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Marketing Strategy and Performance: Evidence from Nigerian Export Companies

BY

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Abstract

In a developing country like Nigeria, earning from export especially non-oil export is an important element of the country's Gross National Product (GNP). Globalization of trade has also led a number of companies to search for markets beyond the domestic markets. This study aims at explaining the effects of firms' strategic factors on export performance of Nigerian companies. The key strategic factors on export and its marketing plan will cover all aspects of the product, promotion, pricing and distribution. The challenge of the strategies to be used is whether it should be standardized or adapted to the conditions of the foreign market. The effects of these strategies show that the firms' product adaptation, promotion adaptation and the firm marketing position affect the firm's export performance.

Key word: Marketing strategies, Export performance, and Standardization adaptation.

Introduction

Export market has its own potentials and presents firms with opportunities. Recent World Bank report argues that greater export orientation of manufacturing industries should be promoted as an important element of the growth strategy for Sub-Sahara Africa (World Bank, 2000). This argument is based on the idea that exporting leads to productivity gains. Recently attempts had been made to test the productivity gains from export. The gain could be attributed to economies of scale and production scale larger than the small domestic markets. Despite the potential contributions of a higher export level, many firms appear not to fully maximizing their potential gains from international trade (Sousa, 2004). The relationship between marketing strategy and performance has been well documented in marketing literature, especially within the domestic marketing context (Schoeffler, 1977). Empirical evidence of the relationship between marketing strategy and performance in export marketing is fragmented because of conceptual and methodological problems associated with these studies (Aaby and Slater, 1989; Madson, 1987).

Recent charges in international markets like globalization and competition had presented new opportunities for domestic firms to operate in foreign markets. As such it is important to investigate whether the marketing strategies – performance relationship can be verified within the export market context; the extent to which export performance is influenced by marketing strategies implemented and what factors influence the export market activities (Cavusgil and Zon, 1994).

Empirical investigation and interest in export marketing are low, much of empirical research deal with entire industry rather than individual firms and in most cases, the export market is ignored, where the studies deal with export market the role of strategy including product and market selection as export performance determinants are not rarely covered (Sousa 2004)

The purpose of this includes:

1. To investigate the empirical link between marketing strategy and performance in the context of export market.

2. To identify variable affecting the export marketing strategy – performance, and

3. To investigate the potential determinants of export performance.

Conceptual Framework

A number of research works had been undertaken to investigate measures of export performance (Madsen 1987; Aaby and Slater 1989; Zon and Stan 1998; Sousa 2004). Despite relative large number of research works on measurement of export performance, there is no generally acceptable measurement (Madsen 1987; Aaby and Slater 1989). This is partly because previous studies suffered from serious conceptual, methodological and practical limitations (Sousa 2004). According to Sousa (2004) these numerous performance measures are classified into two: objective (economic) and subjective (non-economic) measures. The objective measures include export intensity (White, Griffith and Ryans 1998); export sales volume and export market share (Thirkell and Dau 1998); export profitability (Styles and Ambler 2000). While the subjective measures include overall export performance (Thirkell and Dan 1998); contribution of exporting to growth; customer satisfaction and meeting expectations (Sousa 2004)

The previous review of literature done by Sousa (2004); Zon and Stan (1998) and Aaby and Slater (1989) revealed that the use of subjective measures was more common than the objective measures. Of the objective measures the most widely use is the export intensity (export-to-total sales ratio) (Chetty and Hamilton 1992). This has been criticized as not covering the actual performance of the firm (Sousa 2004).Other objective measures such as export sales growth may overstate performance as a result of prce escalation and market growth (Kirpalani and Balcome 1987).

Woodcock, Beamish and Makiro (1994) justified the use of subjective measures in situations where managers may be unwilling or unable to supply objective financial data or because of the difficulty in reconciling cross-national or cross industrial differences in accounting practices. Such measures as export profitability, managers' degree of satisfaction with overall export performance compare to competitors and strategic export performance are believed to provide general perception of export performance not only because they translate the perceived degree of economic success but also include managers' opinions of strategic elements of success (Solberg 2002; Sousa 2002).

