide interest in the promotion of demand for private universities. It appears the major reason is the migration to the free-market ideologies

Quddus and Rashid (2000: 487 – 516) observe that since 1990, new universities have emerged in the private sector in such countries as Bangladesh, Pakistan, Bulgaria, Hungary, Russia, Cyprus, and Bolivia. The same trend can be observed in Nigeria and other developing African countries. Sources indicate that as of December 2006, out of about 89 universities in the country, 32 were private universities (see Appendix 1).

Based on the timing of these trends, Quddus and Rashid (2000: 490) argue that even if there are disconnected events without a coherent plan or a well-defined agenda, they all are outgrowths of the social, economic and political milieu of our times. The pendulum of opinion among people and governments worldwide has swung away from the expectation that the state apparatus will deliver goods and services. It has rather, shifted to a new faith in the efficacy of free market mechanisms to allocate resources most efficiently. In the last decades of the 20th century, the social and intellectual climate worldwide has significantly changed in favour of the private economy. Though many public companies have been privatized in many countries, including
Nigeria, following recent political developments, to the best of our knowledge, know public university has yet been privatized.

The increasing interest in the promotion of the demand for private universities can be attributed to the following factors (Baskerville, 1998):

1. **The Cultural Change Concerning Pedagogy.** Many scholars are of the opinion that the contributing factor in the recent growth of interest in private universities is the general dissatisfaction with the pedagogical methods prevailing in public universities, and a desire to use modern teaching techniques.

2. **Realisation of the Importance of Human Capital in Development.** The most critical investment for a developing economy is training and educating the workforce. And, investing in higher education represents one of the best investments a nation can make toward long-term economic and social well being.

3. **Growth in International Education.** Another important factor is the increasing supply of educators from other countries that were trained in and familiar with institutions of higher learning.

4. **Willingness and Ability of Private Entrepreneurs to Invest in Higher Education.** One of the very significant factors in the growth of private higher education all over the world is the rising willingness and ability of entrepreneurs to support these institutions.

5. **Expected contributions of university graduates to economic development.** The most important reason for the establishment of private higher education in most economies is its expected contributions to economic development. According to Quddus and Rashid (2000), a good university produces graduates whose human capital is essential for the difficult process of nation-building.

Additionally, an important rationale for special attention to the promotion of demand for private universities focuses on the existence of a number of characteristics of services that have been consistently cited in the literature. These include: intangibility, inseparability of production and consumption, heterogeneity, and perishability (Lovelock, 1981; Berry, 1980; Bateson, 1977; Bateson, 1979; Carmen and Langeard, 1980; Upah, 1980: 61; Gronroos, 1978; Langeard et al, 1981; Kingsley, 1979). Appendix 2 summarises the problems arising from each of the above service characteristics. The appendix also indicates the marketing strategies suggested in the literature for overcoming these problems.

The Nigerian government recognizes the role of education in human capital development by asserting that the survival of Nigeria as a viable society depends on the innovativeness of educational institutions. The government believes that the role of education in the development of a society is very important, and as such, there is need to pay close attention to the sector. This is because the socio-political and economic developments of a nation are determined by the quality and level of educational attainment of the population. In view of the government transformation agenda and the realization of Vision 20:2020, the education sector must be strengthened to produce higher quality workforce (National Bureau of Statistics, 2010). A viable approach would be the promotion of private universities and the demand for their academic programmes. The federal government’s efforts to encourage university education have been reflected in the increasing number of universities in the country since 2006 (see table 1 below).

**Table 1: Number of Universities in Nigeria, 2006 - 2010**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Student Enrolment in Nigerian Universities, 2006 - 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2008</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All Universities</td>
<td>765,522</td>
<td>109,6059</td>
<td>661,493</td>
<td>577,029</td>
<td>605,068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal</td>
<td>464,025</td>
<td>610,072</td>
<td>433,950</td>
<td>340,524</td>
<td>339,364</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>277,043</td>
<td>448,618</td>
<td>187,279</td>
<td>191,565</td>
<td>218,861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>24,454</td>
<td>37,369</td>
<td>39,264</td>
<td>44,940</td>
<td>46,843</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Federal Ministry of Education

As can be observed from table 2, student enrolments in private universities showed an upward trend from 2006 to 2010. This was due to an increase in the number of private Universities commencing academic programmes during the period, as well as the preference of candidates for these institutions given the more stable and predictable academic calendar compared to public universities. Figure 1 summarises the trend in student enrolments in Nigerian universities between 2006 and 2010. The year 2007 witnessed a peak in university enrolments. Since then, it appears there have been some declines in the enrolment of students, except for the year 2010. Part of the observed decreases in student enrolments between 2006 and 2009 can be attributed to the then observed instability in the academic calendar of federal universities, due, perhaps, to continuous strikes in the university system. The upward trend observed in 2010 can be attributed to the emergence of private universities in Nigeria.

Figure 1: Student Enrolment in Nigerian Universities, 2006 - 2010

Methodology
The research design involved a survey of selected respondents from four private universities in the Western part of Nigeria who were knowledgeable and able to provide relevant information on the promotion of demand for private universities. The design is guided by the following basic research questions: what are the relevant strategies for promoting the demand for private universities in Nigeria?; what does it take to build public trust in the operation of private universities in Nigeria?; what are the factors responsible for the recent emphasis on establishment and approval of private universities in Nigeria?; what are the theoretical assumptions about the promotion of demand for private universities?

The design was also guided by the following testable hypothesis: “Observed problems of matching theory with practice in the Nigerian educational institutions arise from lip-service attention paid to programmes’ need assessment.”

Relevant data were from: (i) primary information through questionnaire responses; and, (ii) secondary information from published articles, books, and statistical bulletins.

The study population was determined by the available secondary data from the selected representative private universities in the western part of Nigeria. The sample size was determined statistically as 164 respondents. Selection of respondents was by simple random sampling through the use of the table of random samples. To ensure maximum response rate, a fixed response questionnaire were administered face-to-face to 164 employees of the representative private universities.

Relevant questionnaire instrument was designed to elicit responses requiring simple analytical procedures in the form of question-to-question analysis, as well as the application of non-parametric test-statistic.

Data Analysis, Results, and Discussions
The analytical procedure applied simple statistical techniques, such as simple percentages and chi-square test-statistic, on responses to the research questions.

The research results and discussions draw from responses to our research questions, as well as from secondary information in the literature.

In the first research question, we attempt to find out the relevant strategies for promoting the demand for private universities. Both the research literature and the survey information are of the view that the relevant strategies for promoting demand for private universities include, among others: (i) product strategy, which stresses stakeholders’ needs; (ii) promotion strategy, involving persuasion and influence through personal selling and advertising; and, (iii) pricing strategy, which involves the task of setting initial price range for a given service, as well as planned price variations. A good pricing strategy must reflect the value of the need being satisfied and the purchasing power of the stakeholder.

In the second research question, we attempt to find out what it takes to build public trust in the operation of private universities in Nigeria. As expected, our survey responses indicate that the best way to build public trust in the operation of private universities in Nigeria involves the following activities: maintenance of ethics, ensuring that tuition costs are affordable, and just-in-time service delivery.

In the third research question, we attempt to identify the factors responsible for recent emphasis on the establishment and approval of private universities in Nigeria. The literature notes that, apart from the efficacy of free market mechanism to allocate resources, the increasing interest in the establishment of private universities can be attributed to the following factors: (i) the cultural change concerning pedagogy, which alludes to the general dissatisfaction with the pedagogical methods prevailing in public universities in Nigeria; (ii) the desire to use modern teaching techniques; (iii) realisation of the importance of human capital in development; (iv) breaking the Socialist Monopoly in higher education. Growth in international education; (v) increasing...
supply of educators from other countries that were trained in and familiar with institutions of higher learning; and,
(vi) willingness and ability of private entrepreneurs to invest in private universities.
It is worthy of note that good private universities can strengthen the private sector in general and effectively produce and deliver high quality, advanced education, which the public universities have often failed to do.
The fourth research question was aimed at enumerating the theoretical assumptions about services marketing in general and, specifically, in private universities. Our findings indicate the following theoretical assumption: there exist unique marketing problems in the services of private universities, with unique solutions. These problems include, among others, (i) non-storability; (ii) inability to protect services through patent; (iii) difficulties in displaying or communicating the features of their services; (iv) difficulties in setting prices; (v) non-involvement of stakeholders in curriculum development; (vi) difficulties in centralised mass production of services; (vii) difficulties in standardization and quality control; and, (viii) difficulties in inventorisation.
Another important finding is the validation of the hypothesis that the problem of matching theory with practice in Nigerian educational institutions arise from lip service attention paid to programme needs assessment. The result of our chi-square analysis indicate a statistical evidence that proves that the problem of matching theory with practice in Nigerian educational institutions are due to lip service attention paid to programme needs assessment.

Conclusion and Recommendations
This study was guided by some basic research questions on: the relevant strategies for promoting the demand for private universities in Nigeria; what it takes to build trust in the operation of private universities in Nigeria; factors responsible for recent emphasis on the establishment of private universities in Nigeria; and, the theoretical assumptions about the promotion of demand for private universities in general. The study was also guided by the hypothetical belief that problems of matching theory with practice in the Nigerian educational institutions arise from lip-service attention paid to programmes’ needs assessment. The analytical results indicate: the need for appropriate product, promotion, pricing, and planning strategies for effective administration and promotion of private universities in Nigeria; the need to build public trust in the operation of private universities in Nigeria; that the most important factor responsible for recent emphasis on the establishment of private universities in Nigeria is the efficacy of free market mechanism in resource allocation, as well as cultural change concerning pedagogy and the desire to apply modern teaching techniques; that there exists unique promotional problems in private universities in general; and, that the problem of matching theory with practice in Nigeria arise from lip-service attention paid to programmes’ needs assessment.
To promote the demand for private universities in Nigeria, the study proposes three outstanding strategies: the first is an academic strategy that stresses both the stakeholders’ needs and programmes’ needs; second is a promotion strategy that involves persuasion and influence; and, third is a pricing strategy involving price limits and planned price variations.

References


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix 1: Evolution of Universities in Nigeria: 1948 to 2006 Period</th>
<th>No. of Federal Universities</th>
<th>No. of State Universities</th>
<th>No. of Private Universities</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>1948</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1950 – 59</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960 – 69</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year Range</td>
<td>Number of Publications</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 – 79</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>1980 – 89</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990 - 1999</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000 - 2006</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Appendix 2: Unique Service Characteristics, Problems, and Marketing Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service Characteristic</th>
<th>Marketing Problems</th>
<th>Marketing Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intangibility</strong></td>
<td>1. Non-storable</td>
<td>1. Stress tangible cues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Cannot protect services through patent</td>
<td>2. Use personal sources more than nonpersonal sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Cannot readily display or communicate services</td>
<td>3. Stimulate word-of-mouth communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Prices are difficult to set</td>
<td>4. Create strong organizational image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Use cost accounting to help set prices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6. Engage in post-purchase communications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Inseparability</strong></td>
<td>1. Consumer involved in production</td>
<td>1. Emphasize selection and training of public contact personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Other consumers involved in production</td>
<td>2. Manage consumers</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Centralised mass production of services difficult</td>
<td>3. Use multisite locations</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Heterogeneity</strong></td>
<td>1. Standardisation and quality control difficult to achieve</td>
<td>1. Industrialize service</td>
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<td>2. Customize service</td>
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<td><strong>Perishability</strong></td>
<td>1. Services cannot be inventoried</td>
<td>1. Use strategies to cope with fluctuating demand</td>
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<td>2. Make simultaneous adjustments in demand and capacity to achieve a closer match</td>
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<td>between the two.</td>
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**Source:** Zeithaml et al “Problems and Strategies in Services Marketing.”
The Role of Behavioural Self-Image On Philanthropic Behaviour

Okafor Chiedozie Okechukwu*, Agu Solomon A.,
And
Ozor Tobias Obiora

Abstract
The study investigated the role of behavioral self image on philanthropic behaviour. One hundred (100) first-year students of psychology from a university in South-Eastern Nigeria participated in the study. Participants were within the age range of 17 and 28 years with a mean age of 22.5 years. One hypothesis was postulated and therefore tested for the study. The instrument for data collection was the self-description sheet devised by the researchers. The method of study is experimental, and it involves two-independent group design. Data analysis using ANOVA (f-test) indicate significant influence of self-image on philanthropic behaviour, $F(1,99) = 37.052$, $P<.05$. The results were discussed in terms of their relevance for fundraising. Thus, it was concluded that people donate more to charity when they are in negative mood, resulting from self-blame, probably as means of atonement.

Introduction
People donate to charity for many reasons ranging from altruistic to self-interest purposes (Bierhoff, 2002). Charitable donation, prosocial behaviour, philanthropy and altruism are related concepts of helping behaviour (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2007). Eisenberg and Mussen (1989) noted that while prosocial behaviours are activities that tend to promote social good, altruism is the motivation to help others out of pure regard for their needs rather than how the action will benefit oneself. Thus, not all prosocial behaviour can be classified as altruistic. Moreover, as noted by Bekkers and Wiepking (2006; 2007), philanthropy is very similar to prosocial behaviour in its definition because varied motivation influence philanthropic action. Thus, philanthropy is voluntary action for the common good, including giving, serving and association (Bentley & Nissan, 1996). Reviews in the field of social psychology have dealt with helping behaviour in general (Batson, 1998; Piliavin & Charng, 1990; Schroeder, Dovidio, Penner & Piliavin, 1995). Helping behaviour is a very broad category of actions, ranging from assisting a stranger in an emergency (Latane & Darley, 1970) to donating a piece of one’s body to a relative (Schwarz & Howard, 1980). Charity donation is also studied as an example of helping behaviour in the social psychological literature (Burt & Strongman, 2003; Andreoni &Payne, 2003). However, charitable donation is likely to be different from other forms of helping behaviour. According to Bekkers and Wiepking (2007), one crucial difference is that the recipient of charitable donations is usually absent from the context in which a donation is made. To this end, charitable donation can be classified as altruistic behaviour, and which can also by philanthropic.

Altruism theories assume that people contribute to a public good because they enjoy the well-being of others (Becker, 1974). Altruistic preferences are used to explain a wide range of prosocial behaviour: donations (Smith, Kehoe, & Cremer, 1995), volunteering (Unger 1991) and contributions in laboratory experiments like dictator games (Eckel, & Grossman, 1996; Andreoni & Miller, 2002). Altruism theories assume that individuals enjoy seeing the well-being of others increase independently of the source of the improvement. This leads to the hypotheses that people will contribute positive amounts to public goods and that their contributions are inversely related to the contributions of others. However, Roberts (1984) suggests that if other individuals contribute to public good, people will reduce their contribution by the same extent. This is the concept of “crowding out” (Titmuss, 1970). But the prediction of altruism theories that

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contributions by others will crowd out completely an individual's own contribution has been criticized on the basis of theoretical considerations (Meier, 2006). From a theoretical point of view, for example, it can be argued that in large groups, no altruist would contribute to a public good because he or she could free-ride on the contributions of others (Sugden, 1982; Andreoni, 1988). But in reality people contribute to charities like the Rotary International or Red Cross society.

Andreoni (1990) extends the altruism model with a warm-glow motive for giving. Thus, not only do people care about the utility of the recipient, they also receive some private-goods benefits from their pro-social behaviour per se. In comparison with the private good benefit (for example, prestige), the warm-glow is purely internal, derived from the donor's own knowledge of his prosocial behaviour. Psychologically, various underlying motivations—such as self—reward, negative-state relief or guilt reduction—may cause the ultimately egoistic warm glow (Bierhoff, 2002). In the cases of volunteering, self-determination and increased self-esteem may be intrinsically rewarding motives. In models of impure altruism (Meier, 2006), crowding out is never perfect because donors still receive a benefit from the donation per se. The prediction of the impure-altruism model fit better the observation that givers do not see public grants as perfect substitutes for private contributions (Duncan, 2004). Thus, people may give to charity based on other motives such as atonement for their 'sins'.

One study by Harris, Benson and Hall (1975) tested the guilt hypothesis by comparing donations among people entering a church during confession hours and people leaving church after confession, when their guilt had been reduced. Consistent with the guilt hypothesis, the former group donated more often than the latter. While the higher likelihood of obtaining social approval among coreligionists for donation may also explain these differences, another more recent study confirms that feelings of guilt promote donations (Basil, Ridgway & Basil, 2006). The study also show that feelings of guilt lead to giving by enhancing feelings of responsibility.

A survey study by Bennett (2003) has also provided evidence of a link between an altruistic self-image and philanthropy. Many studies find that dispositional empathy (measured with items like “I am a soft-hearted person”) is positively related to charitable giving (Bekkers 2006; Bekkers & Wilhelm, 2006). One study that asked individuals whether they would be more or less generous than average found that donors considered themselves more generous than non-donors (Schlegelmilch, Diamantopoulos & Love, 1997).

People's moods are related to giving, but in a complicated way (Bekkers and Wiepking, 2006). Inducing a positive mood facilitates giving, but negative moods may also facilitate giving in specific circumstances. Berkowitz and Connor (1996) found that willingness to help other people was lower after a frustrating experience than after a successful experience. In a study on philanthropy with American samples, a picture of a needy, handicapped child was found to depress giving in a door-to-door fundraising campaign presumably because it depressed the mood of potential donors (Isan & Noonberg, 1979). Dyck and Coldevin (1992) came to the same conclusion in an experiment testing the effect of no photo, a positive and a negative photograph in appeal letters. The picture with “a less pleasant, needy ‘negative’ photograph” yielded lowest response rates and contributions. In specific circumstances, negative moods can also encourage giving. Weyant and Smith (1987) found that negative moods did not decrease volunteering when doing so was relatively easy and still yielded benefits for a charity.

Charity donation is one of the experimental evidences adduced to support the theories of helping behaviour (Mellstrom & Johanessson, 2006), but little has been done to test the phenomenon against the propositions of self-image awareness (Burt & Strongman, 2003). In addition, a review of the already documented literature on charitable giving (Bekkers & Wiepking, 2007) suggests that behavioural self-image has not been related to philanthropic behaviour.
In the present study, it is expected that description of the positive aspects of the self prior to charity donation will increase the amount of money one donates to charity, because of the human need to demonstrate consistence between attitude and behaviour. Philanthropic behavior refers to a person’s effort in giving help to the less privileged as measure by the amount of money a participant is willing to donate. Behavioural self-image refers to a person’s state of mind (negative or positive) prior to donation, resulting from reflections on past behaviours, as measured by the self-description sheet developed by the researchers.

Method
Participants
One hundred (100) undergraduates comprising 50 men and 50 women from First-year psychology department from a university in the South-Eastern Nigeria participated in the study. These participants were met in their classroom on a lecture day, and selected among the entire class of first-year. The participants were within the age range of 17 and 28 years, with a mean age of 22.5 years.

Stimulus Materials
Imaginary sum of ₦100.00 which was suggested to each participant; 50 pieces of positive self-description sheet and 50 pieces of negative self-description sheet (A4) on which each participant described his or herself as requested by the experimental instructions on the sheets, four (2) black water-proof bags (1 x 2 feet) in which secrete donations proposals were made, and a wall clock (Quartz collection).

Validity and Reliability
The researchers conducted a pilot study to investigate whether the instruction on the positive self-description sheet could be used to induce pleasant emotion, and also whether the instruction on the negative self-description sheet could be used to induce unpleasant emotion. In doing this, the researchers employed the inter-judgment method. Thus, the researcher conducted a pilot study with 30 first-year students from other departments in the university. They comprised 15 male and 15 female students within the age range of 19 and 25 years, with a mean age of 22 years. On positive self-description sheet, all the participants reported that recalling their past behaviour enlightened their mood. Thus, their responses represented a 100% agreement. On the negative self-description sheet, 26 out of the 30 participants indicated reported that they felt bad recalling their negative behaviours. This 26 participants represented a 78% agreement of the the validity of the negative self-description instrument.

The reliability of the self-description instructions (positive & negative self-description instructions) was assessed by comparing a person’s score on self-description instruments with his/her scores on the Positive and Negative Affect Schedules (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988). A t-test analysis of the scores indicate a significant difference between the Positive Affect scores of participants under positive self-description and the Positive Affect scores of participants under negative self-description. Also there is a significant difference between the Negative Affect scores of participants in negative self-description and the Negative Affect scores of participants in positive self-description. These differences indicated that positive and negative self-description instruments did not elicit the same mood, and the higher means score of positive self-description instruments under positive affect schedule means that if elicited a happier mood. In scoring the participants’ donation proposal, every single note of naira (₦) that is not above ₦100 represented a single score. For example, ₦5 represented 1, ₦10 represented 2, ₦20 represented 4 and ₦50 represented 10. Therefore, ₦15 represented 3 marks, and ₦100, 20 marks. Five naira was counted as 1 because naturalistic observation and interviews conducted by the researcher on 62 retailers within the university and its environs indicate that it (₦5) is the
lowest naira denomination that could be used for meaningful purchase, consequently, it reflected in the participants’ donations in this study.

Procedure

The experiment was conducted in a big lecture hall. The experiment was conducted in one day with all the participants. Before the experiment, the researchers, in the company of 3 research assistants, greeted the class of first-year psychology students and told them that they have come to partner with psychology students on improving the academic field of psychology by finding better ways of self-understanding through self-examination. The researchers further told them that the research team was looking for young men and women who could volunteer their time, money and efforts to aid the experiments on that course. He therefore, requested that whoever wanted to participate in that experiment should remain in the hall while others were ask to leave.

Three students left, claiming they were not healthy. The class of 139 was left with 136 students. Then, the researcher signaled the 10 students who participated in the pilot study to leave the Hall too. In selecting the sample for the study, the whole class was separated into male and female students, and a simple random sampling using the “Lucky dip” technique was employed to identify the 50 participants from each pool of the partition. Thus, small pieces of papers written: “enter” and “wait” were wrapped, and participants were asked to pick. Those who picked “enter” were selected for the study. Then 20 participants from each of the groups were randomly assigned to each of the two experimental groups (A and B) making each group to have equal number of male and female participants. That is, 50 participants in group A and 50 participants in group B. The participants were required to voluntarily sign an informed consent form after an explanation of the rationale behind the experiment. However, the main purpose of the experiment was concealed from them. They were told that the experiment was aimed at finding a better way of improving self-understanding by calling to mind one’s positive and negative social behaviours. This was to avoid intentional dishonest response by participants. Each participant received a 40 leaves exercise book for participating. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

Next, the participants were given self-description sheets on which the positive and negative views of the self were expressed in order to induce positive and negative self labels. For the participants in group A, they were requested to recall the aspects of their positive self, and for participants in group B, they were instructed to recall the aspects of their negative self. At the end of the 20 minutes, two research assistants left the setting, and the researcher made a solemn solicitation. Thus, the researchers asked the participants to assume that their participation in the experiment were attached with a cash incentive of ₦100.00 and therefore, asked each of the participants to write, on top of his/her response sheet, the amount of money he/she could freely donate out of the that cash incentive to aid the progress of that experiment elsewhere. They were given 2 minutes to indicate their donations.

After that, the assistants came in; the participants were directed in such a way that females in group A gave to “female bag A”, Females in group B, to “Female bag B”; males in group A, to “male bag A”, and males in group B, to “male bag B”. At the end, the assistants came in and the participants were gathered again and debriefed before the incentives (exercise books) were distributed.

Design/Statistics

The design of this experiment is two-independent group design. It involves one independent variable with 2 levels (self image: negative and positive) on one dependent variable (philanthropic behaviour). In analyzing the data, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistics was employed.
The results of ANOVA presented in Table 1 show a significant main effect of behavioural self image on philanthropic behaviour. This indicates a significant difference between participants with positive self image and participants with negative self-image on philanthropic behaviour, F(1,98) = 37.052, p < .05.

Table 2: mean and standard deviation of role of self image on philanthropy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self image</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>positive self</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41.2600</td>
<td>8.25316</td>
<td>1.16717</td>
<td>34.00</td>
<td>54.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negative self</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30.8200</td>
<td>8.88633</td>
<td>1.25672</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>45.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>36.0400</td>
<td>10.01607</td>
<td>1.00161</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>54.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, participants with negative self image donated more money (M= 41.26, SD= 8.25), whereas participants with positive self image donated lesser amount of money (M= 30.82, SD=8.88).

Discussion

The findings of the present study show that there is a significant difference between positive self-image and negative self-image on philanthropic behaviour. This seems consistent with the findings of Bekkers (2006) and Bekkers and Wilhelm (2006) who found that dispositional empathy is positively related to charitable giving. The present finding is also consistent with the insistence of Burt and Strongman (2003), that charity donation involves a reaction to a serious condition of the self in relation to the social environment.

Observation of the mean table indicates that people with negative self image were more philanthropic. This is similar to the finding of Harris, Benson and Hall (1975) that guilt increases the chances of giving. This is supported by a more recent finding (Basil, Ridgway & Basil, 2006) which holds that guilt leads to giving by enhancing feelings of responsibility. Moreover, Bekkers (2006), Bekkers and Wilhelm (2006); Bennet (2003) found that altruistic (charitable) self-image is positively related to charitable giving.

The findings of this study have implications for psychological health and fund-raising. As reviewed earlier, altruism theories assume that people contribute to a public good because they enjoy the well-being of others (Becker, 1974). This leads to the hypothesis that people will contribute positive amounts to public goods and that their contributions are inversely related to the contributions of others. However, Roberts (1984) suggests that if other individuals contribute to public good, people will reduce their contribution by the same extent. This is the concept of “crowding out” (Titmuss, 1970). But the prediction of altruism theories that contributions by others will crowd out completely an individual’s own contribution has been contradicted by the result of the present study. Thus, it was found in this study that feelings of guilt and self-blame
aroused by negative self description could strengthen charity donation for women and men. Therefore, it is no surprise that one could give more to charity when others are not giving, as theoretically considered by Meier (2006), based on internal state.

Similarly, Anderoni (1990) extends the altruism model with a warm-glow motive for giving. Thus, not only do people care about the utility of the recipient, they also receive some private goods benefits from their prosocial behaviour per se. In comparison with the private good benefit (for example, prestige), the warm-glow is purely internal, derived from the donor’s own knowledge of his/her prosocial behaviour. Psychologically, various underlying motivations, such as self-reward, negative-state relief or guilt reduction, may cause the ultimately egoistic warm-glow (Bierhoff, 2002). Therefore, one may say that philanthropic behavior such as charity donation, including other forms of helping behavior, are avenues for atonement. To this end, it may be necessary for churches (like the Catholic Church) to request for donations from members at the point of confession – when the feeling of guilt seems to loom larger – and for fund-raising agencies to present pictures that could arouse feelings of guilt at every point of contact with a potential donor.

Like every other experimental study in social sciences, this study has some limitations. First, is the generalizability of the results. It is possible that the conclusions of the study are sensitive to the choice of the particular group that participated in the study. For example, the experiment was done with first-year students; will the results generalize to students in other years of study, and in other universities or more mature people?

To this end, further research on charity donation should involve field studies involving people of diverse age categories and experiences. This will, hopefully, widen the range of generalization, and hence, provide more valid and reliable results.

References


Strain-Based Work Interference with Family and Depersonalization among Female Teachers

Ejike Okonkwo

Abstract
Cultural values and socialization processes in Africa especially in the South-eastern part of Nigeria often leave women with majority of family (domestic) responsibilities despite their engagement in paid employment. Considering this, therefore, this study investigated the relationship between strain-based work interference with family and depersonalization among female teachers. It was hypothesized that strain-based work interference with family will not be related to depersonalization. Thus, 304 female secondary school teachers between the ages of 26 to 54 years (M= 40.37 and SD =4.09) with educational qualifications ranging from National Certification of Education to Masters of Education Degree were drawn from 24 Government Secondary Schools within Enugu, the capital city of Enugu State in the South-eastern part of Nigeria using criterion sampling technique. Okonkwo (2011) 6-item strain-based work interference with family scale and 5-item depersonalization scale drawn from Maslach and Jackson (1986) 22-item burnout inventory were administered. Correlational design was used. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used as statistical test for data analysis. Strain-based work interference with family was not related to depersonalization, r (302) = 0.07, p >.05. The result which is in contrast to findings from earlier studies conducted in Western countries was discussed in the light of individualism-collectivism cultural orientations and traditional gender-role socialization in South-eastern Nigeria, thereby highlighting cultural variations in the present and previous findings. However, it was concluded that strain emanating from work responsibilities interfering with family responsibilities had no implications for the behavior of these female teachers who have deep rooted African traditional gender-role orientation.

Key words: Strain, work interference with family and depersonalization.

Introduction
Nigerian workforce like most part of Africa and the world at large has in the recent decades experienced tremendous changes in the demographic representations of employees. Gender representation has appeared to be quite obvious in these changes. Following this evolutionary trends, more women have moved into paid employment. Thus, this has given the female gender nearly a fair representation in the world of work. Today, the role of Nigerian women has shifted from just taking charge of family (domestic) responsibilities to engagement in paid employment like the men folk. To this end they have been found to be caught between the cross role demands of work and family responsibilities which often leave them with the challenge of work interference with family. According to Okonkwo (2011) work interference with family occurs when participation in work responsibilities makes it difficult for an employee to carry out family responsibilities (e.g. cooking, washing, child care e.t.c.). It has been observed that job-related variables have strong bearing on work interference with family. According to Adeola (2005) work interference with family is primarily determined by excessive work demands and predicts negative family outcome. This excessive work demands often drain an employee’s resources resulting in strain-based work interference with family. Strain-based work interference with family is a form of work-family conflict in which strain symptoms, such as stress, pressure, tension, anxiety, and fatigue, experienced within work role intrude into the family role and affect one’s performance in it. In the case of work-family conflict, the two roles are incompatible in the sense that the strain and stress generated by work demands make it difficult for an employee to comply with the demands of family. A number of work role characteristics (including role

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ambiguity, work demands, stressors, and job autonomy) were found to be related to this form of work-family conflict (Jones & Bulter, 1980).

Both work and family domains are potentially stressful. The emotional, physical and mental demands of roles within either domain may exceed an individual’s resource (Leiter & Durup, 1996). The interdependency between the two domains may also have an impact on the other domain. Previous studies have found work-to-family interactions more highly correlated with work outcomes such as job stress (Pal & Saksvik, 2008), and family-to-work interactions more strongly related to family outcomes (Grandey & Copranzano, 1999, Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Work-family conflict and job stress directly predict burnout such as depersonalization (Schreurs & Schaufeli, 2001). It has been shown that higher the work to family conflict, greater the risk of burnout (Allen, Herst, Bruck & Sutton, 2000). Higher levels of strain-based work interference with family have been found to be associated with higher levels of burnout (Lambert, Hogan & Altheimer, 2010).

Burnout as a psychological stress syndrome characterized by depersonalization is a result of prolonged exposure to chronic workplace stress (Maslach, 2003). To this end, Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) noted that job-related stress is a direct antecedent of job burnout, such as depersonalization (Taris, Peeters & Le Blanc, 2001).

Depersonalization is the second component of burnout. This phase of burnout typically occurs after emotional exhaustion and tends to be a direct response to the stressors of the job (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). It refers to an individual’s personal detachment from work. For those who deal with people on a day to day basis (e.g. teachers), it entails treating individuals (e.g. students) as objects rather than people. Depersonalization is characterized by detachment and emotional callousness (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Employees in the depersonalization phase of burnout will take cool, distant attitude toward work and the people on the job (Maslach & Leiter, 1997).

However, in Nigeria, teaching job among other challenges exposes teachers to intense contact and involvement with students during the course of a normal workday. Also, teaching responsibilities extend beyond the work setting to the home setting (e.g. reading, preparing lesson note, and marking exam scripts et.c). Thus, these intense contact with students and extension of responsibilities from work setting to family setting almost every day are likely to expose this segment of women to work interference with family resulting in chronic strain which if not properly managed may result in treating individuals (e.g. students) as objects, detachment and emotional callousness. In view of this, therefore, this study was interested in strain-based work interference with family and depersonalization among female teachers. Thus, it was hypothesized that strain-based work interference with family will not be related to depersonalization.

**Method**

**Participants**

Participants were 304 female secondary school teachers between the ages of 26 to 54 years (M= 40.37, SD= 4.09) and with educational qualifications ranging from National Certificate of Education to Master’s of Education Degree. They were drawn from 24 State Government Secondary Schools within Enugu, the capital city of Enugu State in the South-eastern part of Nigeria using criterion sampling technique. To this end, the female teachers selected for this study met certain criteria which included spending at least one year as teachers in their respective schools, married, living with their husbands, had children (at least one) and living with their children (at least one). Widows and divorcees were not included to avoid confounding of the results.
Instrument
Three instruments were used which included demographic information, 6-item strain-based work interference with family scale drawn from Okonkwo (2011) 32-item Work-Family Conflict Scale and 5-item Depersonalization scale drawn from Maslach and Jackson (1986) 22-item Burnout Inventory.

Demographic information included age, educational qualification, rank, years of experience as a teacher, name of school, marital status, number of children, ages of children starting from the youngest to the oldest.

The item loadings of the 6-item strain-based work interference with family scale ranged from 0.53 to 0.85 and were considered acceptable for validation of the instrument since Mitchel and Jolley (2004) noted that item loading of 0.30 is good and 0.70 very high. These 6 items yielded split-half reliability of 0.79 and was accepted as a good index of internal consistency since Mitchel and Jolley (2004) noted that an index of 0.70 (and preferably above 0.80) is needed to say that a measure is internally consistent. The 6-item work interference with family scale was in Likert form and had direct scoring for all the items. Therefore, a response of strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, undecided = 3, disagree = 2 and strongly disagree = 1.

Split-half reliability coefficient of 1.00 was reported for the 5-item depersonalization scale. The 5 items had direct scoring. Therefore, a response of a few times a year = 1, many times a year = 2, a few times every month = 3, many times every month = 4, a few times every week = 5 and everyday = 6.

Procedure
Stage one, the researcher wrote officially to the Ministry of Education, Enugu State, Nigeria requesting for the number of state Government Secondary Schools within Enugu, the capital city of Enugu state and permission to use a sample of the female teachers in the schools as participants for the study. The requested information and permission were granted within two weeks of the application.

Stage two, the researcher equipped with the requested information (e.g. 24 state secondary schools and their locations) and permission, visited the principals of the schools in their schools respectively. The principals serving as research assistants enabled the researcher to go through the files of these teacher and identified those teachers who met certain criteria which included spending at least one year in the schools, married with children (at least a child of one year per teacher), living with their husbands, living with their children (at least one child per teacher). However, divorces and widows were not included.

Stage three, considering the number (N=356) of the identified female teachers who possessed these criteria and volunteered to participate in the study, the researcher selected all (N = 356) for the study. 356 copies of the questionnaire (measuring demographic variables, strain-based work interference with family, strain-based family interference with work and feeling of reduced personal accomplishment) were given to the principals who administered them to the identified female teachers in their respective schools. The participants were instructed to take the questionnaire home, study it carefully, complete it and return to the principals within one week. This was the procedure in each of the 24 schools.

Stage four; the researcher went back to the schools at the end of the exercise in each school to collect the returned copies of the questionnaire from the principals. Of the 356 copies of the questionnaire administered, 304 (85.39%) copies were properly completed and returned while 43 were returned but not properly completed and 9 were not returned. Therefore, the 304 copies properly completed and returned were used for analyses and testing of the hypotheses.
Correlational design was used. This enabled the researcher to administer simultaneously the measures of strain-based work interference with family and depersonalization.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used as statistical test for data analyses and subsequently testing the hypothesis. This enabled the researcher to study simultaneously the degree and direction of the relationship between strain-based work interference with family and depersonalization.

Table 1  
Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient on the relationship between strain-based work interference with family and depersonalization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variances</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Sum of Squares &amp; Cross Products</th>
<th>Covariance</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strain-based WIF</td>
<td>11.22</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>17621.549</td>
<td>58.157</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td>8.60</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>3849.961</td>
<td>12.706</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results as shown in table 1 indicated no relationship between strain-based work interference with family and depersonalization, $r (302) = 0.07$, $p > .05$. In other words, neither higher nor lower scores on strain-based work interference with family were related to either higher or lower scores on depersonalization. Thus, the hypothesis which stated that strain-based work interference with family will not be related to depersonalization was confirmed and accepted.

Discussion

The findings indicated that experience of strain-based work interference with family did not relate to depersonalization among the teachers. Strain from work setting when interfering with family responsibilities was not found to be linked to the teachers being detached from work, students and being emotionally callous. In contrast to this present result, Sonnentag (2001) found that work interference with family resulted in higher strain.

The findings of this study which are not in congruence with previous studies done in Europe and America could be attributed to the cultural differences between the West and Africa. According to Hofstede (1997) as cited in Gorodnicheko and Roland (2010), United Kingdom, United States of America, Netherlands are consistently among the individualist countries, while Nigeria, Pakistan and Peru are among the more collectivist countries. In view of this, individualist culture emphasizes freedom and personal achievement while collectivist culture encourages conformity and cooperation (Gorodnicheko & Roland, 2010). Going by the collectivist culture of Nigeria, it has been argued that Nigerian employees are likely to enjoy social network borne out of conformity and cooperation with coworkers. To this end, coworkers will give one another social support by working cooperatively towards common goals. This collectivist culture cuts across various work settings including teaching. Thus, social support from coworkers is likely to reduce the pressure emanating from work setting which ordinarily would spill over into family
responsibilities. In certain cases, coworkers may go out of their ways to help themselves with
domestic challenges. For instance, it is a common notion in South-eastern part of Nigeria that a
child belongs to all (Nwaora). To this end, coworkers and friends in the workplace on request can
either help to pick a colleague’s child/children from school or cover up in the workplace to enable
the colleague pick her child/children from school and attend to other domestic responsibilities. In
view of this, it has been suggested that collectivist culture among other factors could have
accounted for the teachers’ work responsibilities interfering with family responsibilities been
reduced which ordinarily would have been high and linked to depersonalization. In support of this
view, studies have demonstrated that experienced stress in either domain is related to the level of
social support in the other (Durup, 1993, Leiter, 1990). Moreover, social support is a fundamental
coping resource in that it provides people with a greater range of options when attempting to
address demands (Hobfoll, 1989).

The outcome of this study could, also, be attributed to the traditional gender-role
orientation in Africa especially in Nigeria. Precisely in South-eastern Nigeria where the
participants for the study were drawn, socialization processes saddle women with greater portion
of domestic responsibilities like childcare, cooking, laundry e.t.c. This view is in line with gender
model which contends that on the basis of sex-role socialization, women are socialized to view
their status of mother and wife as their primary role, and their social position as determined by the
family (Feldberg & Glenn, 1979). Considering this deep seated gender-role orientation, women
from this part of the world consider domestic responsibilities their preserve and take delight in
shouldering them even when they are combined with paid employment. Thus, in Nigeria, women
do not regard any form of domestic work as burden rather it is a way of life and pride of
womanhood. In view of this, if shouldering domestic responsibilities is considered an integral
part of womanhood, then it is unlikely that external burden like work responsibilities could
interfere with their family responsibilities. In addition, these women believe that proceeds (e.g.
income) from paid employment provide them with additional resources to shoulder their domestic
responsibilities. In line with this, integration of work and family leads to a net gain in resources
(psychological, material, or other), which would protect individuals from ill effects of work-life

Considering this social support engendered by collectivist culture which characterizes
Nigeria and gender-role socialization, strain-based work interference with family not found to be
related to depersonalization supports one of the assumptions of conservation of resources theory.
This assumption suggests that when individuals possess strong resource pools, they are more
likely to accept or seek opportunities to risk resources in order to gain more resources (Hobfoll,
1998). Thus, this social support from coworkers might be responsible for the strong resource pool
which enabled these working women seek opportunities to risk resources in order to gain more
resources (e.g. asking coworkers to pick their children from school or leave their job
responsibilities under the care of coworkers to pick their children from school).

Conclusion

The inability of strain emanating from work responsibilities interfering with family
responsibilities to be associated with depersonalization is a clear reflection of the resolve of the
Nigerian women especially those who combine paid employment and family responsibilities (e.g.
female teachers). Despite the strain from teaching responsibilities which often spill over into
family responsibilities, general poor working conditions and remuneration, this segment of
Nigerian workforce remained resolute in shouldering work and family responsibilities. Thus, this
has demonstrated the resilience of Nigerian women especially female teachers.
References


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Abstract
Employees working conditions are no doubt critical to their overall well-being and performance in their duties. A review of past studies shows that improved working conditions impacts positively on employees’ performance. Similarly, occupational safety and healthy environment also contributes to the attainment of organizational goals. It was also found that health risk reduced, cost related to absenteeism and sick days was brought to the barest minimum. Also, there is a positive correlation between working condition and improved performance as well as competitive edge. Consequently, the researchers also discovered from the review that provision and maintenance of facilities reduced staff turnover, fewer occupational injuries, improved service levels, job satisfaction among employees as well as improved relationship between employees and their employers. This is a Descriptive research where data are usually collected, organized and analysed and then described as they exist without interfering with them (Aloysius E. Uzoagulu, 2011:3). It also adopted a Descripito-Explanatory research design; a combination of both descriptive and explanatory research designs. The design allowed detailed description and content analysis of topic under investigation. The purpose of the study was however achieved which was to assess and review literature works on the effect of employees working conditions on performance. The study focused on working conditions especially on convenience facilities provided in the workplace as one of the major elements that affect employee job performance. Finally, the study recommends that adequate attention should be given to provision and maintenance of convenience facilities in the workplace as a matter of priority to enhance employees’ performance among others. The researchers recommend quantitative studies that will test the variables reviewed.

Introduction
Employees are considered as the most valuable resource and asset to an organization. Qualified and motivated employees create and deliver value out of other organizational resources. Dynamic and progressive organizations endeavour to attract and retain the right people for the right jobs at the right time through creating and sustaining their motivation in changing circumstances. Employee working conditions is essential to customer satisfaction and organization performance in competitive environment. Decent facilities make additional contributions to teachers work. Employees value work conditions as essential ingredients to their satisfaction; requiring regular maintenance and replacement of facilities that aid their comfort and reduce their stress of abandoning their duties in search of convenient place where comfort facilities are not only put in place but also maintained regularly for optimum enjoyment of their workforce. However, in most organizations today, employees suffer untold hardship daily while on duty searching for Conveniences leading to work abandonment and avoidable stress. This study seeks to investigate the effect of working conditions on organization’s performance. The quality of working environment in any organization is a critical factor and may simply determine the level of employee’s motivation, subsequent performance and productivity. There is no gain saying that how well an employee gets along with the organization influence his enthusiasm, error rate, ability to work and remain on the job and the organization, his level of innovation and collaboration with other employees, absenteeism and ultimately time period to stay in the job. This paper presents the analysis of working conditions and examines the relationship between the

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physical working conditions in a workplace of an organization and the employee’s performance. The objective of this research is to investigate if there is any relationship between workplace conditions and employee’s performance. A survey study is implemented on the employees of the bank. The paper is divided into five sections as follows. The next section explains the related literature. The methodology of the research is explained in the third part. The next section illustrates the findings. The final section presents the research findings, recommendations and conclusions.

Definition Of Terms
Working Conditions: Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1998:44) state that the working conditions are created by the interactions of the employees with their organisational climate. Working conditions according to him include psychological work conditions and the physical layouts of the job. However, Greenslade and Paddock (2007:13) believe that working conditions generally encompasses a range of issues from work load and scheduling to systems-wide issues like professional identity to scope of practice. For the purpose of this study, working conditions should be seen in the light of facilities that aid employees while at work for their convenience and comfort on their job performance. In this work, performance is often interchanged with productivity.

Keywords: Working Conditions, Workplace Conditions.

Background Of Study
Nigerian working conditions is one of the poorest among the developing countries in the world. Nigeria is located in the West African Continent. It is on record that Nigeria is the most populous Black people in the World and not just in Africa. However, Nigerian workforce is the least motivated to work due to environmental and physical conditions confronting employees’ everyday in their workplace. Physical facilities where provided are not adequately maintained for optimal utilization by the workers who need them for their convenience and comfort while at work. The researchers worried by the state of these facilities decided to carry out studies in order to uncover through the review of literature on similar or related works on the effect of working conditions on the employee performance in Nigeria.

Purpose Of The Study
The purpose of the study was to assess and review literature works on the effects of employees working conditions on performance. The study focused on working conditions especially on convenience facilities provided in the workplace as one of the major elements that affect employee job performance.

Research Problem
The work environment to a large extent is a major determinant in employee performance in any organisation. A study by Roelofsen (2002) indicates that improving the working environment reduces complaints and absenteeism while increasing productivity. There is adequate empirical evidence linking workplace conditions to job satisfaction (Wells, 2000). In recent years, employees comfort on the job, determined by workplace conditions and environment has been recognized as an important factor for measuring their productivity. Employee job satisfaction affects the quality of service in the education sector with a consequent effect on the degree of student performance and general output of the employee involved. Therefore, efforts to improve employee job satisfaction can create satisfied employees with a positive effect on student performance and general output of the employee. Organizations must therefore know how to manage a diverse group of workers because as this will aid in recruitment and retention of
talented employees and ensure high levels of job satisfaction. Hence, Heartfield (2012) is of the opinion that in order to create an environment for employee satisfaction that can aid performance in workplace (emphasis added), it is vitally important to know which key factors affect employee satisfaction.

**Research Methodology**

This is a Descriptive research where data are usually collected, organized and analysed and then described as they exist without interfering with them (Aloysius E. Uzoagulu, 2011:3). The study also adopted a descripto-explanatory research design; a combination of both descriptive and explanatory research designs. The design allowed detailed description and content analysis of the variables under study; describing, analysing and presenting their characteristics and explaining their relationships as supported by Saunders et al. (2009).

**What are workplace amenities and facilities?**

Workplace amenities and facilities are things provided for the health, safety, welfare and personal hygiene needs of employees. They include toilets, shelter, seating, dining rooms, change rooms, drinking water, personal storage and washing facilities. They also include work environment facilities such as workspace, temperature and air quality, lighting and flooring.