Export Performance Determinants

A search through literature shows that export performance determinants suffered the same fate as performance measures. This is because there are several factors that were identified and investigated in literature as determinants (Dominques and Sequeira 1993; Lages 2000). A number of empirical studies had shown the degree of marketing programme adaptation to be influenced by internal and external factors. The internal factors affecting the degree of marketing programme include the firm characteristic and competence (Zon and Stan 1998); managerial characteristics (De Luz 1993); product characteristics (Lages 2000). The external factors influencing product adaptation depend on the industry; foreign market characteristics; and domestic market characteristics (Lages 2000; Zon and Stan 1998).

Findings of several studies showed a positive relationship between firm size and export performance (Christensen, da Rocha and Gertner 1987). There is a strong relationship between size and export volume and the export marketing attitude (Kaynak and Kuan 1993). Other variables such as age of the firm and experience; overall satisfaction with experience and technological strength were all positively related to export performance (Aaby and Slater 1989; Kaynak and Kuan 1993).

The influence of marketing strategy on export performance has being the focus of a number of studies (Zon and Stan 1998). In this study our focus is on marketing adaptation and standardization. Marketing adaptation involves manipulation of marketing mix components (product, promotion, price and distribution) (Omer 1986).

Product adaptation has been extensively investigated (Rosenbloom, Larsen and Mehta 1997). It has been established that there was a relationship between product adaptations and export performance (Christensen, da Rocha and Gertner 1987). In their study, however, Cavusgil and Zou (1994) argued that export performance was influenced by the degree of product adaptation. Several other studies suggested modifications of product line in export market to achieve higher profit level 9koh 19910. Other variables covered in previous studies on product adaptation include product quality, service , policy brand name, packaging, styling, appael warranty, colour and design (Lages 2000; Sholam 1996; Donthu and kim 19930. As far as can be determined no study on the impact marketing strategy on export performance has been conducted in Nigeria. Therefore it is the intention of this present study to verify the impact of marketing strategy of export performance in Nigeria.

A number of studies had attempted to identify key factors that contributed to successful export marketing. These factors include: management attitude, competitors' factors, and the peculiarity of the industry, product features and export market (Cadogani, Diamantopoulous and Siguaw, 2002; Christensen, da Rocha, and Certner 1987; Aaby and Slater, 1989). Specifically, Aaby and Slater (1989) found out that export performance was influenced by a firm's business strategy, Cavusgil (1983) indicated that basic company offering; contractual link with foreign distributors or agents and export promotion and pricing were the major marketing decisions factors affecting successful export marketing.

A number of factors affected the results of these precious studies to link export marketing strategy with performance (Cavusgil and Zon, 1994). Firstly, is the nature of analysis. Most previous research used overall export level performance as the basis of analysis. The theoretical framework for this type of analysis is the theory of internalization (Beckley and Casson, 1985; Sousa, 2004), which requires firms to internalize the firm's specific advantages for maximum benefits. Firm-level investigation has a number of limitations for example; there exists considerable variations in export marketing strategy and performance even across various product-market export venture of the same company. Adoption of same marketing strategy will not lead to the same results in all export market ventures (Douglas and Craig, 1989). It is therefore suggested, that individual product-market export venture should be used as unit of analysis (Cavusgil and Zon, 1994).

Secondly, strategic considerations in exporting were ignored in previous studies. According to Cavusgil and Zon (1994) exporting was viewed as a means of realizing the economic goals of the firm. Various variables were used to measure export performance including sales or profit without relating to a firm's strategic and competitive

goals. Furthermore, export performance has been directly linked to the firm, product, industry and export market factors. (Cooper and Kleinschmidt 1985). However, the central role of proactive marketing strategy in determining export performance has not been **emphasized (Aaby and Slater, 1989). The need for consideration of strategies in marketing theory has been emphasized in literature (Day and Wensley 1983; Lambkin and Day 1989 and Sholiam, Evangelista and Albaum 2002). Therefore, exporting should be viewed as a firm's strategy responses to internal and external forces and export marketing (Cavusgil and Zon 1994).**

Thirdly, the research approach of previous studies was not only simplistic but export marketing strategy and performance were conceptualized and operationalized in various ways (Madsen 1987; Aaby and Slater 1989; Cavusgil and Zon 1994). These had led to confusing and contradictory results. These conflicting results had hindered practice as well as theoretical development in export marketing.