**Health And Safety Considerations For Duty Holders**

Providing amenities and facilities for the health, safety and welfare of employees is an important employer duty. However, it is only one part of an employer’s duty to provide and maintain a working environment that is safe and without risks to health. Amenities and facilities are integral to the health, safety and welfare of employees. This compliance code addresses duties to provide amenities and facilities. It does not provide guidance on other employer duties to provide the highest reasonably practicable level of protection against risks to health and safety. Workplace amenities and facilities are things provided for the health, safety, welfare and personal hygiene needs of employees. They include toilets, shelter, seating, dining rooms, change rooms, drinking water, personal storage and washing facilities. They also include work environment facilities such as workspace, temperature and air quality, lighting and flooring.

**Nigerian Legal Provision**

Section 65, 66 and 67 of the Labour Act, the employer is bound to provide and maintain safe sanitary system for the servant, provided such facilities and arrangements comply with such regulations as may be specified by the minister in respect of labour health areas. An employer has a common law duty to take care of the safety of his employees. The duty is that of a reasonable man; but a reasonable man does not hold himself out as having specialized skills without expecting to be treated according to the standards of his representation. The employer is also under the duty to provide a safe place of work. This duty is held to arise wherever the employee is doing his work within the scope of his employment. In BRYCE V. SWAN HUNTER GROUP PLC & OTHERS (1987) L.T.L.R employers were held liable for the death of an employee when, through their negligence and breach of statutory duty, they failed to take precautions against exposure to asbestos dust. The precautions which ought to have been taken care were decided according to the state of knowledge at the time. (NOUN, Law231 pp 31-33).

**Obligation To Provide Safe System Of Work**

The Nigerian Labour Act places a qualified obligation upon an employer to provide a safe system of work i.e. to carry out his operations in a manner that complies with safety regulations. Sections 66 and 67 of the Act provide for the creation of Labour Health Areas and the matters in such areas for which regulations can be made. Labour Health Areas are areas designated as such due to
their remoteness from modern amenities like medical facilities; water and communications. The matters for which regulations can be made include the provision of sanitary arrangements; supply of water, food and fuel; medical examination of workers; measures to be taken to check spread of infectious diseases; establishment of proper hospitals and employment of qualified medical personnel. There remains however, a common law duty of care that is owed to an employee, which entails, among other things, the provision of a safe system of work. In the Nigerian case of Western Nigeria Trading Co. Ltd v. Busari Ajao (1965) Nigerian Monthly Law Reports (NMLR), a case where the Respondent had lost an eye as a result of an accident that occurred while working as an employee in the Appellant’s workshop. One of the points contention between the parties was whether there existed a burden upon under the under common law to not only provide safety goggles but to ensure that the Respondent actually used the goggles. The court held that under common law a duty of care existed to not only provide the goggles but to ensure that the goggles were used by the Respondent.

**Why Do Employees Need Amenities And Facilities?**
The provision of appropriate workplace amenities and facilities is important for the basic health, safety and welfare of employees. Figure 1.1 below explains this in detail:

**Figure 1.1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Workplace or Amenity</th>
<th>Link to Employee Health, Safety And Welfare</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drinking water</td>
<td>For basic health and welfare. Water is essential for bodily functioning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets</td>
<td>For basic health, welfare, privacy and dignity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washing facilities</td>
<td>For personal hygiene.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dining rooms</td>
<td>Provides a hygienic area and a place away from the work environment for rest breaks and the consumption of food. This reduces the likelihood of food being contaminated by substances used in work processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shelter</td>
<td>For respite from weather (example heat, cold, rain, wind).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seating</td>
<td>Provides the opportunity to alternate between standing and sitting to reduce fatigue and discomfort.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperature</td>
<td>Workplace temperature ranges appropriate to the work help improve employee comfort and reduce workplace incidents and fatigue.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workspace</td>
<td>Enhances welfare by allowing employees a full range of movement required to do the job and to move without strain or knocking against obstructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lighting</td>
<td>Allows employees to move about easily and carry out their work safely without straining to see.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Change rooms</td>
<td>Enables employees to change (example uniforms or dirty work clothing) with privacy and security. Reduces employee exposure to and potential spread of contaminating substances used in work processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal storage</td>
<td>For the secure and clean storage of personal belongings or clothing, lockable where necessary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
What amenities do employers need to provide?
The law requires that employers must, so far as is reasonably practicable, provide adequate facilities for the welfare of employees at any workplace under their management and control. However, before they can provide adequate amenities and facilities, employers need to identify and assess the needs and requirements of their employees. Some amenities – toilets, clean drinking water, hand washing facilities and access to a clean area for eating – will be required for all workplaces. But to some extent, decisions about workplace amenities and facilities will also depend on the industry and the activities or operations carried out at those workplaces. Employers need to consider the type and place of work, the composition of their workforce, employee access, and cleaning and maintenance when working out what amenities need to be provided for employees. They also need to consult with affected employees and health and safety representatives and periodically review whether the amenities are meeting employee needs.

Conceptual Framework
Work and Work Environment: Work is very important to people and it plays a very important role in their lives. Many employees see their work as a worthy companion after human elements. Morin (2004:3) explain that work provides for basic sustenance needs and decent living conditions, but above all, work is an activity through which an individual fits into the job, organization, form new relations, utilize his God-given talents, learn and develop on the job, identity and so on. Boud and Garrick (1999) observe that: “The workplace has become a site of learning associated with two quite different purposes … The first is the development of the enterprise through contributing to production, effectiveness and innovation; the second is the development of individuals through contributing to knowledge, skills and the capacity to further their own learning both as employees and citizens in the wider society” (p. 6). According to the Social Work Dictionary (2003:468), a workplace is a setting in which one’s employment or where other work activities take place. It is where people in different roles and with different functions interact all the time. People work in different work settings with different situations. Kahn (1999:141) explains that the workplace is a complex environment with different situations such as having too much or too little to do, being subjected to conflicting demands, feeling distracted by family problems, having family problems, and working for demanding and unhelpful managers.

Work means different things to different people and its meaning changes with the changes in physical, social and economic conditions. Harpas (2002:178) believes that the meaning of work is determined by choices and experiences of the individual and by the organizational environmental context in which he/she works. The workplace according to Kahn (1999:141) is a frequent source of physical and psychological stressors that trigger emotional disorders which produce symptoms and reduced functions. The work environment, however, affects how the employees carry out their responsibilities in his quest to achieve the organizational goals.

Working conditions on the other hand are created by the interaction of employees with their organizational climate and this includes psychological and physical working conditions (Gerber et al., 1998:44). Working conditions include workforce issues and workplace issues. Generally, they encompass a range of issues from work itself to sanitary facilities and other conveniences that aid employees in the discharge of their responsibilities.

Empirical Review:
The need for a healthy environment is a fundamental prerequisite for sustainable development. In Chapter 6 of Agenda 21, UN Conference on Environment and Development UNCED (1992) on the protection and promotion of human health, specific reference is made to the fact that health and development are intimately interconnected. Extensive scientific research conducted by Roelofsen (2002) has also yielded indications suggesting that improving working environment
results in a reduction in a number of complaints and absenteeism and an increase in productivity. The indoor environment has the biggest effect on productivity in relation to job stress and job dissatisfaction. As suggested by Govindarajulu (2004), in the twenty-first century, businesses are taking a more strategic approach to environmental management to enhance their productivity through improving the performance level of the employees.

It is evident in the research findings of Patterson et al., (2003) that the more satisfied workers are with their jobs the better the company is likely to perform in terms of subsequent profitability and particularly productivity. Sekar (2011) argues that the relationship between work, the workplace and the tools of work, workplace becomes an integral part of work itself. The management that dictate how, exactly, to maximize employee productivity center around two major areas of focus: personal motivation and the infrastructure of the work environment. (Sekar, C., 2011). There are various literature works that defines different factors that influence the performance of the employees. Haynes (2008) explains the behavioral office environment behavioral components of the office environment that have the greatest impact on office productivity. In all of the work patterns, it was found that interaction was perceived to be the component to have the most positive effect on productivity, and distraction was perceived to have the most negative. As people are the most valuable resource of an organization, and that the management of people makes a difference to company performance (Patterson et al., 1997).

To achieve high levels of employee productivity, organizations must ensure that the physical environment is conducive to organizational needs facilitating interaction and privacy, formality and informality and functionality. The physical environment is a tool that can be leveraged both to improve business results (Mohr, 1996) and employee well-being (Huang, Robertson and Chang, 2004). Ensuring adequate facilities are provided to employees, is critical to generating greater employee commitment and productivity. The provision of inadequate equipment and adverse working conditions has been shown to affect employee commitment and intention to stay with the organization (Weiss, 1999).

Extensive scientific research conducted by Roelofsen (2002) has also yielded indications suggesting that improving working environment results in a reduction in a number of complaints and absenteeism and an increase in productivity. The indoor environment has the biggest effect on productivity in relation to job stress and job dissatisfaction. Providing working conditions that promote the safety of employees is therefore becoming a major management concern, (Ann I. Ogbo and Wilfred I. Ukpere, 2013).

It is equally important to mention here that the state of convenience facilities across the country is very appalling. From the public to private convenience facilities, the issues remain the same except in some multinational organisations and few highly place public officials’ offices visited in the cities. This shows that huge economic and other resources are being lost at hourly basis due to abandonment of duty post and related work stress that accompanies the poor working conditions. Some employees confessed to leaving their office and work to a distant places in search of decent facilities to use. Sometimes, most of these distressed employees find it difficult to come back to their office and when they do, a lot of time would’ve been lost as well as some energy to continue with the work.

Theoretical Framework
The theoretical framework is aimed to support the literature review assessment and analysis. The social theory of work according to Boverie and Kroth (2001) cited in Susan Cartwright and Nicola Holmes, 2006, argue for the importance of developing work environments that are humane, challenging and rewarding and where people feel passionate and energized by their work.
The Management Challenge Of Working Condition Reviewed And Related Literature.

The reasons why organisations set up a safety and health management system is often related to issues such as legislation, incentives, profit, corporate social responsibility, quality management, performance, and so forth. However, if organisation management has an insight into the costs and benefits of safety and health interventions, this could be a strong driver for setting up safety and health management systems.

The overview below reviews some interesting references on the challenge for management to deal with occupational safety and health.

**Dorman, 2000**

The author gives an overview of issues relating to the economics of safety, health, and wellbeing at work. He deals with such issues as the costs of accidents and ill-health for individual workers as well as for companies and society. He argues that, for companies to provide effective improvement of safety and health conditions, the costs of ill-health must be:

1. Economic (whether the cost of damages to goods or services can be quantified or can be given prices);
2. Internal (whether the cost is paid by the economic unit that generates it);
3. Variable (whether the cost remains constant despite changes in the incidence and severity of injuries and illnesses);
4. Visible (whether the cost is measured and allocated through routine accounting methods. The invisible or indirect costs are often not taken into consideration or calculated. The reasons why most companies do not calculate indirect costs:
   a. Measurement problems: measuring these costs can be difficult and expensive
   b. Management overload
   c. Low status of (or non-existence of) OSH departments
   d. Conspiracy of silence surrounding working conditions

Furthermore, he raises two additional issues that are closely linked to decision-making and economics and occupational safety and health. Firstly, concerning market strategies, the cost of injury and disease depends on the extent to which workers are assets. The market strategy of some companies is aimed at short-term effects. Secondly, expenditures on improvements in working conditions are investments and investment have to be financed. For some companies, especially smaller ones, this might be a problem.

**Goetzel, 1999**

Goetzel has introduced a method called ‘Health productivity management’. It aims to establish links between today’s business climate, people, operational challenges, and ultimately the productivity of an organisation. The method is based on the idea that improving worker health is directly related to how productive and profitable organisations can become. A benchmarking study was carried out to identify best practice companies. Some interesting common success factors could be established for these best practice companies. **Success factors include:**

(i) Best practice companies focused on health productivity management not because it was a human resources activity but because it was aligned with the business purpose of the organisation.

(ii) Best practice organisations considered many factors that impact on workforce productivity in addition to those associated with specific health conditions, for example corporate culture and employee attitudes.
(iii) Prevention, health promotion and occupational health professionals were the primary drivers and champions.
(iv) Best practice companies emphasised health productivity management not just because it was cost-effective but also because it meant an improvement of the quality of life.
(v) Data measurement and evaluation are vital for the best practice companies. One CEO stated ‘if you can’t measure it, you can’t manage it’.
(vi) Best practice companies act on their beliefs that internal benchmarking is as important as external benchmarking.
(vii) To support investments over time, best-practice organisations are able to demonstrate return on investments for specific programmes, related to health management, both prospectively and retrospectively.

Management of health and safety as a core management responsibility
The extent to which health, safety and business management share the same motivation varies greatly between organisations and is determined by a number of factors, including the following:

1. Is health and safety performance perceived to be a critical commercial success factor?
2. Are the costs of ill-health and injury perceived to be significant?
3. Do customers or standards bodies exert pressure or make demands to achieve certain health and safety standards?

If the answer to one or more of these questions is yes, it is probable that the management of health and safety will be seen as an important commercial consideration and treated as a core management responsibility.

Evidence
Several references focus on evidence that there is a link between a qualitative working environment and the productivity of a company. The overview comprises, on the one hand, more comprehensive works-literature that reviews other literature or that brings together evidence, and on the other hand, publications on particular case studies.

Barefoot economics, 2001
This paper is based on the joint project between the Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs and Health and the ILO- Safe Work programme, in close collaboration with an international working group. The paper cites several mainly Finnish studies. Jurvansuu et al. (2000) revealed that personnel’s high work ability, work satisfaction and organisational commitment had a positive relationship to workplace success. However, in successful workplaces staff had a higher level of exhaustion but the link between these two aspects was rather weak. Variables describing personnel well-being had a similar effect on success in metal industry and retail trade, and also in workplaces of different sizes. Some statistical significant interactions were found between variables of personnel’s well-being. Staff well-being seems to be one factor affecting company performance. However, different dimensions of well-being seem to affect performance as a complicated interactive network.

Bunn, Pikelyn, Slavin, Paralkar, 2001
The health and productivity management model at the International Truck and Engine Corporation includes the measurement, analysis, and management of the individual component programmes affecting employee safety, health, and productivity. The key to the success of the programme was the iterative approach used to identify the opportunities, develop interventions,
and achieve targets through continuous measurement and management. The economic impact has been documented following intervention. For example, a comprehensive corporate wellness effort has had a significant impact in terms of reducing both direct healthcare cost and improving productivity, measured as absenteeism.

**Cooper, Liukkonen, Cartwright, 1996**
The authors assessed the costs and benefits to organisations of stress prevention in the workplace. They presented three case studies (organisations in Sweden, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom) and found that stress prevention presents a means whereby an organisation cannot only reduce or contain the costs of employee health but can also positively maintain and improve organisational health and productivity. The effects they found are:

a. reduced staff turnover  
b. reduced absenteeism  
c. fewer occupational injuries and illness cases  
d. improved service levels  
e. improved job satisfaction  
f. improved relations between co-workers and management  
g. Improved working conditions.

**Court, 2003**
The paper entitled ‘Links between the quality of working life and productivity — Evidence to the enquiry submitted by the Health and Safety Commission and Health and Safety Executive’ is a response to the Work Foundation enquiry (United Kingdom) into links between the quality of working life and productivity. The paper argues that creating better work environments and preventing harm from work are key means of improving productivity. The evidence that is presented is based on national data for UK work-related injuries, diseases, and their impact on absenteeism and the costs for society and companies. According to the paper, there is a difference in sickness absence rates between the best and worst performing companies. The paper also gives an overview of evidence found in literature sources and in case studies.

**Galliker, 2000**
The author states that improving the well-being of its workers, offers a company the opportunity to enhance its performance. This is illustrated with cases from companies such as Beiersdorf AG (Hamburg), Suva Niederlassung (Berne) and Volkswagen AG.

**Hendrick, 2003**
The author states that it is important to identify the costs and economic benefits that can be expected from ergonomic programmes and to outline how they will be measured. He determines four major classes of costs: personnel, equipment and materials, reduced productivity or sales and overheads. The benefits fall into three general classes: those associated with personnel, those relating to materials and equipment, and those to do with increased sales. On the basis of documented cases, the author describes the common characteristics of successful ergonomics interventions (Box 8). If followed these characteristics greatly enhance the likelihood of a high
cost-benefit result. The documented cases resulted in benefits such as less sick leave, fewer injuries, greater employee satisfaction, higher productivity, and so forth.

**Korbijn, 1996**

By presenting examples of agricultural and construction companies this book argues that investing in better occupational safety and health can create a competitive edge. Technical innovations can be carried out to improve the quality of work. These technical innovations are often accompanied by organisational renewal. Furthermore, this book scrutinises health and risk factors at work, the role of the management and ergonomic innovation in the design phase.

**Kuusela, Bjurstrom, Rouhesmaa, 1997**

Studies on the inter-relationship between the working environment and productivity have revealed a positive correlation between the two. Steps taken to develop the working environment have also improved productivity and measures adopted to increase productivity have had a positive impact on the standard of the working environment. As safety at work improves, material damage and malfunction decrease and accidents and the number of sick days decline, while the volume of production increases and quality improves. The authors compare different kinds of interventions and their effects on productivity. They conclude that although specific measures/interventions have positive effects, programmes focusing on work climate, management and participation have a greater impact on productivity.

**Kreis, Bodeker, 2003**

The authors studied the evidence found in literature sources for the effectiveness of workplace health promotion. They looked at 25 reviews of published sources and more than 400 studies for programmes in the workplace on alcohol, nutrition, stress, tobacco, and so on. They commented on effects found and methods used. An overview in the form of a table collates then results.

The positive effects of workplace health promotion programmes were:
1. Reduced health risks, in other words, for indicators such as blood pressure, cholesterol, smoking, alcohol consumption;
2. Improved work climate as in job satisfaction; and
3. Reduced costs, that is to say, less absenteeism, fewer sick days.

This project was based on a health and work initiative (IGA). It was carried out in cooperation between the Federal Association of the Company Health Insurance Funds and the Federal Association of the Accidents Insurance Funds in Germany. Given all the difficulties of conducting and comparing evaluation studies at the worksite, the study concludes that decision-makers need to look for the ‘general weight of the evidence’ across the best studies available, rather than the definitive study *per se.*

**Langhoff, 2002**

Occupational safety and health contributes to corporate goals. To make this relationship visible is a challenge for a results-oriented occupational safety and health system. The author proposes an approach based on the balanced scorecard. He used several examples of companies to back up his case. Among the positive effects he found were: better product quality, more job motivation, improved work organisation, less production disruptions, and so on.

**Serxner, Gold, Anderson, Williams, 2001**

The authors examined the impact of a worksite health promotion programme on short-term disability days in a large telecommunications company. The evaluation used a quasiexperimental, multiple time-series design with inter-group comparison of workdays lost due to short-time disability to determine impact. This study found that participation in a health promotion programme had a significant impact on average net days lost for employee short-term disability
absence. These findings represented potential savings in excess of USD 1 371 600 over a two-year period.

Summary Of Findings
In this research, the following facts can be deduced from the analysis above:
1. That improved working conditions impacts positively on employees’ performance.
2. Occupation safety and healthy workforce contribute to the attainment of organizational goals.
3. Improvement in the convenience facilities can help employees stay on duty, reduce absenteeism, employee turnover, sick days, occupational injuries and possibly, stress conditions among employees.
4. Improved organizational competitiveness as a result of increased performance.
5. Improved employee-employer relationship and co-workers and management relationship.

Recommendations
From the study so far, the following recommendations can be made:
1. Adequate attention should be given to convenience facilities by employers and same should be maintained regularly to serve its purpose in the workplace.
2. Employees should not abuse facilities provided for their pleasure to avoid decay and unhealthy work environment.
3. Government at all levels should assist in monitoring and enforcing safety laws in the workplace to ensure compliance and a healthy workforce.
4. Adequate sanctions and punishment should be given to anyone found wanting among the employees and employers as healthy environment should be the concern of all.

Conclusion
Healthy working condition is not just the concern of employees but a crucial factor that every employer should give a priority to ensure increased and sustained performance. Nigerian employees should take their health safety more seriously. This is because a lot of resources are being wasted treating ailment while production suffers. The researchers therefore call on all stakeholders to collaborate for the better.

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Understanding The Dynamics Of Revenue Generation In Ebonyi State Local Government System

By

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Abstract
The study explains major factors that hinder internal revenue generation in Ebonyi State with special focus on the local government areas. A brief historical overview of Ebonyi State and its size of natural endowments were captured and it was revealed that Ebonyi State is blessed with abundant natural resources which are yet to be exploited. The major objective of this study is to explore different ways of improving internally generated revenue (IGR) in Ebonyi State using the instrumentalities of the local government areas. The study made use of descriptive method and anchored on SWOT Analysis Theory which entails an analysis of the strength, weakness, opportunities and threats on local government sources of internal revenue generation in order to generate strategic options. The major findings of this study are that lack of available manpower, discretionary power, and fund diversion by revenue officers as well as inaccessible road networks in most rural communities of the local governments are responsible for poor revenue generation in Ebonyi State. Arising from this findings, the study concluded that majority of the revenue officers in the local governments are not resourceful. The study therefore recommended among other things that there should be government presence by way of provision of basic infrastructure in the local communities as the surest way of telling the tax payers that the government is responsive and that the tax money is meant for the development of the communities, knowing that many tax payers may not be willing to pay direct taxes and will do everything to avoid or evade taxes because they believe that they are being extorted wrongly.

Keywords: Ebonyi, IGR, local, government, community, finance

Introduction
Ebonyi State of Nigeria came to limelight as a result of military creation on 1\textsuperscript{st} October, 1996 alongside five other states. Ebonyi as a state was created out from the old Abakaliki Division (coming from Anambra-Ebonyi axis) and the old Afikpo Division (also coming from Imo-Abia axis) as they were known in political lexicon. The present Ebonyi State has its capital territory in Abakaliki with the official sobriquet as the Salt of the Nation describing the distinctive natural endowment. Geographically, Ebonyi is bordered by Benue State to the North, Enugu State to the West, Imo and Abia States to the South and Cross River State to the East.

Ebonyi State is predominantly occupied by the Igbo speaking people of contemporary Nigeria, having about nine major dialects including Ehugbo, Izii, Ezaa, Ikwo, Ngbo/Izha, Kutule, Legbo, Mbembe and Oring or Kori. These languages are all subgroups and distinguishing dialects of the Igbo language. But however, the Kori language as noted by Otu (2012) appears to be one of the few other none core Igbo speaking groups that can be found among communities in the northern parts of the state that are bordered by communities in Benue State.

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The 2006 National Population Census Report put the population of Ebonyi State at 176,947 people made up of 1,064,156 males and 1,112,791 females. While 75% of the population lives in the rural areas, only 25% are found in the urban areas. Presently, the state comprises of 13 local government areas and 64 development centres.

Map of Ebonyi State showing the 13 local Government Areas.

The mainstay of the economy of Ebonyi State is agriculture and the people are predominantly farmers. The National Bureau of Statistics estimates that about 70.7% of the total population of Ebonyi State in 2005 was employed in agricultural sector. This is against an average of 45% of the people employed in the same sector in the other south eastern states in the same year, (Uguru, 2013). A variety of staple and cash crops are produced in the state and they include rice, yam, cassava mainly in Abakaliki axis of the State, palm produce, cocoa, maize, groundnut, plantain, banana, cassava, melon, sugar cane, etc are widely cultivated by Aikpo axis of the state. Also, fish farming is also being carried out extensively in Aikpo and Izzi Cross River end of the state. The people of Ebonyi State also engage in other forms of traditional industries such as pottery works in Ivo, Ishielu, Ohaukwu and Afikpo Local Government Areas. Other traditional industries are wood carving in Afikpo, weaving and rafting in Izzi, Ezza, Ntezi and Afikpo, blacksmithing at Ezza and Ishielu (Otu, 2012).

Although, Ebonyi State is endowed with several solid mineral resources such as salt, lead limestone zinc and marble, clay and gypsum, but they remain largely untapped and thereby hindering internal revenue generation base of the state. Thus, industrial activities of the state are very low especially when compared with other states in the region. There are consequently little job prospects in the industrial sector for the teeming unemployed Ebonyi youth.

Conceptual Foundation

Local Government is recognized by the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria as the third tier of government within the purview of the tripartite federal arrangement which Nigeria operates. The state and federal government occupy the higher echelon and play the roles of funding and supervising the activities of the local government areas. However, the
constitution and its makers should be applauded in this regard for according this important level of government its due responsibilities.

Thus, local government has been classified as a public sector organization and a tier of government with assigned functions and responsibilities, administrative structure and financial management both for maintaining itself and rendering its statutory functions to its citizens. One of the most underlying imperatives for the creation of local government is for effective and efficient administration of its localities.

Nigeria is one among few countries in the developing world to have significantly decentralized both resources and responsibilities for the delivery of basic amenities and services such as health, education etc to locally elected government.

Local Government Administration

Okpata (2011) succinctly opines that the term local government administration in Nigeria has attracted serious attention both nationally and internationally since the great local government reform of 1976. Local government is the closest tier of government to the people of Nigeria, yet the resident population in it is denied the benefits of its existence. The failure of local government in the area of service delivery over the years has made the citizens to loose faith and trust in local government administration as an institution in Nigeria. From historical perspective, modern local government administration in Nigeria can be traced to the British system of local government. But, it should be stated however, that local administration did not start with the advent of British Administration in Nigeria, because some forms of system of local government administration pre-dated the British rule. Local government administration is one of man’s oldest institutions. The earliest form of local government administration existed in the form of clan and village meetings. In fact, democracy itself originated and developed along the lines of local governance initiative in the ancient Greek City States. It should be noted however, that in other parts of the world, local governance was developed along the people’s culture and expectations and the system was tied to the norms and practices of the people. However, four points of historical reference can be identified in the development of local government administration in Nigeria. They are:

(1) Colonial rule;
(2) Local government reforms in the East (1951) and West (1952) respectively;
(3) The military coup of 1966; and
(4) The 1976 local government reform (Gboyega as cited by Aghayere 1997).

Local government administration in Nigeria has undergone many changes of which the 1976 Reforms and the Constitutions of 1979 and 1999 can be said to be most prominent. Before 1976, local government administration in Nigeria had passed through many changing environments and this has in no small measure influenced its development. Furthermore, before 1976, there was no uniform system of local government administration in Nigeria. Although, there were spirited attempts made to carry out some reforms in the local government system. These attempts were unco-ordinated and haphazard. The 1976 reforms introduced a uniform system of local government administration throughout the country. The reform was a major departure from the previous practice of local government administration in Nigeria. The philosophical basis of the reform lies in the conviction that a strong local authority with clearly defined functional responsibilities in a power-sharing relationship with the states is an institutional safeguard against tyranny. Following the 1976 reforms, local government became recognized as a tier of government entitled to a share of national revenue consequent on its constitutionally allocated functions (Imuetinyan 2002).

The provisions of the 1976 reform document were incorporated into the 1979 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Section 7(1) of the constitution provides that:
the government of every state shall ensure their existence under a law which provides for the establishment, structure, composition, finance and functions of such councils.

This showed that local authorities were creatures of the state and their relevance, strength and degree of autonomy were subject to the state governments’ control (Iyoha 1997). The power of the state government over local authorities has been wrongly applied to undermine elected and participatory governance and responsibility at the grassroots and this has made operation of the constitution questionable. The situation of local government administration under the 1999 Constitution is also very confusing and complex. Although, the 1999 constitution also guarantees the existence of a democratically elected local government system, it however, like the 1979 constitution gives the states the responsibility to handle issues of organization and structure. Constitutionally and currently, there are seven hundred and seventy four (774) Local Government Council Areas in Nigeria and they are operating a uniform system of local government administration. More so, with the emergence of independence, emphasis shifted from law enforcement to the provision of social services.

Revenue Generation

It is an indisputable and incontrovertible fact that the revenue generation of most local governments in Nigeria is far below what it should be, all things being equal, (Onwe, 2004). The concomitant effect of the poor generation and maximization is that inadequate finance remains the most single devastating problem undermining effective local government administration in the country. The statutory allocation from the federal government is not always adequate to cover the financial obligations of the local governments. The local governments have always battled with such obligations as payment of staff salaries, provision and maintenance of social services and local security etc, Therefore, to be able to function effectively and efficiently, local governments have to look inwardly to raise the required revenue (Nwali, 2012).

Thus, revenue generation is an efficient process of raising funds from the general public on demand by the government from her citizens or the citizens’ properties and business entities within a given society or country, (Maduabum, 2003). Internal revenue generation in the study of Uguru and Ezeani (2011) refers to those revenue sources that are generated solely by the state and local governments.

Sources Of Local Government Revenue

Ezeani (2006) made it clear that there is no doubt that the success or close gap failure and the effectiveness of local government depend on the financial resources available to the individual local authorities and the way these resources are utilized. To this end, it should be accepted that the level of effectiveness and productivity of the local government depend to large extend on the amount of fund available to it. There are statutory and non–statutory means through which the local government derives its revenue. Scholars have as well classified it to mean internal sources, which have to do with rates and taxes, receipt, derived from any public utility concern or undertaking belonging to, or maintained by a local government either in part or in whole. Other internal sources include rents derived from leasing of any building or land belonging to a local government, interest on the investment of funds of a local government and money derived from fees or by harnessing natural endowments. The other part of the classification is what has been scholarly known to mean the external sources. The external sources include, grants, loan and statutory allocations (Onwe, 2004, Okpata, 2004 and Okoli 2000).

By way of explanation, the Grant System in the words of Ezeani (2006) represent a situation where the federal government provides the local government with financial support in form of grant to enable them achieve their functional targets. He added that the grants which take
several forms are means to attain greater responsibility especially for rural development. The major grants include block, equalization, percentage, unit, special and emergency grants.

Ezeani (2006) quoting Okonji (1972) maintains that the principal objectives of federal government grants – in – aid to local authorities are as follows:

i. To promote equal provision of particular social services such as health, education, police, highway development etc in all parts of the state by removing the imbalance in the resources available to the various local authorities for the financing of these services.

ii. To encourage the achievement of common standards in certain areas of local government functions where values are national rather than parochial.

iii. To induce the receiving local authorities to incur expenditure on particular projects which if left to their independent and improved judgment, would not have been given any priority in their budgets.

iv. To compensate local authorities for the loss of any portion of their ordinary revenue consequent upon a change in the enabling statute, or regulations carried out to fulfill the political, social or economic philosophy of the party in control of the central government.

v. It is important to note that grants are paid after the federal government has satisfied itself by directing intermediate inspection or enquiries, that the prescribed minimum national standard of efficiency in the maintenance of the particular service concerned has been attained.

However, the major flaw of the grant system is that it diminishes the independence and autonomy of local government. It has been argued that the greater the role of government grants in the local government financial structure, the more diminished will be the autonomy of local authorities.

In the other hand, local government through the instrumentalities of external source of revenue resorts to loan. Thus, the Model Financial Memoranda for Local Government in Nigeria (1991) maintains that a local government is empowered by law to raise loan within Nigeria, of such amounts, from such sources, in such manner, upon such conditions and for such purposes in fulfillment of its lawful functions, as the appropriate law may prescribe.

Moreover, the major source of local government finance which lies within the fulcrum of this study is the “Statutory Allocation” from the federal government and Internal Sources from rents and harnessing of natural endowments.

**Theoretical Evidence**

It is paramount in this study of revenue generation in the local government to first understand the area of peculiarities of local government areas in Ebonyi State. This means, having the knowledge of revenue potentials in each local government especially those that have comparative advantage over others. It should be borne in mind that there is no particular local government area is the same in terms Internal Revenue Generation (IGR) potentials. Therefore, the uniqueness of each local government area will help it to identify the areas they can harness at a lower cost than others.

Taking this as a point of departure in identifying these areas of comparative advantage, the study therefore anchors on **SWOT Analysis Theory**. SWOT Analysis entails an analysis of the strength, weakness, opportunities and threats of local governments sources of internal revenue generation in order to generate strategic options.

SWOT Analysis is a structured planning method used to evaluate the strength, weakness, opportunities and threats involved in a project or in a business venture. It involves specifying the objectives of the business or project and achieving that objective. Among the exponents of SWOT Analysis theory is Albert Humphrey who led a convention at the Stanford Research
Institute (now Stanford Research Institute International) in the 1960s and 1970s using data from fortune 500 companies. The degree to which the internal environment of the firm matches with the external environment is expressed by the concept of strategic fit.

Thus, the efficacy of this theory which makes it relevant to this study is premised on the grounds that local government operators, chartered accountants and consultants could through regular conduct of SWOT Analysis theory for the local government areas help in formulating revenue objectives that are specific, measurable, achievable/attainable, realistic and time bound (SMART) and such revenue objectives should also be suitable implementable, measurable, practical, local and evaluable (SIMPLE). Users of SWOT Analysis Theory should ask and answer questions that generate meaningful information for each category and find their competitive advantage. SWOT Analysis of the local government’s IGR could come up with findings which would aid the setting realistic revenue objectives that are of SIMPLE and SMART for the local governments.

Revenue Generation And Natural Endowments In Ebonyi State

Ebonyi State is naturally endowed with natural resources such as the salt cave, huge deposit of zinc, lead, malachite, quartz, limestone, gypsum, coal, phosphate, aluminum, laterite, sand, barites, etc.

However, despite the abundant natural resources available in Ebonyi State, the state is still classified as the poorest state in eastern Nigeria. The weak internal revenue generation base of the state remains a challenge to result-oriented governance and rapid socio-economic development of the state. Instead of exploring and harnessing the natural sources of revenue, the state hopes to continue to depend on federation account for its operations. In table 1 below, the natural mineral resources identified in Ebonyi State are presented.

Table 1: Solid Mineral Resources, Local and Exploitation Status


Although, the above table has shown abundant solid mineral resources endowed to Ebonyi State, yet, Nwali and Nkwede (2012) lament that these natural solid minerals are still either locally exploited or dormant and the state continues to be the poorest in eastern Nigeria with high level of unemployment and slow pace of socio-economic development.

Table 2: Ebonyi State Revenue Inflow (2004-2012).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>IGR (₦)</th>
<th>Federation Account (₦)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>468,906,650</td>
<td>11,578,360,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>530,092,000</td>
<td>14,990,669,880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>779,723,000</td>
<td>16,500,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>1,532,311,160</td>
<td>18,369,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>6,306,764,900</td>
<td>20,436,245,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>6,857,353,360</td>
<td>26,491,783,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>7,517,200,170</td>
<td>22,584,659,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>8,891,373,630</td>
<td>27,316,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>8,134,250,030</td>
<td>36,160,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td><strong>41,017,974,900</strong></td>
<td><strong>194,426,718,240</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 above shows that internal revenue generation and statutory allocation from the federation account has increased from 2004 to 2012. The percentage increase ranges from 10.5% to 20%. The table indicates that the overall revenue of Ebonyi state government has doubled between 2004 and 2012, yet most natural resources have not been exploited.

Factors Militating Against Internal Revenue Generation In Ebonyi State Local Government System

The problems of IGR in local government areas are traceable to constitutional origin. But these problems have further been exacerbated by local bureaucrats and imperialists and this has assumed disturbing dimensions with passage of time. However Nwali (2012) summarized these factors militating against internal revenue generation in the local government thus:

- **Lack of Available Quality Manpower:** One of the most important factors that need serious attention in all human organization is the quality of available manpower. Manpower in this parlance represents men and women, young and old who engage in the production of goods and services. There is therefore dearth of professional manpower in the local government, especially in their rightful positions.

- **Lack of Discretionary Power:** Local governments do not enjoy the much required degree of discretionary power. Apart from the apparent levity with which local governments themselves handled the issue of internal revenue generation, some state governments prevented their local governments from exercising their powers of taxation over property.

- **Fund Diversion by Revenue Officers:** A major problem in internal revenue generation in the local government is the usual diversion of collected revenue by revenue officers into their private accounts. Nwali and Nkwede (2013) are worried of this issue when they observed that most local government revenue officers use local government fund to build houses, filling stations, hotels and marry additional wives at the detriment of rural dwellers.

- **Lack of Accessible Roads and Communal Conflicts:** In most cases, lack of accessible roads networks would hamper the movement of local government revenue collectors to certain areas. For example, some communities have big markets, but because of inaccessible road networks, it will be difficult if not possible for local government revenue officers to go to those places for revenue generation. Also, some communities where there are communal conflicts, local government revenue officers may not go there for fear of being victimized.

- Other factors are lack of tax updated register, lack of government presence, lack of enlightenment, tax evasion and avoidance, poor revenue assessment techniques, none compliance to protocols of death registration, administrative bottlenecks, nepotic productivity, poor planning, lack of bonding of all revenue officers and more are among the problems whittling down the gospel of internal revenue generation in Nigerian local government system.

**Conclusion**

From the foregoing discussions on Improving Internal Revenue Generation in Ebonyi State: A Focus on the Local Government Areas, the following conclusions were reached. Majority of the revenue staff in local governments are not resourceful. This resource gap coupled
with dearth of professionals with relevant experience and expertise will continue to affect the overall performance of the local governments’ internal revenue generation and service delivery if left unchecked. There would be continuous discrepancy between reported internal revenue portfolio and internal revenue capacity in the local governments due to poor supervision and auditing of local governments’ internal revenues in rural councils. It will be politically and administratively difficult to collect revenues in rural councils where people are poor and sparsely populated, especially where there is no government presence in such areas. Also, internal revenue generations are fraught with problems of collection, accountability and leakages. There is no reasonable financial autonomy in the local government, especially due to the excessive control by higher tiers. The major lucrative, elastic and promising sources of revenue have been ceded to other levels of governments, leaving the local governments with revenue sources that have low ceilings. This condition is responsible for the financial subordination of the local governments. Finally, the study submits that constitutional reform is very vital for increased internal revenue generation in the local governments.

Recommendations
Arising from the above literature, the following submissions are made as means of improving internally generated revenue in Ebonyi State local government system:

- **Government Presence**: Provision of basic infrastructure in the local communities is the surest way of telling the tax payers that the government is responsive and that the tax money is meant for the development of the communities. Many tax payers may not be willing to pay direct tax and will do everything to avoid or evade tax because they believe that they are being extorted wrongly.

- **Harnessing Natural Deposits**: Local governments should cultivate the culture of harnessing natural endowments within their areas by creating enabling environment for inventors to come in. These enabling environment include light/electricity, good road network, hospitality, security and good working relationship.

- **Periodic Suspension and Auditing**: Auditing the books of revenue collectors as often as possible will reduce to the barest minimum the tendencies of embezzling the local governments’ funds. The internal auditors could be posted to different local governments and alternated at regular intervals to avoid being acquainted with the terrain of a particular local government that may facilitate financial fraud. This measure will also make them discharge their duties without fear of favour.

- **Acquisition of the Right Work Force**: Internal revenue generation mechanisms of local governments are fraught with problems of collection accountability and leakages in the areas of service delivery, the professionals at the disposal of the local governments are not adequate in number and should be attracted to the service of the local governments. The presence of Estate Valuers, Engineers, Medical Doctors, and Certified Accountants etc will reduce the patronage of consultants who will mar the local councils.

- **Establishment of Revenue Courts**: In order to show the seriousness of local governments with regards to revenue generation, courts should be established at strategic centres of local governments to ensure quick dispensation of justice on revenue defaulters. This will greatly deter others from defaulting and it is also a pro-active measure.
- **Constitution Reform**: Constitutional amendment with regards to revenue rights and fiscal responsibilities is very necessary in solving the internal revenue problems of the local governments to match revenue with responsibility.

**References**


Factors affecting The Credibility of Management Disclosures

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And

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to examine the issue of the assessment of the credibility of management disclosures about a company from the perspective of the investors. It presents the results from a questionnaire survey of a sample of financial Analysts, accountants and other investor. The data were analysed using the one way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The study found that management situational incentives, internal and external assurance and other characteristics of the disclosure itself, were the factors investors considered to affect the credibility of management Disclosures. The study recommends that investors should take these factors into consideration when assessing management disclosures. The study also recommends that management should also take these factors into consideration when preparing their disclosures if they want to improve on their credibility.

Keywords: Investors, Assessment, Disclosures, Management

Introduction

Management disclosures are valuable source of information for investors. They play an important role in alleviating the problem of information asymmetry between managers and owners (shareholders) of a company. They are the means by which managers communicate information about the company’s past and future prospects to present and future investors. Corporate or management disclosures are also an aid to the capital market in the pricing of securities. However for any disclosure to be useful and used, it must be credible or believable. Jennings (1987) notes that investors reactions to a management disclosure depends on both the new information (“surprise”) in the disclosure and the believability (credibility) of the disclosure.

Managers face a number of institutional penalties for issuing inaccurate disclosure including loss of reputation, possible employment penalties, and potential legal action (Adams, 2002). According to McNichols (1989) and Frankel et al (1995), such reasons have, in the past, were sufficient, to deter management from issuing intentionally biased disclosures .But according to Adams (2002), the effectiveness of such penalties is based on the assumption that firms, investors, financial intermediaries, and security regulators interact on a recurring basis such that market participants and security regulators can punish managers in the future for inaccurate disclosures made in the present. However recent events, like the collapse of Enovn and World com, have shown that penalties as enumerated above have not deterred managers from inaccurate disclosures. This has heightened investors’ concerns about the credibility of management disclosures (Banet, 2002). This has, also heightened the necessity of having appropriate mechanisms for assessing management disclosures. The objective of this study therefore, is to examine the issue of assessment of the credibility of management disclosures by investors.

Literature Review And Hypotheses Development

The credibility of management disclosures is so crucial that there have been many researches into the phenomenon. According to Molly (2004), literature on disclosure credibility is expansive and diverse. Although many existing studies appear unrelated on the surface they, however, address similar theoretical issues . In other words, not many researches have directly addressed the issue of investor assessment of the creditability of management disclosures.
Before looking at the factors that affect the credibility of management disclosures, we will examine the meaning of disclosure credibility. According to Molly (2004), disclosure credibility is investors’ perceptions of the believability of a particular disclosure. According to him there are two main elements to this definition. First, disclosure credibility refers to a perception by investors which may not be an objective condition of a disclosure. He stated that the second part of the definition assumes that investors appraise the credibility of the particular management disclosure. According to Jennings (1987), when investors initially receive a disclosure from management, they are usually unaware of the actual reliability or quality of the disclosures and will base their reactions on its perceived credibility.

Disclosure credibility is sometimes confused with management credibility. But the concepts are not exactly the same. According to Molly (2004), disclosure credibility is appraised separately for each disclosure and may vary within a firm across different disclosures. On the other hand, management credibility is a more enduring trait of a firm’s managers, referring to investors enduring trait of a company’s trustworthiness (Molly, 2004). Management credibility is only a factor in the credibility of management disclosures. According to Molley (2004), empirical studies on disclosure credibility use either archival or experimental data. According to him most archival studies use stock market reactions and/or analysts forecast revisions to assess disclosure credibility. On the other hand, experimental studies measure disclosure’s creditability on a numerical scale or by inferring credibility effects from participants’ use of management of disclosures in other tasks.

Survey of investors’ opinions on factors affecting disclosure creditability has not been given much attention in the literature and that is why it is considered appropriate now to use the method of this study particularly in a developing country like Nigeria where there is a dearth secondary b of data. Various factors affect the creditability of management disclosure. Molly (2004) summarized these factors to include: (1) Situational incentives as at the time of the disclosure; (2) Management credibility; (3) The degree of external assurance, (4) The level of internal assurance; (5) Various characteristics of the disclosure like disclosure precision (6) Time horizon of the disclosure, (7) Availability of support information (8) Inherent plausibility of the disclosure.

Situational incentives
It is generally believed that the situation of a company at the time of disclosure plays a fundamental role in determining the credibility of the disclosure. According to Kelley (1972), people attribute messages consistent with the source’s incentives to those incentives, rather than the sources true belief. Conversely, people tend to infer that messages inconsistent with the sources incentives reflect the sources underlying beliefs. These differences suggest that people are less likely to believe messages that are consistent with the source’s incentives. According to Molley (2004), investors are less likely to believe management disclosures when management has high incentives to be misleading or untruthful. Some researches have been conducted into the effects of incentive to mislead by comparing the credibility of good news and bad news. According to McNichols (1989), managers tend to have greater incentives to provide overly positive disclosures than overly negative disclosures. In other words bad news disclosures are more credible than good news. This position is supported by other studies. For example, Hassel et al (1988) and William (1996) found that there is a positive relationship between management disclosures containing bad news and larger analysts forecast revisions. In the same vein, Cairney and Richardson (1999) and Hutton et al (2003) established a positive relationship between management disclosures containing bad news and larger stock price reactions. Koch (2002) examines the effects of situational incentives by comparing the disclosure credibility of financially distressed and non–distressed companies and found that management has greater incentives to provide misleading disclosures when a firm is financially distressed. According to
him, management earnings forecasts made by financially distressed firm’s exhibit greater up
word bias than management earnings forecasts made by non-financially distressed firms. (see also
Frost, 1997). Thus in summary the credibility of a management disclosure depends on the
existing situational incentives at the time of the disclosure. Hence we hypothesize that;
**H1: Management disclosure credibility is related to situational incentives existing at the
time of the disclosure.**

**Management credibility**
According to Brinbaum and Stegner (1979) the credibility of any message is a function of its
source. However, management credibility is only one of the factors. Other variables also have
significant effects on message credibility (Petty &Wegener, 1998). According to William (1996),
the size of analysts’ forecasts revisions for subsequent management earnings forecasts are
that investors rely more on management disclosures when management provided accurate
forecasts in earlier time periods. The foregoing lead us to the hypothesis that;

**H2: Management disclosure creditability is positively related to management
credibility**

**Level of external assurance**
The credibility of management disclosures increases with the level of external assurance. External
assurance can be provided by auditors, financial analysts, regulators and institutional investors,
among others. Several studies have found that audited disclosures are more credible than
unaudited disclosures. Libby (1979) finds that audited disclosure are more credible than
unaudited disclosures (see also Hodge, 2001). Leftwich (1983) and Blackwell et al (1998) find
that external assurance from auditors increases disclosure credibility. These studies find that
bankers believe that audits enhance the credibility of financial statements. Financial analysts
reactions to a management disclosure can also affect investors assessment of the disclosures
credibility (Gogoi, 2001; Li, 2002).