Strategic export marketing and performance can be situated within the framework of strategic marketing. The practical theoretical reference here is the strategic - environment coalignment (Porter 1980; Ngansathil 2001). This theoretical perspective indicated the 'fit' between strategy and its content (Cavusgil and Zon 1994) – including the external environment, and/or organizational characteristics (Gupta and Govindarajan 1984), which had significant positive implications on firm performance. This principle can be traced to the structure – conduct – performance framework of industrial organization (Schever and Ross 1990) whose foundation was that:

1. Organizations rely on their environment for resources, and

2. Organizational strategies are used to manage their dependency.

Our conceptual framework of export strategy-performance based on the aforementioned co-alignment principle is indicated in figure 1.

Figure 1: A Conceptual Framework of Export Marketing Strategy–Performance
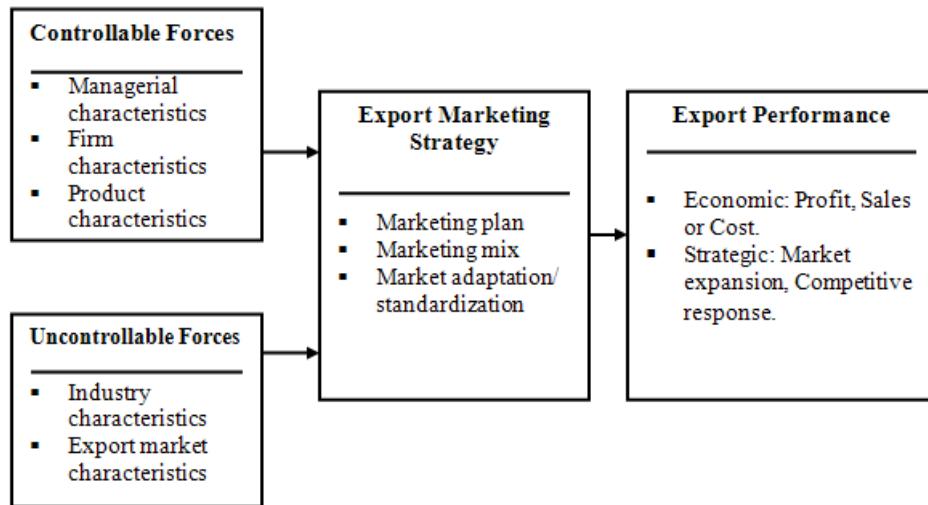
Our framework is based on the interrelatedness and interactiveness of the export marketing strategies with both internal and external forces. The degree of impact of export marketing strategy will be reflected in the export performance achieved.

The controllable forces include managerial characteristics, firm characteristics and product characteristics. The managerial expectation of the impact of the application of marketing strategy on sales and firms strengths and weaknesses influence the choice of marketing strategy and ability to choose and execute specific marketing strategy (Porter, 1980). In export marketing the firm's main skills and assets include the size advantage (Ibeh, 2004). International experience (Douglas and Craig, 1989), the extent of international business involvement, and resources available for export development (Terpstra, 1987). These assets and skills can also be derived from the nature of the firm's market technological orientation and resources (Cavusgil and Nevin, 1981). These advantages influence the firm in considering export marketing as a possible strategy.

The uncontrollable variable in the framework include the industry and export market characteristics previous researches had identified level of competition, type of industry the firm is in, the country's economic and political environment and the country of origin of the buyer as external variables affecting export (Tookey 1964 and Kazem, 2005). Industry structure has been considered an important factor in firm's strategy in domestic market context (Porter, 1980). However, in export marketing the relationship between industry structure and marketing strategy must incorporate the significant variables in the market systems, government intervention and the presence of foreign competitors across markets.

Prevailing conditions in foreign market present opportunities and pose threats for exporters. Strategy should match the exporter's strength with market opportunities, neutralize weakness and overcome threats (Aaker, 1988, Cavusgil and Zon, 1994). The prevailing conditions and characteristics of the export market can affect

choice of marketing strategy including potential demand, cultural similarities, brand and product familiarity and similarity of legal systems (Cavusgil and Zon, 1994; Cooper and Kleinschmidt, 1985).