According to Molley (2004) evidence that analyst reactions to management disclosures affect
investors reactions to those disclosures, is as yet, largely anecdotal other factors on external
assurance that could affect a disclosure’s credibility are the level of regulatory control in the
particular industry, size and nature of the company and ownership by large institutional investors
and analysts. We therefore hypothesize as follows;

**H3: Management disclosure credibility is positively correlated with the level of
external assurance.**

**Level of internal assurance**
Internal assurance involves essentially the corporate governance mechanisms in place that compel
managers’ adherence to governance principles. Fox (1999) notes the effect of enforced disclosure
policies by arguing that required disclosure helps shareholders enforce manager’s fiduciary
duties. According to him, other than the direct impact of making managers accountable for their
publicly available decisions, enforced disclosures also directly affects corporate governance by
affecting the cost of capital, the market for corporate control, and monitoring by external sources
of finance. According to Molley (2004), investors may feel more confidence in the veracity
of a firm’s disclosures when the firm has a high quality board of directors. Basely (1996) found
that firms with more independent boards and audit committees as measured by the number of
outside members, experience less earnings management and fraud. (see also Klein,1999). Xie et
al (2003) also find that firms in whose boards and audit committees meet more frequently and
have greater financial expertise experience less earnings management. Black et al (2003) find that
firms with a large percentage of outside directors and or an audit committee, command higher
market valuations, and value the earning stream more highly for such firms. Another source of internal assurance is the internal audit function. According to Molley (2004), internal auditors often serve as the first line of defence against disclosure errors ferreting out unintentional errors caused by weakness in a company’s internal controls and intentional errors due to fraud. As a result, if investors can assess internal audit quality, then companies with strong internal audit departments may have higher disclosure credibility. Thus the level of internal assurance can affect management disclosure credibility. This takes us to the next hypothesis.

**H4:** There is a positive relationship between management disclosure credibility and the level of internal assurance.

**Disclosure precision and time horizon**

Disclosure precision and time horizon are some attributes or characteristics of the disclosure itself that may affect the credibility of the particular disclosure. According to Molley (2004), management disclosures vary in their degree of precision. It has been argued that imprecise disclosures signal management’s uncertainty and are therefore regarded as being less credible than more precise disclosures (Hassell et al, 1988; King et al 1990). Also, it has been argued that time horizon covered by a disclosure affect its credibility. In this connection, it has been asserted that short horizon disclosure such as interim earnings forecast are generally more credible than longer horizon disclosures such as annual earnings forecasts. This is based on the assumption that information about immediate outcomes are more certain than these about later outcomes. This was established by Pownal et al (1993) when they show that interim management earnings forecasts generate larger stock price reactions than annual management earnings forecast. Thus we hypothesize that:

**H5:** Disclosure credibility is related to disclosure precision and time horizon.

**Support information and inherent plausibility**

Usually companies provide supplementary information or explanations to support their disclosures. It has been asserted that supplementary information adds to the credibility of disclosures by management. Gorgler (1994) argues that disclosure decisions often reflect a tension between providing investors with share relevant information and providing competitors with proprietary information. According to him, disclosures proprietary information is costly and therefore has a value which translates into investors’ perception of a greater credibility of the disclosure so supported. Hutton et al (2003) note that supplementary statements should increase disclosure credibility because these statements increase the ex-post verifiability of the disclosure. In other words, managers reduce their ability to take subsequent opportunistic actions to realize forecasts or to rationalize unexpected results when they make specific statements about forecast components.

Investors usually have expectations about certain outcomes and they are more sceptical about any information that deviates from this. Scientists’ judgments are influenced by their prior beliefs when a research paper’s conclusions disagree with a scientist’s prior beliefs, he rates the study study’s methodology to be relatively lower in quality. According to Molley (2004), when this applied to financial disclosures, a disclosure that deviates from significantly from investors’ expectations will be less credible than one that does not. Thus we hypothesis that:

**H6:** Management disclosure credibility is related to the availability of support information and the inherent plausibility of the disclosure.

**Research Method**

The research is a structured cross – sectional survey of 150 respondents in Edo state. The research is on Investors Assessment of the Creditability of Management Disclosures in Nigeria, but due to
resource constraints and the practical difficulty in accessing every respondent in Nigeria, the study was limited to Edo State, which is considered a fair representation of the whole country on issues of investment in the capital and money market. The respondents were drawn from among investors potential investors and their advisers in Edo state. They were classified into three groups viz (a) Bank portfolio investors. The bank Portfolio Managers were selected from banks located in Edo State to serve as a proxy for institutional investors. Financial advisers were collected from among chartered Accountants and stockbrokers in Edo State. Other investors were collected from among individual investors and potential investors. The five point Linkert scale was used in the design of the questionnaire, which was the research instrument. The scale was constructed by assembling a number of statements about factors used in assessing the credibility of management disclosures. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree or strongly disagree with each of the names of statement. The questionnaire consist of two parts. Part I contain questions on information about the respondents for the purpose of respondent classification. Part I consist of 23 questions under six (6) sections. The one – way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used as the inferential statistics.

Results
During the data gathering exercise, a total of 150 questionnaires were administered to the three groups, with each group receiving 50 questionnaires. Table 1 below shows the distribution of the questionnaires and the response rates of the various groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>No of questionnaires administered</th>
<th>No of questionnaires returned</th>
<th>Response rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual investors</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>54.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank portfolio managers</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial analysis</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>51.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to avoid group dominance in the result of the research, equal number of respondents was selected from the various groups. The minimum response of 20 from the bank portfolio managers group was used as the reference datum for selecting the other two groups for analysis. The questionnaires consequently analyzed are shown in Table 2 bellow.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>No of questionnaires received</th>
<th>No of questionnaire analysed</th>
<th>No of questionnaires rejected</th>
<th>% of questionnaires analysed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual investors</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>74.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bank portfolio managers</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial analysis</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>77.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The demographic Characteristics of the respondents where responses were analyzed are shown in Table 3.
Table 3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (years)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 and above</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>75.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years worked</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Under 5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 and above</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Descriptive statistics and test of hypotheses

Table 4 shows the while Table 5 shows a summary of the result of the hypotheses testing

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Situational incentives</th>
<th>Management credibility</th>
<th>External assurance</th>
<th>Internal assurance</th>
<th>Disclosure precision</th>
<th>Support information</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>3.67a</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.25a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td>0.557</td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.755</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.587</td>
<td>0.310</td>
<td>0.189</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>0.216</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Multiple modes exist

Table 5 Hypotheses testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1 Between Groups Within Groups Total</td>
<td>4.459</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.230</td>
<td>6.949</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.289</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22.748</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2 Between Groups Within Groups Total</td>
<td>6.100</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.050</td>
<td>6.089</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28.550</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.501</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>34.650</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3 Between Groups Within Groups Total</td>
<td>3.712</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.856</td>
<td>7.245</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.603</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.315</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4 Between Groups Within Groups Total</td>
<td>1.623</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.812</td>
<td>4.843</td>
<td>0.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9.553</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0.168</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.176</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Situational incentives
H1: management disclosure credibility is related to situational incentives. The mean of the responses is 3.92 with a standard deviation of 0.62. The hypothesis was tested and the result shows a calculated value of $F=6.949$ which is greater than the critical value of 3.15 The hypothesis is thus accepted.

Management credibility
H2: there is a positive relationship between the credibility of management disclosure and management credibility. The result of the hypothesis testing shows a calculated value of $F=6.089$ which is higher than the table value of $F=3.15$ . The hypothesis is thus accepted

Level of external assurance
H3: there is a positive relationship between the credibility of management disclosure and the level of external assurance. The mean of the responses is 3.94 with a standard deviation of 0.56. The hypothesis testing yields a calculated value of $F=7.245$ which is higher than the table value of $F=3.15$ hence the hypothesis is accepted.

Level of internal assurance
H4: there is a positive relationship between the credibility of management disclosure and the level of internal assurance.. The mean of the responses is 4.02 with a standard deviation of 0.44. The hypotheses results show a calculated value of $F=4.843$ which is greater than the table value of 3.15, hence the hypothesis is accepted.

Disclosure precision and time horizon
H5: there is a positive relationship between the credibility of management disclosure and the disclosure precision and time horizon. The mean response for the variable is 3.96 with a standard deviation of 0.76. The calculated value of $F=5.580$ from the hypothesis testing is higher than the critical value of $F=3.15$ The hypothesis was therefore accepted.

Support information
H6: the is a positive relat ionship between the credibility of management disclosure and availability of support information and inherent plausibility. The mean response is 4.03 with a standard deviation of 0.22. The results show a calculated value of $F= 3.871$ which is higher than the table value of 3.15 .Thus, the hypothesis is accepted.

Summary of findings
The study was out to examine how investors assess the credibility of management disclosures. From the study the following findings are made:(1)The situational incentives at time of disclosure affect the credibility of the disclosure, (2)If a management is credible or has good reputation, investors would place high premium on the credibility of disclosures made by the management (3)Investors would give high credibility to management disclosures of companies where there is a
high level of external and internal assurance (4)Characteristics of the information itself like availability of support information, time horizon inherent plausibility etc affects investors assessment of the credibility of management disclosures.

**Discussion of findings**

In this section, we examine the implication of the findings for the issues raised on the investors assessment of the credibility of management disclosures. The results show that respondents believe that situational incentives affect investors assessment of the credibility of management disclosure. Bad news is disclosed in financial statements are more credible than good news disclosure. Bad news has negative effect on a company, and management is usually not ready to disclose bad news except it becomes imperative. Thus when bad news is disclosed, it is most likely to be credible. Also financially distressed companies are desperate to hide their true state from the outside world. They are therefore not likely to give credible disclosures. Invariably disclosure credibility should be tied to management credibility. If a manager is credible he is expected to give true disclosures otherwise, he is no longer credible. Management credibility is evidence from past records, and one of the best evidence in this regard is the past credibility of disclosure made by the manager. Hence management disclosure credibility is affected by management credibility. This finding is line with earlier findings of McNichols(1989), Kelley(1972), and Koch(1999).

The results have also indicated that the level of external assurance affect the credibility of management disclosure. External assurance is a measure of the level of monitoring of the companies affairs of operations. Such assurance is provided by auditors, regulators, financial analysts and institutional investors. The activities of these external agents gives some form of assurance that proper processes are being followed by the company. This inspire the confidence of the investor in the disclosures made by such companies. The finding on level of external assurance is consistent with the findings of Libby(1979), Hodge(2001), Leftwich(1983), Blackwell et a(1998), Gogoi(2001), and Li(2002). Internal assurance play a similar role in the assessment of the credibility of management disclosure. Agents of internal assurance include board of director audit committee and internal audit department. The quality and expertise of these internal assurance agents is critical to the existence of a good corporate governance framework. The finding of the study for internal assurance is consistent with existing literature (Xie, et al. 2003; Beasley, 1996; Wild, 1996; Klein,1999; Fox, 1999).

The findings of the study has further shown that management credibility disclosure is a function of characteristics of the disclosure itself like the level of precision of the disclosure, whether the disclosure is for the short term (short horizon) or the long term (long-horizon), the availability of support information and the inherent plausibility of the disclosure. These findings are consistent with most pieces of findings in the literature such as Hassel et al(1988), King et al(1990), and Pownal, et al(1993) for disclosure precision and time horizon; and Gorgler(1994), Hutton, et al(2003) for support information and inherent plausibility.

The study did not examine interactive effects of the various factors. This should be a subject for further investigation.

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

The current study contributes to the established literature addressing factors affecting investors assessment of the credibility of management disclosures. The study is considered unique at least in Nigeria in that it consider the factors affecting investor assessment of the credibility of management disclosures directly from the perspective of the investors using primary data. Other studies before it have examined some aspects of the issues using mainly secondary data. There is no doubt that the assessment of the credibility of management disclosures will continue to be of interest in Nigeria, just like in other countries of the world.
This study will therefore be of particular interest to management of companies who want to improve on the credibility of their disclosures. This study has confirmed to them the factor that investor take into consideration when assessing management disclosures. The study will also be useful relevant to investors and potential investor, analysts other uses of financial statement who have reasons to assess the credibility of management disclosures. The study will also be of importance to professional bodies regulators and policy makers who are involved in regulating management disclosures.

The following recommendations are made for organisations who desire a fair assessment of their management disclosures: (1) They should ensure that they retain credible managers, (2) They should endeavour to provide both external and internal assurance for their disclosures, (3) They should ensure that adequate corporate governance structures are put in place,(4) Estimates disclosed by the management should be as precise as possible,(4)When making forecasts, short term horizon elements should be incorporated as much as possible, (5)They should provide adequate support information to accompany management disclosures, and (6) They should enrich their shareholders profile by incorporating large institutional investors.

References


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Mass Media, Governance and Public Opinion in a Democracy

By

Dr. Linus Ogbuoshi I.

Abstract
This study examined the role of mass media and public opinion in a democratic system of government. Mass media are the institutions that produce media messages and public opinion is the barometer that government uses to measure its performances from the electorates. The study also examined various theories of mass media including pluralist model, dominant –ideology model, Elite-values model and market model. The media make Democracy and governance very lively. They inform people adequately about the government and the governed. They helped expose societal ills and fight injustice in the society. The media serve as avenue for expression of opinions of people called public opinion which government in turn uses a parameter in planning and executing their policies. All in all mass media and public opinion promotes good governance in a democracy.

Key words: Mass Media, Public opinion, Democracy

Introduction
The media comprise those societal institutions that are concerned with the production and distribution of all forms of knowledge, information and entertainment. They include print media (Newspapers, Magazines, Books, other Printed materials and Broadcast Media (Radio, Television, Internet). The mass media have been recognized as politically significant since the advent of mass literacy and the popular press in the late nineteenth century. However, it is widely accepted that, through a combination of social and technological changes, the media have become increasingly more powerful political actors and, in some respects, more deeply enmeshed in the political process. Three developments are particularly noteworthy. First, the impact of the so-called 'primary' agents of political socialization such as the family and social class, has declined. Whereas once people acquired, in late childhood and adolescence in particular, a framework of political sympathies and leanings that adult experience tended to modify or deepen, but seldom radically transformed, this has been weakened in modern society by greater social and geographical mobility and by the spread of individualist and consumerist values. This, in turn, widens the scope for the media’s political influence, as they are the principal mechanism through which information about issues and policies, and therefore political choices, are presented to the public.

Second, the development of a mass television audience from the 1950s onwards, and more recently the proliferation of channels and media output associated with the ‘new’ media, has massively increased the mass media’s penetration of people’s everyday lives. This means that the public now relies on the mass media more heavily than ever before: for instance, television is a much more important source of news and current-affairs information than political meetings; many more people watch televised sport than participate in it; and even shopping is increasingly being carried out through shopping channels and the internet. Particular interest has focused on the burgeoning political significance of the internet.

Third, the media have become more powerful economic actors. Not only are major media corporations major global players, but also a series of mergers has tended to incorporate the formerly discrete domains of publishing, television, film, music, computers and

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telecommunications into a single massive ‘infotainment’ industry (Scammel, 2000). Media businesses such as Microsoft, AOL-Time Warner, Disney and News Corporation have accumulated so much economic and market power that no government can afford to ignore them.

Few commentators doubt the media’s ability to shape political attitudes and values or, at least, to structure political and electoral choice by influencing public perceptions about the nature and importance of issues and problems.

Theoretical Background
There is considerable debate about the political significance of this influence. A series of rival theories offer contrasting views of the media’s political impact. The most important of these are discussed hereunder:

i. Pluralist model
Pluralism highlights diversity and multiplicity. The pluralist model of the mass media portrays the media as an ideological marketplace in which a wide range of political views are debated and discussed. While not rejecting the idea that the media can affect political views and sympathies, this nevertheless suggests that their impact is essentially neutral, in that they tend to reflect the balance of forces within society at large.

The pluralist view nevertheless portrays the media in strongly positive terms. In ensuring an ‘informed citizenry’, the mass media both enhance the quality of democracy and guarantee that government power is checked. This ‘watchdog’ role was classically demonstrated in the 1974 Washington Post investigation into the Watergate scandal, which led to the resignation of Richard Nixon as US President. Some, moreover, argue that the advent of the ‘new’ media, and particularly the internet, has strengthened pluralism and political competition by giving protest groups, including ‘anti-capitalist’ activists, a relatively cheap and highly effective means of disseminating information and organizing campaigns. However, the pluralist model suffers from significant deficiencies. For example, weak and unorganized groups are excluded from access to mainstream publishing and broadcasting, meaning that the media’s ideological marketplace tends to be relatively narrow and generally pro-establishment in character. In addition, private ownership and formal independence from government may not be sufficient to guarantee the media’s oppositional character in the light of the increasingly symbiotic relationship between government, journalists and broadcasters.

ii. Dominant-ideology model
The dominant-ideology model portrays the mass media as a politically conservative force that is aligned to the interests of economic and social elites, and serves to promote compliance or political passivity amongst the masses. In its Marxist version, associated with theorists such as Gramsci it suggests that the media propagate bourgeois ideas and maintain capitalist hegemony, acting in the interests of major corporations and media moguls. Ownership, in other words, ultimately determines the political and other views that the mass media disseminate, and ownership is increasingly concentrated in the hands of a small number of global media corporation, Viacom, Disney, Vivendi Universal and Bertelsmann AG. From this perspective, the media play an important role in promoting globalization in that their tendency to spread ideas, images and values that are compatible with western consumerism helps to open up new markets and extend business penetration worldwide.

One of the most influential and sophisticated versions of the dominant-ideology model was developed by Noam Chomsky and Ed Herman in Manufacturing Consent (1994), in the form of the ‘propaganda model’. They identified five ‘filters’ through which news and political coverage are distorted by the structures of the media. These filters are stated below:
• the business interests of owner companies
• a sensitivity to the views and concerns of advertisers and sponsors
• the sourcing of news and information from ‘agents of power’ such as governments and business-backed think-tanks
• ‘flak’ or pressure applied to journalists including threats of legal action
• an unquestioning belief in the benefits of market competition and consumer capitalism.

Chomsky’s analysis emphasizes the degree to which the mass media can subvert democracy, helping, for example, to mobilize popular support. The dominant-ideology model is nevertheless also subject to criticism. Objections to it include that it underestimates the extent to which the press and broadcasters, particularly public serve broadcasts, pay attention to progressive social, racial and development issues. Moreover, the assumption that media output shapes political attitudes is determinist and neglects the role played by people’s own values in filtering, and possibly resisting media messages.

iii. Elite-values model
The elite-values model shifts attention away from the ownership of media corporations to the mechanism through which media output is controlled. This view suggests that editors, journalists and broadcasters enjoy significant professional independence, and that event the most interventionist of media moguls are able only to set a broad political agenda but not to control day-to-day editorial decision-making. The media’s political bias therefore reflects the values of groups that are disproportionally represented amongst its senior professionals. However, there are a number of versions of this model, depending on the characteristics that are considered to be politically significant.

One version of the elite-values model holds that the anti-socialist and politically conservative views of most mainstream newspapers, magazines and television stations derive from the fact that their senior professionals are well paid and generally from middle-class backgrounds. A quite different version is sometimes advanced by conservatives, who believe that the media reflect the views of university-educated, liberal intellectuals, whose values and concerns are quite different from those of the mass of the population. In its feminist version, this model highlights the predominance of males amongst senior journalists and broadcasters, implying that this both explains the inadequate attention given to women’s views and issues by the mass media and accounts for the confrontational style of interviewing and political discussion sometimes adopted by broadcasters and journalists. Although the elite-values model helps to explain why the range of political view expressed by the mass media is often more restricted than pluralists suggest, it also has its limitations. Chief amongst these is that it fails to take full enough account of the pressures that bear upon senior media professionals; These, for example, include the views and interests of owners and commercial considerations, notably ‘ratings’ figures.

iv. Market model
The market model of the mass media differs from the other models in that it dispenses with the idea of media bias: it holds that newspapers and television reflect, rather than shape, the views of the general public. This occurs because, regardless of the personal views of media owners and senior professionals, private media outlets are first foremost businesses concerned with profit maximization and thus with extending market share. The media therefore give people ‘what they want’, and cannot afford to alienate existing or potential viewers or readers by presenting political viewpoints with which they may disagree. Such considerations may be less pressing in relation to public service broadcasters.

Nevertheless, although this model dispenses with the idea that at least the privately owned mass media should be seen as part of the political process, it helps to explain some
significant trends in political life. One of these may be growing popular disenchantment with politics resulting from the trivialization of political coverage. Fearful of losing ‘market share’, television companies in particular have reduced their coverage of serious political debate, and thus abandoned their responsibility for educating and informing citizens, in favour of ‘infotainment’.

The role of the media in a Democracy

Democracy is a political system which allows all voters an equal part in choosing their government. It is sometimes referred as a representative government. It is that form of constitution and administration in which the great masses of the adult population have a direct or an indirect share. In a democracy, people are guaranteed their fundamental human rights. People should all have informed opinions so that they can make a good choice from the alternative candidates and policies offered to them.

The impact that the mass media have on democracy is one of the most widely debated aspects of the relationship between the media and politics. For many, the existence of a free press is one of the key features of democratic governance. However, how do the mass media act as custodians of democracy? And why have some questioned the mass media’s democratic credentials, even arguing that they may undermine it? The mass media can be said to promote democracy in four key ways:

- by fostering public debate and political engagement
- by acting as a ‘public watchdog’ to check abuses of power
- by redistributing power and political influence
- by providing a mechanism through which democracy can operate.

The capacity to provide a civic forum in which meaningful and serious political debate can take place is often viewed as the key democratic role of the mass media. The virtue of this is that better-informed citizens with more independent and considered views will be more politically engaged. The mass media are therefore agents of political education. Indeed, the mass media may have largely replaced formal representative institutions, such as assemblies, parliaments and local councils, as arenas for the dialogue, debate and deliberation that are the very stuff of democratic politics. This has happened because the mass media are, arguably, better suited to this role than are traditional representative bodies. In addition to offering the public perhaps its only meaningful opportunity to watch politicians in action (though, for example, interviews with politicians and televised assembly debates), the mass media provide a forum for the expression of a much wider range of view-points and opinions than is possible within representative institutions composed only of elected politicians. Thus, academics and scientists, business leaders and trade union bosses, and representatives of interest groups and lobbyists of all kinds are able to express views and engage in public debate through the mechanism of mass media. This, moreover, extends to the public itself, which is able to express its views through, for instance, radio phone-in programmes, ‘vox pop’ television shows, ‘chat rooms’, and internet blogs and so on. Not only do the mass media substantially widen the range of views and opinions expressed in political debate, but they also present debate and discussion in a way that is lively and engaging for the general public, devoid of the formality, even stuffiness, that characterizes the exchanges that take place in assemblies and council chambers around the world.

The ‘watchdog’ role of the mass media is, in a sense, a subset of the political debate argument. The role of the media, from this perspective, is to ensure that public accountability takes place, by scrutinizing the activities of government and exposing abuses of power. Once again, in carrying out this role the mass media is supplementing and, to some extent, replacing the work of formal representative institutions. Media professionals such as journalists and television presenters are particularly suited to this role because they are ‘outside’ politics and have no
interest other than to expose incompetence, corruption or simply muddled thinking whenever and wherever it can be found. By contrast, if public accountability is left solely in the hands of professional politicians it may be constrained by the fact that those who attempt to expose ineptitude or wrongdoing wish themselves, at some stage, to hold government power. This may not only taint their motives, but it may also discourage them from criticizing processes and practices that they may wish to take advantage of in the future. However, the media can only perform this role effectively if they are properly independent, and not dominated by government. Democratic governance therefore requires either that the publicly financed media are accountable to an independent commission, or that there is an appropriate level of competition from ‘free’ or privately financed media.

Third, the mass media promotes democracy by widening the distribution of power and political influence in society. This is largely accomplished through the ‘new’ media’s capacity to significantly enlarge access to information and opportunities for information exchange. Earlier advances in communications technology, notably the invention of printing in the fifteenth century and the spread of television, early-generation computers and satellites in the post-1945 period (sometimes dubbed the ‘first’ and the ‘second’ communication revolutions), tended to strengthen government more than they did the general public. Communications technology both ensured that governments knew more than their citizens did, and helped them control the flow of information to the public, giving them the ability to ‘manage’ public opinion. However, the so-called ‘third’ communication revolution, brought about since the 1990s especially by the spread of satellite and cable television, mobile phones, the internet and digital technology generally, has helped to create what has been called an ‘information society’. Easier and far wider access to news and information means that, for the first time, citizens and citizen groups are privy to a quantity and quality of information that may rival that of government. This has generally empowered nonstate actors at the expense of national governments and traditional political elites. Nongovernmental organizations, interest groups and think-tanks have thus become more effective in challenging the positions and actions of government and, sometimes, even displace government as an authoritative source of views and information about specialist subjects ranging from the environment and global poverty to public health and civil liberties. In addition, the ‘new’ media have facilitated political participation and helped to give the politics of protest and popular mobilization greater organizational effectiveness. Armed with mobile phones and through the use of the internet, anti-globalization, or ‘anti-capitalist’, protesters have thus been able to disrupt the activities and affect the actions of bodies such as the World Trade Organization and the G8.

Fourth, the media’s democratic potential is embodied in the possibilities that new technology offers for expanding citizen participation, through what is called electronic democracy, ‘cyber democracy’ or ‘e-democracy’. From this perspective, the problems that afflict many mature democracies, such as declining attendance at political meetings and falling electoral turnout, may be less a reflection of growing disenchantment with democracy and politics in general, and more an indication of the failure of the democratic process to keep up to date with how citizens in an information society wish to participate in politics and express their views. Electronic democracy, which operates through interactive television, the internet and on-line voting, appears to have at least three advantages. It overcomes the problem of size because people no longer need to assemble in large numbers to engage in political activity; it massively enlarges citizens’ access to information and makes possible a truly free exchange of ideas and views; and it enables citizens to express their views easily and conveniently without having to leave home. Electronic democracy has nevertheless attracted criticism. Some of these criticisms focus on practical in advantages, such as the greater likelihood of electoral fraud and malpractice in a system that is based on electronic, not physical, participation. Other criticisms go deeper, however, and suggest that turning the democratic process into a series of push-button
referendums while citizens sit alone in their own living rooms further erodes the public dimension of political participation and reduces democratic citizenship to a series of consumer choices.

However, there are three deeper reservations about the capacity of the mass media to deliver effective democratic governance. The first of these, as advanced by dominant-ideology and elite-values theorists, is that far from providing citizens with a wide and balanced range of political views, the content of the mass media is tainted by clear political biases. Whether political bias stems from the opinions and values of editors, journalists and broadcasters, or from a more general alignment between the interests of the mass media and those of economic and social elites, it is difficult to see how the mass media’s duty to provide objective information and the remain faithful to public-service principles can be discharged reliably and consistently in practice. Particular emphasis has, in this respect, been placed on the implications of media ownership, and the fact that the views and interests of major corporations or powerful media moguls cannot but, at some level, influence media output. Insofar as the mass media affects the political agenda, this agenda is likely to be politically conservative and at least compatible with the interests of dominant groups in society. Second, the mass media is not subject to public accountability; the mass media is the classic example ‘power without responsibility’ (Curran and Seaton, 2003). However well-informed, knowledgeable and stimulating the views of journalists and broadcasters may be, and however eager they may be to portray themselves as the ‘voice of the people’, media professionals – unlike elected politicians – ‘represent’ no one other than themselves, and have no meaningful basis for claiming to articulate public opinion. Third, there are reasons for doubting the independence of the media from government. As discussed in the final section of this chapter, all too often a symbiotic relationship develops between media professionals and the political elite which constrains both the mass media’s political views and its capacity to act as an effective ‘watchdog’.

**Mass media and governance**

Apart from its impact on democracy, the prominence of the mass media in an ‘information age’ has affected the processes of governance in a variety of ways. The most significant of these include the transformation of political leadership, and with it a reapportionment of government power; changes to the political culture that, some have warned, are leading to a growing disenchantment with politics and making societies more difficult to govern; and alterations to the behaviour of governments and the nature of policy-making.

The chief way in which the mass media has transformed political leadership is through growing interest in the personal lives and private conduct of senior political figures, at the expense of serious and ‘sober’ policy and ideological debate. This, in part, stems from the media’s, and particularly television’s, obsession with image rather than issues, and with personality rather than policies.

There can be little doubt that the advent of the ‘media age’ has changed the behaviour of political leaders, as well as affected the career prospects of individual politicians. For example, presentational factors, such as personal appearance, hairstyle, dress sense and so on, have become more important in determining political preferment or advancement. However, such developments have not merely changed the ‘face’ of modern politics; they have recorded power relationships both within the political executive and between the executive and the assembly. The growth of ‘political celebrity’ gives presidents, prime ministers and other party leaders the ability to make personalized appeals to the voters, creating the phenomenon of *spatial leadership*. This allows leaders to appeal ‘over the heads’ of their senior colleagues, parties and government institutions, directly to the public. Furthermore, the messages they give and the policy and ideological stances they adopt are increasingly determined by leading politicians personally, supported, it appears, by an ever-expanding band of public relations consultants, ‘spin doctors’, media managers, pollsters and publicity directors. One of the consequences of this is that junior
politicians may have an additional reason for deferring to their leaders: their fear of damaging their leader’s image and reputation. If the leader is damaged, especially by splits and internal criticism, all members of his or her party or government suffer. Political power thus comes to be structured on the basis of the publicity and media attention received by individual politicians. The greater the media attention, the greater the political leverage. However, media attention is far from an unqualified benefit for political leaders. Although their triumphs and successes can be publicly trumpeted, their flaws, failings and transgressions can also be ruthlessly exposed. Indeed, the ultimate vulnerability of contemporary political leaders may well be that negative media coverage may turn them into ‘electoral liabilities’, encouraging their parties and colleagues to remove them in order to ‘save the party’, or their own political careers.

The second way in which the media has affected governance is through its impact on the political culture. The media is sometimes charged with having created a climate of corrosive cynicism amongst the public, leading to growing popular disenchantment with politics generally and a lack of trust in governments and politicians of all complexions (Lloyd, 2004). This may, in turn, be linked to trends that have afflicted mature democracies in particular, such as declining voter turnout and falling party membership. The UK is often seen as the most advance example of such a media-driven ‘culture of contempt’, but similar tendencies are evident elsewhere, notably in the USA, Australia and Canada. Why has this happened? A critical stance towards politicians in general and governments in particular is, of course, vital to the maintenance of democratic governance. However, the distinction between legitimate criticism and systematic and relentless negativity may, in practice, be difficult to uphold. This occurs, in part, because increasingly intense commercial pressures have forced the media to make their coverage of politics ‘sexy’ and attention-grabbing. The media, after all, is a business, and this places inevitable pressure on the coverage of news and current affairs. Facts are absorbed more and more quickly into a swirl of comment and interpretation, blurring, seemingly altogether, the distinction between what happens and what it means. Similarly, routine political debate and policy analysis receive less and less attention, as the media focuses instead on – or ‘hyped’ – scandals of various kinds and allegations of incompetence, policy failure or simple inertia. Leading politicians have, as a result, come to live in a kind of ongoing reality-television programme, whose sole purpose appears to be to embarrass and denigrate them at every possible turn. The public, for their part, tend to view politicians as untrustworthy and deceitful, according them the same level of respect they would accord any other reality-television-programme participant. The final way in which the mass media has influenced governance is through its impact on the policy-making process. This has happened in at least two ways. The first is that, just like everyone else in society, government is bombarded by a much greater quantity of information arriving almost immediately. Knowing too much can sometimes be as dangerous as knowing too little. An example of this can be found in the USA’s inability to predict and prevent the September 11 terrorist attacks in 2001. The problem the USA faced was not that it lacked information about al-Qaeda, its plans and movements, but the sheer quantity of national-security intelligence available made effective analysis almost impossible. Moreover, as news and information spreads around and globe at a faster pace, governments are forced to react to events more quickly and often before they have been fully discussed and digested. An age of ‘24/7 news’ inevitably becomes one of ‘24/7 government’. Politicians are encouraged, even forced, to take a stance on issues simply to avoid being criticized for inertia or inactivity, leaving little time for the analysis of policy options and their implications. Second, greater reliance on the mass media means that it is often the media, and not government, that sets the political agenda and dictates the direction of policy-making. For example, the fact that television pictures of the Asian tsunami in December 2004 were broadcast almost immediately across the globe, creating an outpouring of public sympathy for its victims and leading to unprecedented levels of private charitable donations, forced governments around the world, within days, to substantially increase their scale of aid and support.
The Impact of Public opinion in a democratic system

Especially in liberal democracies, politics is a battle for influence over the important but imprecise terrain of public opinion. Governments, parties and interest groups seek to persuade the public to adopt their agenda, their frame of reference and their policy preferences. Yet although the notion of public opinion remains somewhat opaque, it is an important element in political communication.

Public opinion can refer to (1) ‘the range of views on some controversial issues held by some significant portion of population’ or (2) the informed judgment of a community on an issue of common concern, where that judgment is formed in the context of shared political goals (Qualter, 1991).

Public opinion is an aggregate of the individual views, attitudes, and beliefs on a particular topic, expressed by a significant proportion of a community. Some scholars treat the aggregate as a synthesis of the views of all or a certain segment of society; others regard it as a collection of many differing or opposing views. Writing in 1918 the American sociologist Charles Horton Cooley emphasized public opinion as a process of interaction and mutual influence rather than a state of broad agreement. The American political scientist V.O. Key defined public opinion in 1961 as “opinions held by private persons which governments find it prudent to heed”. Subsequent advances in statistical and demographic analysis led by the 1990s to an understanding of public opinion as the collective view of a defined population, such as a particular demographic or ethnic group.

Public opinion is simply what the public thinks about a given issue, nothing more and nothing less. This down-to-earth view was reflected in the definition offered by Sir Robert Peel, twice prime minister of Britain in the nineteenth century. He referred to public opinion as ‘that great compound of folly, weakness, prejudice, wrong feeling, right feeling, obstinacy and newspaper paragraphs’ (Green, 1994, p. 213). In similar vein, Lippman (1992) famously interpreted the notion as the ‘pictures inside our heads’ of other people whose behaviour crosses ours. Lippman took pains to emphasize that these mental pictures have real effects, thereby providing the key argument for the political importance of the concept.

A second view of public opinion is more elaborate, linking the idea of a ‘public’ to the views of an informed community sharing basic political principles. This perspective was expressed by the British Statesman W.E. Gladstone (1809-98): ‘public opinion represents the sum or balance of the abstract moral principles of the persons forming the community’ (quoted in Hare, 1873, p. xix). From this perspective, a community is only regarded as capable of a public opinion if its people are settled on the ends of government and the range of means for pursuing them. Here public opinion is interpreted as the considered will of a cohesive group. This perspective derives from the model of a self-governing republic and treats public opinion as far more than an opinion poll finding. Within this framework, public opinion is judged to possess moral weight. In a divided society, by contrast, there would be more than one public and therefore more than one public opinion.

Because public opinion research is based on direct contact with the public, it goes behind group leaders claiming to speak on behalf of their members. Opinion polls, in particular, give even the most cocooned politicians an insight into the public mood. Given that public opinion is an important element of democratic politics, how exactly does it exert its influence? In a sense public opinion pervades all policy-making. It forms the environment within which politicians work, sitting in on many government meetings even though it is never minuted as a member.

In such discussions public opinion usually performs one of two roles, acting either as a prompt or as a veto. ‘Public opinion demands we do something about traffic congestion’ is an example of the former; ‘public opinion would never accept restrictions on car use’ illustrates the
latter. So as Qualter (1991, p. 5110 suggests, ‘while public opinion does not govern, it may set limits on what governments do’.

Yet public opinion is never all-powerful, even in liberal democracies. It informs agendas rather than policy. Four factors limits its influence:

- Public opinion offers few detailed policy prescriptions. A few important objectives preoccupy the public but most policies are routine and uncontroversial. In detailed policy-making, expert and organized opinion matters more than public opinion.
- The public as a whole is often ill-informed, especially but not only on foreign policy. Asked before the Iraq invasion, ‘To the best of your knowledge, how many of the September 11 hijackers were Iraqi citizens? Only 7 percent of Americans gave the correct answer: none (Pryor, 2003).
- Public opinion can evade trade-offs but governments cannot, though they sometimes try. The public may want lower taxes, more government spending and a lower budget deficit simultaneously but rulers must choose between these objectives. Further, the risks associated with a policy are poorly assessed by the public but require close attention from decision-makers (Weissberg, 2002).
- Politicians typically respond to organized opinion rather than to public opinion. Their perceptions of the public’s views are in any case often inaccurate, derived as they are from the distorting lenses of interest groups, the media and the natural tendency to project one’s own views onto the wider electorate (Herbst, 1998).

Public opinion is most influential when it changes. Only foolhardy politicians disregard developments in the overall climate of opinion and many politicians are wisely sensitive to changes in the national mood (Stimson, 1991 and 2004).

**Mass media and public opinion**

Public opinion refers to the view on any matter of public interest held generally or by the majority of the citizens. The main purpose of public opinion is either to make comments, criticize or confront the view of the government on what it feels are of public interest.

Public opinion is expressed by the people in an attempt to influence the activities of the government. Through public opinion, the government is able to see that the people think about its activities. Public opinion is the barometer with which the government measures the feeling of the people about its practical policies.

The mass media can produce a change in attitude of people on public opinion on controversial issues from misconceptives to accord impressions or from little or no information to knowledge change in attitude are accomplished by establishing beliefs, by contaminating, informing or by appealing to the feeling to arouse favourable opinion. The media seek to mould public opinion by persuading a passive attitude to adopt a positive or negative attitude which will best serve the interest of the group to which they belong.

We know about Public opinion by reading regularly newspapers and periodicals especially editorial columns, by listening to the views of people on public issues or TV, radio, conversation, conferences, lectures and by interviewing a cross section of the people orally or through the use of unifier questionnaires.

**Public opinion and government**

By its very nature, the democratic process spurs citizens to form opinions on a number of issues. Voters are called upon to choose candidates in elections, to consider constitutional amendments, and to approve or reject municipal taxes and other legislative proposals. Almost any matter on which the executive or legislature has to decide may become a public issue if a significant number of people wish to make it one. The political attitudes of those persons are often
stimulated or reinforced by outside agencies – a crusading newspaper, an interest group, or a government agency or official.

The English philosopher and economist Jeremy Bentham (1748 – 1832) saw the greatest difficulty of the legislator as being “in conciliating the public opinion, in correcting it when erroneous, and in giving it that bent which shall be most favourable to produce obedience to his mandates”. At the same time, Bentham and some other thinkers believed that public opinions a useful check on the authority of rulers. Bentham demanded that all official acts be publicized, so that an enlightened public opinion could pass judgment on them, as would a tribunal: “To the pernicious exercise of the power of government it is the only check.”

In the early years of modern democracy, some scholars acknowledge the power or public opinion but warned that it could be a dangerous force. Tocqueville was concerned that a government of the masses would become a “tyranny of the majority.” But, whether public opinion is regarded as a constructive or a baneful force in a democracy, there are few politicians who are prepared to suggest in public that government should ignore it.

Political scientists have been less concerned with what part public opinion should play in a democratic polity and have given more attention to establishing what part it does play in actuality. From the examination of numerous histories of policy formation, it is clear that no sweeping generalization can be made that will hold in all cases. The role of public opinion varies from issue to issue, just as public opinion assets itself generalization that can be made is that public opinion does not influence the details of most government policies but it does set limits within which policy makers must operate. That is, public officials will usually seek to satisfy a widespread demand – or at least take it into account in their deliberations – and they will usually try to avoid decisions that they believe will be widely unpopular.

Yet efforts by political leaders to accommodate government policies to public opinion are not always perceived as legitimate; indeed, journalists and political commentators have often characterized them as pandering to public opinion to curry favour with their constituents or as being driven by the latest poll results. Such charges were questioned, however, by public opinion scholars Lawrence R. Jacobs and Robert Y. Shapiro, who argued in *Politicians Don’t Pander: Political Manipulation and the Loss of Democratic Responsiveness* (2000) that politicians do not actually do this. They found instead that by the early 1970s the accusation of pandering was being used deliberately by prominent journalists, politicians, and other elites as a means of lessening the influence of public opinion on government policy. This practice, they theorized, might have resulted from long-standing suspicion or hostility among elites toward popular participation in government and politics. In keeping with their findings, Jacobs and Shapiro postulated the eventual disappearance from public discourse of the stigmatizing term pandering and its replacement by the more neutral term political responsiveness.

Although they rejected the charge of pandering, Jacobs and Shapiro also asserted that most politicians tend to respond to public opinion in cynical ways; most of them, for example, use public opinion research not to establish their policies but only to identify slogans and symbols that will make predetermined policies more appealing to their constituents. According to Jacobs and Shapiro, most public opinion research is used to manipulate the public rather than to act on its wishes.

Public opinion exerts a more powerful influence in politics through its “latent” aspects. As discussed by V.O. Key, latent public opinion is, in effect, a probable future reaction by the public to a current decision or action by a public official or a government. Politicians who ignore the possible consequences of latent public opinion risk setback or defeat in future elections. Government leaders who take latent public opinion into account, on the other hand, may be willing to undertake an unpopular action that has a negative effect on public opinion in the near term, provided that the action is also likely to have a significant positive effect at a later and more important time.
Public opinion seems to be much effective in influencing policy making at the local level than at the state or national levels. One reason for this is that issues of concern to local governments – such as the condition of roads, schools, and hospitals – are less complex than those dealt with by governments at higher levels; another is that at the local level there are fewer institutional or bureaucratic barriers between policy makers and voters. Representative government itself, however, tends to limit the power of pubic opinion to influence specific government decisions, since ordinarily the only choice the public is given is that of approving or disapproving the election of a given official.

**Conclusion**
The foregoing discussion has shown that mass media and public opinion are indispensable tools for government.
- Government uses mass media to promote its activities and achieve legitimacy among the citizenry.
- Government also uses public opinion to evaluate its performance and it serves as a guide in planning further policies and programmes.

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Determinants Of Consumers’ Choice Of Toilet Soap Brands In Enugu Metropolis

By

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Abstract
As a result of the intense competition witnessed in the toilet soap market in Nigeria, manufacturers often spend a huge amount of resources employing different forms of marketing strategies, mostly based on trial and error, to woo customers to their brands. Sometimes, they end up with some measure of success at other times with colossal failures. To provide a guide to manufacturers in designing effective strategies, this paper is, therefore, an attempt to determine the effects of a set of marketing mix variables (products, price, place, promotion) and demographic variables (age, income, education, marital status, occupation, skin type, social factors) which manufacturers believe determine the brand choice behaviour of consumers in Enugu metropolis. 400 consumers were sampled for the study. Primary data was generated through questionnaire and observation. Secondary data was generated through internet, journals and books on topics related to the study. Analysis of data was done using chi square statistical tool at 5% significance level. The survey result shows that price, product, education, income, occupation and consumer skin types strongly determine the consumers’ choice of toilet soap brands while place, promotion, age, marital status, social factors and substitute products have minimal effects on the choice of brands. Also majority of respondents (85%) felt price was at medium level followed by 11% who felt price was high. About 29% perceive skin protection quality of the brand as determinant of choice followed by 18% who felt it was the brand’s fragrance. About 21% and 16% perceived radio and TV advertisements respectively as major factors in brand choice decision. Based on the above findings, it is recommended that emphasis should be placed on the variables with strong positive relationship on consumer choice while deemphasizing expenditure in money, time and human resources on the less important variables. Also, manufacturers should capitalize on packaging brands with appealing fragrances which are also sensitive to consumer skin-types, education, occupations and income level needs. Again kiosks, open market outlets, radio and TV advertisements should be used in building brand volumes and equity.

Introduction
The success of a firm depends largely on its capability to attract consumers towards its brands in particular. It is critical for the survival of a company to retain its customers and to make them loyal to the brand. To a large extent, the success of most businesses depends on their ability to create and maintain customer loyalty and satisfaction. The determinant of customers’ choice of a particular brand of product is a function of his perceived satisfaction of that brand over another. Customer satisfaction on the other hand is a judgment made by the customer. It is borne out of the comparison of pre-purchase expectations with post-purchase evaluation of the product. If the perceived performance of the brand purchased falls short of expectations, it leads to dissatisfaction. Satisfaction occurs when the perceived performance of the brand matches the expectations. If perceived performance exceeds expectations it results in delighting the customer.

The extent of dissatisfaction depends on the gap between expectations and performance. The larger the gap, the greater is the consumers’ dissatisfaction. Research has proven that customer dissatisfaction has a greater psychological impact and a greater longevity than satisfaction. This dissatisfaction may force the consumer to discontinue the use of the brand and when a similar need arises in the future, he may search for another suitable alternative.
Purchase decisions are not made in a vacuum. Consumers may not be consciously aware of it, yet every buying decision they make are influenced by something, whether they are external or internal. Discovering the answer requires an in-depth understanding of consumer behaviour. A company that is ignorant of consumer preferences cannot possibly fulfill its obligations in a meaningful and responsive manner. This makes it imperative for marketers to understand the factors that determine the customers’ choice of products. This is more important in toilet soap industry where consumers have abundant choice of brand to choose from and competition among companies also very high. In the urban area such as Enugu Metropolis, consumers are flooded with many brands and promotional strategies targeted at them. In this backdrop, this paper attempts to offer insight into the relationship of such factors as price, product features, promotion, place, income level, education, marital status, occupation, skin type have with consumers choice of toilet soap brands in Enugu metropolis.

Research Problem
Nigerians in general see cleanliness of one’s environment and person as of utmost importance and non-adherence to the basic rules of hygiene as causing illness, disease and body odour. These basic rules of hygiene includes regular cleaning of the surroundings, regular bathing at least once a day and regular washing of clothes when dirty. Toilet soap is but one of the products consumers buy in order to adhere to these basic rules of hygiene. However, due to various reasons, consumers seem quite particular about the brand of toilet soap used for different purposes.

Toilet soap manufacturers in Nigeria in trying to capture a reasonable share of the market, employ various marketing mix strategies such as attractive pricing, sales promotions, advertising, product formulations/reformulations and a host of others to attract and retain customers to their brands. Some serious questions readily come to mind at this juncture. How effective are the marketing mix factors employed by the firms in this toilet soap industry in determining the consumers' choice of toilet soap brands in Enugu metropolis? What actually are the real needs of consumers of toilet soap in Enugu metropolis? What are the factors that really determine the choice consumers make? What factors can manufacturers of these toilet soaps capitalize on to improve the market performance of their brands?. What are the factors responsible for the declining share of one brand at the expense of others? These are the pertinent questions which we shall provide answers to in this study.

Research Objectives
The objective of this study is to explore the determinants of consumers’ choice of toilet soap brands in Enugu metropolis. The specific objectives are:-

1. To determine whether price has any strong relationship with the toilet soap brand consumers choose. These will help manufacturers determine whether the buyers in this market are price-conscious and to know what pricing strategy to adopt for a brand
2. To determine whether consumer’s choice of toilet soap is dependent on the marketing promotion done by the firm in the industry. These will help key players in the industry to determine the weight of marketing promotion in influencing brand choice and which of the promotional tools to emphasize and budget for.
3. To determine whether consumers’ choice of toilet soap brands is dependent on brand features such as fragrance, size, colour, packaging, shape, lathering and moisturizing effects. These will help manufacturers to determine if such brand features are important in this market and which aspect to emphasis while packaging marketing communications, product modification, launches and re-launches.
4. To determine the influence of place of purchase on brand choice behaviour. This will help manufacturers to determine the appropriate place strategy to adopt in marketing of toilet soap.
5. To determine whether there is a significant relationship between consumer demography such as age, income, skin type, education, marital status, occupation and brand choice. This will help manufacturers to determine how to tailor the marketing mix in line with consumer profile.

6. To determine whether a significant relationship exist between consumer social factors and brand choice. This will help manufacturers determine the role social factors such as children, wife, husband and friends play in consumer brand choice behaviour and how to capitalize on any identified key decision makers in designing effective marketing strategies for toilet soap market.

**Hypotheses**

Null hypothesis 1: There is no significant relationship between price and brand choice

Null hypothesis 2: There is no significant relationship between marketing promotion and brand choice

Null hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between brand features and brand choice.

Null hypothesis 4: There is no significant relationship between place of purchase and brand choice

Null hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between demographic factors and brand choice

Null hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between consumer social factors and brand choice.

**Scope And Limitations Of The Study**

This study was restricted to end users of toilet soap who reside in Enugu metropolis and use toilet soap for bathing and household laundry purposes. Enugu is the capital city of Enugu State. The state, found in the Eastern part of Nigeria, was created in 1991 from the old Anambra State. The state lies approximately between longitude 7° 30E and latitude 6° 30 N. The principal cities in the State are Enugu, Agbani, Amechi, Akwu, Udi, Oji-River and Nsukka. The state shares borders with Abia State and Imo State to the South, Ebonyi State to the East, Benue State to the Northeast, Kogi State to the Northwest and Anambra State to the West. Enugu State had a population of 3,267,837 people as at the 2006 census and estimated at over 3.8 million in 2012. It is the home of Igbo of Southeastern Nigeria. Economically, the State is predominantly rural and agrarian, with a substantial proportion of its working population engaged in farming although about 18.8% and 12.9% are engaged in trading and services respectively.

Enugu metropolis were this study was conducted is made up of Enugu North Local Government Area, a total of 244,852 people; Enugu South Local Government Area a total of 198,723 people; and Enugu East Local Government Area with a population figure of 279,089 (en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Enugu state). Enugu metropolis with a total population of 722,664 is predominantly made up of traders and civil servants, only a small population of it is engaged in manufacturing activities. The major town in Enugu North L.G.A is Ogui Nike, those in Enugu South L.G.A. are Akwuke, Amaechi, Ugwuaji, Obeagu and Amechi Uwani and that of Enugu East L.G.A. are Nike- Uno, Mbulo-Njodo and Ugwuogo-Nike (www.igboguide.org).

More recently, the city’s population has also grown with the expansion of the city boundaries. Enugu metropolis is composed of people from virtually every region of the State. In case of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) such as toilet soap, the average consumption of an inhabitant of Enugu urban is believed to be significantly higher than that of the rest of the areas of Enugu State.

Variety of toilet soap brands can be identified in the Enugu market which consists of several multinational, national and local brands. For the purpose of this study, six popular toilet soap brands viz: Lux, Joy, Eva, Imperial Leather, Premier and Dolphin were used in the study. Medicated soap, liquid soap, baby soap and imported toilet soaps were excluded from the study. Also unbranded toilet soap made by cottage and unorganized sector were excluded from the study. The study has the following limitations;

As the study is conducted in only Enugu metropolis, the findings and suggestions of this empirical study may not be representative of the universe. Respondents may not have given their exact views or hidden some information deliberately. To make the study more robust, it would have been extended to other parts of Enugu State and covered all brands of indigenous toilet soap, imported toilet soap, medicated soap, baby soap but these were not done as a result of financial and time constraints.
Literature review

The toilet soap industry in Nigeria

As of the time of this survey, there are seven major firms in the toilet soap industry in Nigeria. The firms, the brands they produce and their retail prices as at the time of this study are listed in the table below.

### The Toilet Soap Firms And Brands Produced In Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Weight/ Sizes</th>
<th>Brand Names</th>
<th>Brand Variants</th>
<th>Retail Prices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unilever Nigeria Plc</td>
<td>75g 200g</td>
<td>Lux</td>
<td>White, beige, herbal</td>
<td>N60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PZ Cussons Nigeria Plc</td>
<td>70g 200g 70g</td>
<td>Premier Joy</td>
<td>Lemon, Rose, Milk, Aloe Vera, Cool Deo</td>
<td>N50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Givanas Industry Nigeria Ltd</td>
<td>60g 70g 75g</td>
<td>April Juliet</td>
<td>Protective care, Nourishing Care, Flower Nectar</td>
<td>N40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>European Soap and Detergents Ltd</td>
<td>65g 75g 150g 75g</td>
<td>Pure Dolphin</td>
<td>Lime Extract, Avocado Extract, Deo Fresh, Passion, Emotion, Active</td>
<td>N40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Godrej Nigeria Ltd</td>
<td>70g 200g</td>
<td>Tura supreme</td>
<td>Peach, Rose, White, Aloe Vera, Peach, Rose, White, Aloe Vera</td>
<td>N40 N100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evans Industry Ltd</td>
<td>150g</td>
<td>Eva</td>
<td>Herbal classic, Gold, Pearl, Forever, Ivory</td>
<td>N100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daraju Industry Ltd</td>
<td>75g</td>
<td>Fressia</td>
<td>Floral, 3in 1 skin glow, 3 in 1 Family Protection, Lemon Storm, French Lavender</td>
<td>N40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The seven firms above together supply over 90% of the branded toilet soap “produced” in Nigeria. The market for toilet soap in Nigeria is potentially large and grassroots use has increased gradually over the years for this product to be considered as an essential commodity along with products such as detergent, sugar, milk, rice, matches e.t.c during the Essential Community Era of the mid 70’s and early 80’s.

Unilever Nigeria Plc and PZ Cussons Nigeria Plc are two giants multinationals in the manufacturing industry that are synonymous with soap and detergent in Nigeria. They account for a huge size of the market for soaps and detergent and have continued to dominate the market positively over the years.

What these two giants are faced with also affect other toilet soap players which include Givanas Industry Nigeria Limited, makers of April, Juliet and Hala Beauty soap brands; European Soap and Detergents Limited, makers of Pure and Dolphin Beauty soap brands; Godrej Nigeria Limited, makers of Tura brand of toilet soap; Evans Industries Limited, makers of Fressia brand. Other giants in soap market in Nigeria which do not operate purely in toilet soap market are Orange Drugs Limited, makers of Delta Medicated and Antiseptic soaps, Devon Luxury and Delta family range; Reckitt and Benkisser produces Dettol brands, Benson Resources Nigeria Limited and Global soap and Detergent Industries Limited.

In spite of the fact that there are many brands of soap in the country, consumers have continued to look elsewhere. There is a particular brand of soap from United States made by Colgate-Palmolive which is in high demand because of its quality, variety and features. The soap is called Irish Spring offered in different varieties Viz Irish Spring Original, Irish Spring Sport, Irish Spring Icy Blast and Irish Spring Microclean. Colgate-Palmolive left Nigeria a long time ago as a result of the Nigerian Enterprises Promotion Decree. Another multinational company in Nigeria whose presence is highly felt in the soap market is Procter and Gamble the makers of Zest, Ivory, Lever and Camay soaps.

Although, toilet soap is in the list of import prohibition items, they still find their way into the Nigerian market. Some of them are Wrights Traditional Soap made in Turkey, Savon Olive from France, Clear N Smooth and Daggatt and Ramsdell oily Skin complexion soap made in USA and GIV produced by PT Wings Survya Indonesia.

**Attitudes and habits of Nigerian consumers towards the Use of toilet soap**

**Personal cleanliness:**

**Laundry Habit:** Nigerian Consumers mostly identify dirty clothes through their appearances and odour. Dirty clothes are also believed to cause body odour. They believe that Omo and other types of detergents are particularly powerful and fade cloth fast as a result, specific toilet soap types are used by Nigerians for washing specific cloth types. Brands such as Lux, Joy, Premier, Sunlight, Imperial Leather and other mild soaps are used to wash delicate important and special wears such as Silk, Lace, George, Ginea Brocade, Ankara/Abada. These brands are gentle to delicate materials and also leave nice perfumes on the cloth. Detergents are used to wash less important and less delicate wears such as bed sheets, curtains, farm clothes, casual wears, napkins, socks and white clothes.

**Bathing Habit:** Frequency of bathing of most consumers is twice a day (except for those who buy water). Reasons for bathing include: prevention of body odour, ensuring of sound sleep at nights, bathing for religions’ necessity by Moslems. When bathing, most consumers employ the aid of local or netted sponge or cloth (face towel). This method is seen to remove dirt better than ordinary application of soap. There are however, people especially males who do not use any aid except their soap. They see sponging as unnecessary and undesirable as it leaves rashes and scratches on their skin.

When bathing with soap or face towel, soap is usually rubbed on the sponge /cloth while those not using any aid just rub down with the soap. Strangely, a few people especially males apply toilet soap to their body after bathing in place of body creams for reasons of good odour, and leathering effects.

**Toilet Soap Use Habit**

Some individual are in the habit of using multiple-type of soap at the same time but for different purposes and parts of the body. A single individual may therefore use three types of soap for body, face (pimples) and hair (shampoo). Such individuals use toilet soaps such as Lux, Joy and Imperial Leather for the body while medicated soaps are used for the face. Medicated soaps are not used for hair washing especially by
women as they are believed to cause grey or brown hair. Mothers do not use medicated soap to bathe babies as they are believed to be too strong for baby’s skin. Most of them use toilet or baby soap for their babies. Sharing of toilet soap is very common among members of same family. One tablet is jointly used by all as this is believed to be more economical than each member using his/her own tablet.

Purchase Habit
People go for shopping with a particular brand of toilet soap in mind but will, however, take an alternative if usual brand is not available or too costly. At such times, they switch to the brand closest to their regular brands. Thus, availability and price are the major factors for consumer switching brands in this market.

The quantity of toilet soap purchased is a function of disposable income, thus consumers buy from one tablet to one carton. Frequency of purchase also depends on the volume of purchase at a time, economic status of the consumer, life style, promotion schemes and others. Consumers consider many factors in selecting a particular store to purchase toilet soap. These factors may include availability of a particular brand, availability of information, familiarity and knowledge about the store, proximity of the store, time pressure, store specific promotions, social status e.t.c. By choosing a particular store, consumers may get either utilitarian value (obtaining a required product with the least effort) or hedonistic value (the fun and pleasure associated with the buying process). In Enugu metropolis, open markets seem the most popular outlet. Others are kiosks, neighborhood stores, supermarkets and hawkers.

Consumer expectations from good quality toilet soap
Apart from its functional quality, consumers expect their ideal brand of toilet soap to produce good toning effect, resulting in soft, smooth, fresh and shiny skin (not bleaching). While some consumers prefer long-lasting pronounced scent, others prefer mild, non-pronounced, pleasant smell for their ideal soap. Good quality toilet soap is also expected to have an attractive colour and packaging. It should lather sufficiently well and last long. Lathering is seen as a very important attribute of ideal toilet soap. Infact consumers believe that the ability to lather easily and profusely is one of the endearing qualities of an ideal toilet soap.

Consumers expect reasonable size for an ideal quality soap. Sizes of toilet soap were seen as diminishing in recent times. Consumers prefer three pack sizes of any toilet soap viz: family, medium (regular) and small (travelling) sizes. Any brand found meeting fully with these expectations will certainly have mass appeal.

Prospects Of Toilet Soap Market In Nigeria
The list of import prohibited items in Nigeria released by Federal Government still includes the ban on importation of some of those items including toilet and laundry soap. This is a very good decision because apart from protecting local industries, the policy will also create opportunities for new investors into the country. This in turn will lead to generation of employment, reduction of pressure in demand for foreign exchange. This also will lead to enhancement of value of Naira and at the same time, these products can as well be exported for foreign exchange for the nation.

From studies carried out, Nigeria has the potential to produce high quality toilet soaps more than Malaysia, Singapore, and other Asian companies. Nigeria, as a country, can easily produce (using local raw materials and technology) quality toilet soaps that can gain international acceptance. This is what this country deserves at this point in time. With this policy in place and sincerity of purpose, the local industries will come up and more employment opportunities will be created, there will be an increase in the nation’s GDP, exportation to other African nations to earn foreign exchange and self sufficiency in food production.

It should be noted that the unemployment situation in the country, foreign debts, unfavourable balance of payments and other related economic problems will not be solved unless Nigeria looks inwards to establish more industries and develop technologically and also protects the existing local industries from the effect of imported products from abroad.

It is very painful when one takes a cursory look into the toilet soaps and creams in the market today, many brands of the toilet soaps in the market are still imported from Malaysia and Indonesia and some parts of
Europe and America. Nigeria can conveniently produce any type of toilet and laundry soaps required by Nigeria populace. The raw materials and Technology are readily available and experienced manpower too. Soap producing industries can be established on a cottage, small, medium or large scale, depending on the investor’s funds. The technology and art of making soap has been with us for a very long time. It is only the technology that has improved globally, which Nigeria investors can as well imbibe.

Soap production, either laundry or toilet of any type, can be carried out in any part of the country. One can conveniently set up a virile and dependable plant using locally manufactured machinery and equipment. The raw materials are locally abundant in the country. Prospective investors will be advised on the best-recommended producers of these machines within the country.

Soap has a wide range of uses. There is hardly any home or industry where soap is not used on daily basis. Also, Glycerin, a byproduct recovered during soap production, commands very high commercial value as it is very useful in cosmetics and pharmaceutical formulations and in laboratories as re-agents. The market for soap is wide. Its consumption for personal hygiene and general cleanliness per household is rising and need not be over emphasized.

Nigeria market is a very large one considering the population that grows every day. As at today, the population of Nigeria is estimated at over 160 million. With the increase in population, there is a widening demand-supply gap. As a result there becomes the need to establish more soap production plants in both rural and urban areas at the various levels of production to cater for the cleansing needs of various classes of consumers. Apart from the big Nigeria markets, one can utilize the opportunity of the high demand from the neighboring countries (whose indigenes travel several kilometers to Nigeria to purchase their daily essentials) to embark on export, once the quality is good and price competitive.

With the type of local raw materials available, Nigeria can provide high quality products that can be exported to developed parts of the world. The machines required to set up this plant are oil storage tanks and vessels, steam generators, filter press, soap reactors, recovery vessels, drying machines, cooling frames, plodder, cutting tables, stamper and wrapper etc. Plants of various sizes exist to produce 1500, 1600, 2200 metric tonnes of soap per annum. The capacity of production will depend wholly on availability of funds, market share and plant capacity chosen.

The essential raw materials for soap production are animal fats or vegetable oil, chemicals including fragrances, wrapping materials and cartons. These raw materials are 100 per cent locally available. The local availability of raw materials, among other things, will ensure continuous production and profitability. Modern soap production technology involves pre-treatment, saponification, graining and drying.

The minimum number of workers required to carry out the above production depends wholly on the capacity chosen and on whether the proposed investor is interested in producing bar or toilet soap or both.

For attractive products, the most important thing is the packaging system adopted. The packaging must be carefully done, make sure that it is equally attractive or more attractive than the imported products. The cost of setting the project will depend on the scale and type of machines to be used (whether imported or locally made machines). On average, using locally made machines the minimum cost of establishing a small scale plant is estimated at N8.5million. However it is advisable for professional consultants to carry out comprehensive feasibility studies for better decision on the proposed project. The return on investment is very encouraging. The payback period is also very short depending on the production and marketing strategies adopted (http://connectnigeria.com/articles/2010/07/26/how-to-invest-in-soap-making).

**Conceptual Framework**

To provide a broad theoretical framework for this study, comprehensive review of available materials related to the determinants of consumers’ choice of products was made. According to Kotler and Amstrong (1998), influencing factors for marketing behaviour of consumers are marketing mix factors and personal characteristics. Marketing mix is the term used to describe the combination of the basic controllable input
that constitutes the core of an organization’s internal marketing system. The input or element otherwise referred to as the four Ps of marketing are the product, its price, promotion and place. Most studies have shown that marketing mix factors have a relationship on the purchasing behaviour of consumer. The proper alignment of the marketing mix is essential in achieving the goal of consumer satisfaction. Gupta (1988) indicates that marketing mix have a strong relationship with consumer buying pattern, brand choice and incidences of purchase. The relationship of marketing mix with brand choice is, therefore, briefly analysed below.

**Product**
Product variable such as quality, quantity (size), style, features, variants, colour, brand name, packaging and customer services among others have relationship with the brand choice.

According to Peter and Olson (1990:334) these characteristics are evaluated by the consumer based on his/her own values, beliefs, past experiences.

Product planning enables a firm to be relevant and competitive in its chosen market. A firm that does not take product planning seriously may one day find that there is no longer any market for its goods and that its consumers have been taken away by other firms which are smarter and quicker in responding to the changing needs of the consumers.

**Price**
To the consumer, price is the value placed on what is exchanged. Something of value, usually money is exchanged for satisfaction or utility (Pride and Ferrel 1985:124, Olakunori, 2005:308, Boone and Kurtz, 2004: 376, Olakunori and Ejionueme, 1998:89). Buyers’ concern for and interest in price is related to their expectations about the satisfaction or utility associated with a product.

In other words, many consumers use price as an indication of the quality of the brand which is an important factor in purchasing decision (Nilson, 1998:88, Kotler and Amstrong 2004:118). Price relates directly to the generation of total sales and therefore should be handled carefully by marketers.

**Promotion**
Promotion has to do with the marketer’s means of communicating his product offerings and marketing programmes and activities to actual and potential customers.

Through marketing promotion, consumers are informed about the existence of a product and persuaded to buy. It is therefore a very potent means of educating consumers, creating a good image for a firm and its products and increasing the level of patronage.

The means or tools of marketing promotion are personal selling, sales promotion, advertising, public relations and publicity (Nebo; 2010:216, McCarthy and Pereault, 1984:198). Personal selling entails meeting consumers on personal basis and presenting a product to them with the intention of achieving immediate patronage.

The individuals who do this job are called salespersons. Sales promotion is concerned with offering short-term incentives to prospects in order to make them buy specific products. Examples of such incentives are free samples, bargain prices, free extra, merchandising support and contest. Advertising involves any form of non-personal presentation of a product by an identified sponsor. The message may be oral or visual. It is normally paid for by a sponsor. Advertising is non-personal in nature and therefore, it passes through a medium. The most popular medium for advertising in Nigeria are bill-boards, newspapers, journals, magazines, radio and television. Public relations is any form of deliberate planned effort by an organization to influence attitude and behaviour by making a positive impression on some specific groups or members of the community. The idea is that if an organization is able to create a good corporate image for itself, it would be able to positively influence the attitude of its public to buy its products.
Place

Product is not complete until the goods produced get to the consumers for whom they are meant. It is the responsibility of the producer to select and use the best means to get his products to consumers at the right time, place and condition demanded by them. This is very important because when manufacturers fail to make their products available at places needed then consumers are given the chance to try other available brands.

Place or distribution channel is the route or course taken in transferring the title to a product from the first owner to the last owner (Onyeke and Nebo; 2012:264; Zikmund and D’amico1989:290, Adirika et al, 1997:220, Peter and Donnelly, 1992:181, Ejonueme, 2011:61). Channel of distribution consist of the producer, consumer and any intermediary organizations that are aligned to provide a vehicle that makes the passage of title or possession of the products from the producer to the consumer possible.

Demographic Factors

These are individual or personal characteristics such as age, sex, race, income, family education, marital status, family life-cycle stage, and occupation. Demographic factors affect the extent to which a person uses products in a specific product category. Brand preferences, store choice and timing of purchases are also influenced by selected demographic factors. Since the demographic factors help to identify the target groups, the relationship between brand and the demographical factors can be analysed.

Education

Brand choices are influenced by consumers’ level of education. Highly educated, less educated and individuals with no formal education behave differently in their buying patterns. For instance, a well educated person may analyse the ingredients in particular toilet soap but less educated person may not, due to lack of knowledge.

Age

An individual’s purchase needs are definitely influenced by his age. Taste in food, clothes, furniture and cosmetics are often age related. An individual’s skin changes as he/she passes through one age group to the other; a fact which affect the type of soap bought and consumed.

Marital Status

Closely related to factors that influence the behaviour of buyers of different age brackets are those that are considered as having influence on the behaviour of buyers at different life cycle stages. Buying behaviour is influenced by the family life cycle which is a progression families pass through starting from the bachelor, honeymooners or newly-married, parenthood, post parenthood to dissolution. For instance, married people use family-sized soap while singles use small-sized soap. It is also very common for married people to share one tablet of soap at a time. A wife may also influence the brand of toilet soap the husband uses. Also children born in the family many have one form of influence or the other on the choice of toilet soap their mother uses.

Income Level

It is a common knowledge that the lower the level of one’s income, the less of one’s ability to purchase expensive items. We also know that the lower the price of a product the larger the quantity of it that an individual will be willing to purchase (Udeagha, 1995:68; McConell and Bruce 1999:198, and Onkvisit and Shaw, 1994:106). Income has a relationship with the purchases of toilet soap and therefore its influence should be verified.

Occupation

An individual’s occupation affects his buying decision. Marketers try to identify the occupational groups that have an above-average interest in their products and services. Occupation also has a relationship with the income level, attitude and life style of the consumer, a factor which affects buying patterns (Guiltninan and Joshep 1991:145). Premium, medium and economy segments are found in toilet soap market in response to consumer incomes and occupations.
Skin Type Factors

Since toilet soap is applied directly to the skin, brand selection may occur due to the nature of the skin. Some soap brands may be harmful to different skin types depending on the ingredients included in the soap. Therefore consumer may pay a special attention to the skin type, when the brand is purchased. Skin types can be categorized as oily, dry, mixed, normal and sensitive. In 1951, for example, Lever Brothers introduced Lux Beauty Soap for normal skin while in September 1992 it introduced Lux Beige for oily skin and Lux Cocoa Butter for dry skin needs.

Social Factors

The forces that other people exert on the consumer in the process of buying and consumption of goods and services are called social influences. Examples are family, reference group, social classes, culture and subculture. According to Stanton (1991:122), reference groups can influence the beliefs, attitudes and behaviour of a consumer in different circumstances. Consumers are more likely to be influenced by word-of-mouth information from friends than advertisements.

Family

Everyone of us is born into one family or the other and family ties influence our purchase decisions. Family roles as husband, wife, father, mother or children affect buying behaviour. To develop a marketing mix that precisely meets the needs of the target market, marketers need to know not only who does the actual buying but what other roles influence purchases. If for instance it is discovered that high proportion of women play dominant role in deciding which brand of toilet soap to buy, manufacturers should design a marketing mix in which much of the advertising is directed towards women. According to Engel and Black (1995), the family is generally a primary decision making unit with complex and varying pattern of roles and functions. The relationship of the family influence in brand choice selection needs to be investigated.

Reference Group

Reference groups are those an individual uses or refers to in determining his judgments, beliefs and behaviour. It could also be any person or group that serves as a point of comparison for an individual in the formation of either general or specific values, attitude and behaviour. Examples are friends and family. The opinions and preferences of friends are an important influence in determining the products or brands selected especially to a single person who live alone.

Methodology

The study was carried out in two phases. The first phase is exploratory in nature where a detailed secondary search from internet, related journals and books about toilet soap market in Nigeria was made. Its characteristics, major players in the market, various brands they produce, their pack sizes, variants and prices were explored. Secondary data was gathered to have an insight into the above. Second phase of the study is a descriptive research, where primary data were collected from consumers through a field survey. Observation as a research instrument was also used. Using Yamane’s (1964:280) formular, a sample of 400 was drawn from an estimated total population of 622,664 consumers in Enugu metropolis. The respondents who are using toilet soap where chosen randomly within the identified units as schools, offices, hospitals, markets, retail shops and homes in the three local government areas making up Enugu metropolis. It was ensured that the sample would cover adequately all the brands considered in the study.

Sampling method adopted were convenience, judgmental and quota sampling. Moreover, respondents were selected from different age groups, marital statuses, educational levels, occupation and income levels.

The presentation of data was done using the tabular form and percentages. The nature of the hypotheses formulated easily lends themselves to test with chi-square test of independence. The SPSS software was used to execute the analysis.

Data Presentation And Analysis

Data collected from consumer questionnaire are presented and analyzed below
Table I: Summary Of Respondents Brand Usage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Brand Name</th>
<th>Received</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JOY</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LUX</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PREMIER</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVA</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPERIAL LEATHER</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOLPHIN</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHERS</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that majority, 24%, of the respondents use Lux, followed by Joy, Eva, Premier, Imperial Leather and Dolphin brands.

Marketing Mix Factors And Brand Preference

Table II: Price And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Price Level</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial Leather</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>307</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

According to the above table, there is a statistical significant relationship between price factor and brand choice at the significant level of 0.001. Eighty-five (85%) of the respondents indicated that the price level is medium while 11% indicated that the price level is high. But 30% of the Lux consumers felt price level is high though Eva, Dolphin, Joy and Premier Consumers had never felt price level is high in the considered sample.

Table III: Place And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of Purchase</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial Leather</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Super Markets</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Market | (21.2%) | (21.4%) | (14.0%) | (18.5%) | (13.8%) | (16.1%) | (40.8%) | (20.8%)  
Kiosk | 11 (33.3%) | 17 (29.3%) | 12 (24.0%) | 19 (23.5%) | 12 (20.7%) | 9 (29.0%) | 6 (12.2%) | 86 (23.9%)  
Pharmacy | 6 (18.2%) | 6 (10.3%) | 7 (14.0%) | 15 (18.5%) | 14 (24.1%) | 7 (22.6%) | 7 (14.3%) | 62 (17.2%)  
Cosmetic Shops | 3 (9.1%) | 5 (8.6%) | 5 (10.0%) | 10 (12.3%) | 9 (15.5%) | 1 (3.2%) | 3 (6.1%) | 36 (10.0%)  
Others | 4 (12.1%) | 8 (13.8%) | 6 (12.0%) | 9 (11.1%) | 10 (17.2%) | 2 (6.5%) | 5 (10.2%) | 44 (12.2%)  
Total | 33 (100.0%) | 58 (100.0%) | 50 (100.0%) | 81 (100.0%) | 58 (100.0%) | 31 (100.0%) | 49 (100.0%) | 360 (100.0%)  

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the place factor and the brand choice. Around 23.9% of the respondents do their purchases from the kiosks while 20.8% do purchasing from open markets.

Table IV: Marketing Promotion And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion Activity</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TV Advertisement</td>
<td>2 (6.1%)</td>
<td>9 (15.5%)</td>
<td>13 (26.0%)</td>
<td>13 (16.0%)</td>
<td>5 (8.6%)</td>
<td>6 (19.45)</td>
<td>8 (16.3%)</td>
<td>56 (15.6%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio Advertisement</td>
<td>7 (21.2%)</td>
<td>10 (22.4%)</td>
<td>7 (14.0%)</td>
<td>15 (18.5%)</td>
<td>7 (12.1%)</td>
<td>5 (16.1%)</td>
<td>20 (40.8%)</td>
<td>74 (20.6%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POP</td>
<td>7 (21.2%)</td>
<td>10 (17.2%)</td>
<td>9 (18.0%)</td>
<td>13 (16.0%)</td>
<td>5 (8.6%)</td>
<td>6 (16.1%)</td>
<td>5 (12.2%)</td>
<td>55 (15.3%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hoardings</td>
<td>3 (9.1%)</td>
<td>5 (8.6%)</td>
<td>6 (12.0%)</td>
<td>14 (17.3%)</td>
<td>13 (22.4%)</td>
<td>7 (22.6%)</td>
<td>7 (14.3%)</td>
<td>55 (15.3%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspaper/Magazines</td>
<td>3 (9.1%)</td>
<td>5 (8.6%)</td>
<td>10 (10.0%)</td>
<td>12 (12.3%)</td>
<td>9 (15.5%)</td>
<td>1 (3.2%)</td>
<td>3 (6.1%)</td>
<td>36 (10.0%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discounts</td>
<td>4 (12.1%)</td>
<td>7 (12.1%)</td>
<td>6 (12.0%)</td>
<td>9 (11.1%)</td>
<td>10 (17.2%)</td>
<td>2 (6.5%)</td>
<td>5 (10.2%)</td>
<td>43 (11.9%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free Banded Issues</td>
<td>4 (12.1%)</td>
<td>5 (8.6%)</td>
<td>1 (2.0%)</td>
<td>4 (4.9%)</td>
<td>3 (5.2%)</td>
<td>3 (9.7%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>20 (5.6%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3 (9.1%)</td>
<td>4 (6.9%)</td>
<td>3 (6.0%)</td>
<td>3 (3.7%)</td>
<td>6 (10.3%)</td>
<td>2 (6.5%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>21 (5.8%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33 (100.0%)</td>
<td>58 (100.0%)</td>
<td>50 (100.0%)</td>
<td>81 (100.0%)</td>
<td>58 (100.0%)</td>
<td>31 (100.0%)</td>
<td>49 (100.0%)</td>
<td>360 (100.0%)</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the promotion factor and the brand choice. Most influenced promotional activity is radio advertisements and which was approved by 20.6% of the respondents followed by TV advertisements with 15.6% response. Point of Purchase (POP) materials accounted for 15.3% while discounts accounted for 11.9% of the most influenced factor for purchasing when the promotional activities are considered.
Table V: Product And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product Characteristics</th>
<th>Eva Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Imperial Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Dolphin Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Lux Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Joy Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Premier Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Others Freq. (%)</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractive Packaging</td>
<td>5 (8.5%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (7.7%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>9 (2.5%)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shape of the Tablet</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (7.7%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (1.1%)</td>
<td>66 (18.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragrance/Odor</td>
<td>22 (37.3%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (18.2%)</td>
<td>18 (20.0%)</td>
<td>9 (21.4%)</td>
<td>13 (25.0%)</td>
<td>66 (18.3%)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size/weight</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (18.2%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (1.1%)</td>
<td>36 (10.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ingredients</td>
<td>5 (8.5%)</td>
<td>4 (16.0%)</td>
<td>9 (10.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>5 (9.6%)</td>
<td>36 (10.0%)</td>
<td>34 (9.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moisturizing effect</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>9 (36.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>16 (38.1%)</td>
<td>9 (17.3%)</td>
<td>34 (9.4%)</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lathering/Foaming</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (7.7%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (1.1%)</td>
<td>13 (3.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Softness</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (16.0%)</td>
<td>18 (20.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (9.5%)</td>
<td>17 (32.7%)</td>
<td>53 (14.7%)</td>
<td>14.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refreshment</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (7.7%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (1.1%)</td>
<td>13 (3.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dirt removal</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>5 (5.6%)</td>
<td>4 (7.7%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (1.1%)</td>
<td>13 (3.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Removal of dandruff</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (16.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (1.1%)</td>
<td>13 (3.6%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skin protection</td>
<td>22 (37.3%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>40 (44.4%)</td>
<td>22 (42.3%)</td>
<td>13 (31.0%)</td>
<td>9 (50.0%)</td>
<td>106 (29.4%)</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germ protection</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (16.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>14 (26.9%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>18 (5.0%)</td>
<td>360 (100.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59 (100.0%)</td>
<td>25 (100.0%)</td>
<td>22 (100.0%)</td>
<td>52 (100.0%)</td>
<td>42 (100.0%)</td>
<td>52 (100.0%)</td>
<td>360 (100.0%)</td>
<td>152</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The table above shows that there is a statistical significant relationship between product factor and brand choice at the significant level of 0.001. Around 29% of the respondents’ major objective was to protect the skin when a brand is selected for use and while 18% look for the fragrance as the first choice. Around 15% of the respondents expect the softness provided by the product as the prime characteristic when a brand is selected.
### Demographic Factors And Brand Choice

#### Table VI: Age And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eva</td>
<td>Imperial</td>
<td>Dolphin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-24 Years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3.0%)</td>
<td>(6.9%)</td>
<td>(10.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-35 Years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(27.3%)</td>
<td>(20.7%)</td>
<td>(14.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-44 Years</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(60.6%)</td>
<td>(48.3%)</td>
<td>(48.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-65 Years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(9.1%)</td>
<td>(24.1%)</td>
<td>(28.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The table above shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the age factor and the brand choice.

#### Table VII: Monthly Income And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly Income</th>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eva</td>
<td>Imperial</td>
<td>Dolphin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below N20,000</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(31.6%)</td>
<td>(84.6%)</td>
<td>(38.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N20,000- N39,999</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(31.6%)</td>
<td>(15.4%)</td>
<td>(19.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N40,000- N59,999</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(29.8%)</td>
<td>(.0%)</td>
<td>(23.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N60,000 &amp; Above</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(7.0%)</td>
<td>(.0%)</td>
<td>(19.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the age factor and the brand choice.

#### Table VIII: Education And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Brands</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Eva</td>
<td>Imperial</td>
<td>Dolphin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary Sch. Or Below</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8.8%)</td>
<td>(51.9%)</td>
<td>(.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Sch.</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(68.4%)</td>
<td>(33.3%)</td>
<td>(37.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Institution</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(22.8%)</td>
<td>(14.8%)</td>
<td>(62.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
<td>(100.0%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is statistical significant relationship between the monthly income level factor and the brand choice at the significant level of 0.001.
The above table shows that there is a statistical significant relationship between education factor and brand choice at the significant level of 0.001

**Table IX: Marital Status And Brand Choice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>8 (24.2%)</td>
<td>15 (25.4%)</td>
<td>20 (39.2%)</td>
<td>28 (34.1%)</td>
<td>19 (32.2%)</td>
<td>14 (45.2%)</td>
<td>16 (32.0%)</td>
<td>120 (32.9%)</td>
<td>0.265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>10 (30.3%)</td>
<td>18 (30.5%)</td>
<td>12 (23.5%)</td>
<td>25 (30.5%)</td>
<td>17 (28.8%)</td>
<td>16 (19.4%)</td>
<td>23 (46.0%)</td>
<td>111 (30.4%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>15 (45.5%)</td>
<td>26 (44.1%)</td>
<td>19 (37.3%)</td>
<td>29 (35.4%)</td>
<td>23 (39.0%)</td>
<td>11 (22.0%)</td>
<td>11 (36.8%)</td>
<td>134 (36.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>33 (100.0%)</td>
<td>59 (100.0%)</td>
<td>51 (100.0%)</td>
<td>82 (100.0%)</td>
<td>59 (100.0%)</td>
<td>31 (100.0%)</td>
<td>50 (100.0%)</td>
<td>360 (100.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the marital status factor and the brand choice.

**Table X: Occupation And Brand Choice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Frequency</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>13 (23.6%)</td>
<td>13 (50.0%)</td>
<td>18 (81.8%)</td>
<td>31 (34.8%)</td>
<td>36 (57.1%)</td>
<td>18 (40.9%)</td>
<td>44 (72.1%)</td>
<td>173 (48.1%)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>13 (23.6%)</td>
<td>4 (50.0%)</td>
<td>4 (18.2%)</td>
<td>40 (44.9%)</td>
<td>9 (14.3%)</td>
<td>22 (50.0%)</td>
<td>13 (21.3%)</td>
<td>101 (28.1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>18 (20.2%)</td>
<td>5 (7.9%)</td>
<td>5 (9.1%)</td>
<td>4 (6.6%)</td>
<td>36 (10.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>29 (52.7%)</td>
<td>0 (30.8%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>13 (20.6%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>50 (13.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>55 (100.0%)</td>
<td>26 (100.0%)</td>
<td>22 (100.0%)</td>
<td>89 (100.0%)</td>
<td>63 (100.0%)</td>
<td>44 (100.0%)</td>
<td>61 (100.0%)</td>
<td>360 (100.0%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is a statistical significant relationship between occupation factor and brand choice at the significant level of 0.001

**OTHER FACTORS AND BRAND CHOICE**

**Table XI: Skin Type And Brand Choice**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skin Type</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Freq.</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oily skin</td>
<td>7 (11.7%)</td>
<td>8 (32.0%)</td>
<td>9 (40.9%)</td>
<td>18 (20.9%)</td>
<td>9 (14.8%)</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
<td>9 (14.3%)</td>
<td>64 (17.8%)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry skin</td>
<td>13 (21.7%)</td>
<td>8 (32.0%)</td>
<td>4 (18.2%)</td>
<td>4 (4.7%)</td>
<td>13 (21.3%)</td>
<td>9 (20.9%)</td>
<td>13 (20.6%)</td>
<td>64 (17.8%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed Skin</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>0 (.0%)</td>
<td>4 (4.7%)</td>
<td>4 (6.6%)</td>
<td>4 (9.3%)</td>
<td>13 (20.6%)</td>
<td>25 (6.9%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above table shows that there is statistical significant relationship between the skin type factor and the brand choice at the significant level of 0.001

Table XII: Social Factors And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influencing Group</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Freq.</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>59 (16.4%)</td>
<td>0.204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yourself</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales Person</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>46</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the social factors and the brand choice. Around 23% of the respondents selected the brand without any influence while 19% selected the brand based on the suggestions made by their friends

Table XII: Substitute Products And Brand Choice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substitute Product Shift</th>
<th>Eva</th>
<th>Imperial</th>
<th>Dolphin</th>
<th>Lux</th>
<th>Joy</th>
<th>Premier</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total Freq.</th>
<th>Sig. (Chi-Square)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>143 (39.7%)</td>
<td>0.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>217 (60.3%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>360</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that there is no statistical significant relationship between the substitute products and the brand choice. Around 25% of the respondents were using a particular soap brand and had totally given up that brand and shifted to substitute products, But it does not mean they do not use toilet soap.
instead they have shifted to another toilet soap brand while using a substitute product. But 12% of the respondents who had been using Lux had shifted to a substitute product.

**Cross Analysis Of Demographic Factors And Brand Choice**

**Table XIII: Determinants Of Consumer Choice Of Toilet Soap By Age Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Suitability</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16-24</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-44</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-65</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that around 60% of the consumers who is belonging to the age group 36-44 were looking at the suitability to the skin as their first choice while 51% of the 25-35 & 40% of the 45-65 age groups also look at the same characteristic in the brand. But 53% of the respondents belonging to the age group 16-24 search the product characteristics as the first choice.

**Table XIV: Determinants Of Consumer Choice Of Toilet Soap By Income Class of Respondent**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Income category</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
<th>Group influence</th>
<th>Suitability To skin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below N20,000</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N20,000-N39,999</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N40,000-N59,999</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N60,000 &amp; below</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that for the income levels N20,000 – N39,999 and N 60,000 and above categories first choice was suitability to the skin type with 61% and 50% respectively while 50% of the respondents who were getting less than N 20,000 income per month looked at the product characteristics as the first choice when a brand is selected.

**Table XVI: Determinants Of Consumer Choice By Educational Level of Respondent**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Level</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
<th>Group Influence</th>
<th>Suitability to skin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary Sch. and Below</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Sch.</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary Institution</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

While 74% of those who attained Primary school education or below and 40% of those who attained Secondary school education were more concern about the suitability to the skin factor, 53% of the
respondents who attained tertiary education were looking at the product characteristics as the first choice when selecting a brand.

Table XVII: Determinants Of Consumer Choice By Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
<th>Group Influence</th>
<th>Suitability to skin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>48%</strong></td>
<td><strong>11%</strong></td>
<td><strong>95%</strong></td>
<td><strong>0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>0%</strong></td>
<td><strong>360</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that around 48% of the single respondents and 44% of the married respondents were first looking at whether the brand is suitable to the skin type.

Table XVII: Determinants Of Consumer Choice By Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Product</th>
<th>Price</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>Promotion</th>
<th>Group Influence</th>
<th>Suitability to skin</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that around 46% and 57% of the private and public sector employees were more concerned about the suitability to the skin factor respectively, while 50% of students and 50% of the other category of employees’ major preference was the product characteristics when selecting a brand.

Discussion And Conclusion

Marketing Mix Factors

There was a statistical significant relationship between price and product factors with the brand choice at 0.05 significant level. 85% of the respondents felt price level was medium while 11% felt price was high. About 30% of Lux users felt the price was high. Moreover Eva, Dolphin, Joy and Premier users had never felt that the brands were at a high end since none of the respondents indicated that the price level was high for the above four brands. The above result means that consumers perceive the price of most brands in the market as normal. Customer perceived prices tend to cluster around the medium level. In terms of product variable, the majority, about 29%, of the respondents search for the skin protection quality of the brand, 18% search for brand’s fragrance, 15% looks for brand that softens the skin, 10% were conscious of the brand’s ingredients and 9% looks for the moisturizing effect of the brand in the choice they make. The above details indicate that the consumers are more conscious of price and product characteristics especially skin protection and fragrance qualities.

Based on the above findings, it is recommended that manufacturers should improve on the skin protection and fragrance attribute of the product in order to attract more market share to their brands. The current prices should also be maintained since consumers do not complain about them.

There was no statistical significant relationship between promotion and place factors with the brand choice at 0.05 significant levels. Majority of the respondents, about 21% was influenced by radio advertisement in their purchases followed by 16% who were influenced by TV advertisement, 15% by point-of-purchase (POP) materials and 10% by price discounts on the brand. Majority of the respondents about 24%,
purchased their choice brands from Kiosks, followed by 21% who bought theirs from open markets and 17% from pharmacy shops.

Based on the above analysis, it is recommended that manufacturers use Radio and TV advertisements from time to time to remind buyers of the existence of their brands. Price discounts should also be used from time to time to induce purchases although money, time and marketing efforts spent on these should not be as strong as those of product and price attributes found to have positive significant relationship with the brand choice.

**Demographic Factors**

There was a statistical significant relationship between education, income, occupation and skin type with the brand choice at 0.05 significant level. This indicates that the brand preference varies with the education qualifications, income level, occupation and skin type. Based on this it is recommended that manufacturers direct marketing efforts to consumers at different occupation, income levels, education levels and skin types.

There was no statistical significant relationship between age and marital status with the brand preference at 0.05 significant level. This implies that the age and marital status does not significantly influence the purchasing decision of a toilet soap brand. We recommend that marketers should pay less attention to brand segmentation using age and marital status as criteria.

**Other Factors**

There was no statistical significant relationship between the consumer social factor and substitute product factor with the brand choice at 0.05 significant levels. Majority of respondents (23%) selects the brand by themselves while substantial number of respondents (19%) was influenced by their friends in the choice they make. We therefore recommend that consumer friends such as school mates, age grades, peer groups, celebrities can be used in advertising models to influence brand choice.

**Cross Analysis Of The Demographic Factors**

The majority of respondents belonging to 25 to 65 age group were more concerned about the brand’s suitability to their skin in the choice of brands while respondent belonging to 16 to 24 age group were concerned about brand characteristics such as fragrance, packaging, colour, size etc. Hence brand extensions can be recommended to cater for the prime requirements of different age groups by positioning the brand variants to suit the needs of the age groups.

Majority of the respondents on a monthly income between N20,000 to N39,999 and above N60,000 were more focused on whether the brand is suitability to the skin while those getting 20,000 and below were more focused on the product characteristics such as fragrance, size, colour, shape, ingredients, moisturizing and lathering effects of the brand. We therefore recommend that different brand and advertising formulations be packaged to address the needs of different income groups.

Respondents who has attained secondary school education or below were concerned about the suitability to the skin factor while majority of those who has attained tertiary education were looking at the product characteristics in their choice of brands. Hence new variants can be introduced to cater for the different needs of the consumers having different education backgrounds.

Most respondents, married or single, were more concerned about the brand suitability to their skin in the choice of brands.

Hence marketing campaigns should not highlight thoroughly the marital status of the consumer, since it does not add any significant benefit to the brand. Majority of private and public sector employees’ were mostly influence by the brand’s suitability to the skin in the choice of their brand while the majority students and other category of employees were dominated by the product characteristics such as the fragrance, colour, packaging, size etc.
References


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www.igboguide.com