A firm can respond to the interplay of internal and external forces in a number of ways to achieve its set objectives. The firm response (strategy) can be inform of marketing plan that will cover all aspects of the product, promotion, pricing and distribution. In export market, the challenge of the strategies to be used is whether it should be standardized or adapted to the conditions of the foreign market (Douglas and Craig, 1989). The extent of the combination of both standardization and adaptability depends on the nature of the product, the characteristics of the industry, peculiar features of the market and organization as well as the environmental characteristics (Cavusgil, Zon and Naidu, 1993; Jain, 1989). As such the evaluation of the marketing strategy is done on standardization and adaptation continuum.

The export performance component of the model involves the extent to which a firm's objectives, both economic and strategic, with respect to exporting a product into a foreign market, are achieved through planning and execution of export marketing strategy. The export market objectives can be economic (profit, sales or cost) and/or strategic (market expansion, competitive response, gaining a foothold in foreign market or increasing the awareness of the product) (Cavusgil and Zon, 1994).

There is no generally acceptable measurement of export performance in literature (Cooper and Klenischmidt 1985; Medsen 1989; Bilkey 1982; Cavusgil 1984 and Diamontopoulous and Inglis 1988).

Methods

This research was based on survey method with the use of questionnaires. The basis of drawing the instrument was based on the results of previous studies on exporting and standardization. Specifically structured instrument was used to capture the various variables investigated. The instrument was designed to capture two aspects of export venture performance:

1. the extent to which the strategic goals of the export venture management were achieved.

the average annual growth rate of export sales over three years of the venture and the management's perceived success of the venture.

Our sample was drawn from the official list of performing exporters released by the Nigerian Exporters Promotion Council (NEPC). The list was arranged in alphabetical order. The list is compared with another list compiled and released by the Central bank of Nigeria (CBN) of the leading 100 exporters in terms of the total monetary value of export. NEPC is a statutory government agency responsible for promoting export; CBN is expected to have records of all exports. The NEPC list consists of 311 exporters; of these 189 firms i.e. 61% are located in Lagos, Nigeria commercial centre and its environs. For convenience sake, those sampled are located in

Lagos. In all 50 exporting firms in Lagos were randomly selected for this study. Questionnaires were administered to officers in charge of export. 41 copies of the questionnaires were retrieved and used for this study. This shows a response rate of 82%.

The instrument used for this study was adopted from the previous study of Cavusgil and Zon (1994). The instrument was further validated for currency as it was reviewed by two senior academics who are experts in international marketing.

Table I : Correlations of Product Adaption with Other Variable

		1 Product Adaptation of Export Performance	2 Promotion Adaptation of Export Performance	3 Price Competitiveness Increases Export Commitment	4 Export Performance Enhances by Price Performance
Product adaptation of Correlation export performance 1	Pearson Sig. (1-tailed) N	1 41	.625** .000 41	.075 .324 40	-.074 .323 41
Promotion adaptation Correlation of export performance 2	Pearson Sig. (1-tailed) N	.625** .000 41	1 41	.269* .046 40	.206 .099 41
Price competitiveness Correlation increase export commitment 3	Pearson Sig. (1-tailed) N	.075 .324 40	.269* .046 40	1 40	.506** .000 40
Export performance	Pearson	-.074	.206	.506**	1

Correlation		.323	.099	.000	
enhances by price	Sig. (1-tailed)	41	41	40	41
performance	N				
4					

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Research Hypotheses

Management capability to implement strategies is a major determinant of the performance of an export ventures (Aaby and Slater 1989; Cooper and Kleinschmidt 1985). These strategies are means by which organizations achieve organizational goals. The help us understand these strategies and their effects on the export performance of participating firms, the following hypotheses are tested.

H_1 :   Export performance in an export organization is enhanced by:

         (a). the degree of product adaption.

         (b). the degree of promotion adaptation

         (c). increase in the level of price competition.

H_2 :   The degree of product adaptation increase as the firm product uniqueness increases

H_3 :   The firm market position affects the level of export performance.

H_4 :   The higher the level of price competitiveness the higher the degree of export commitment.

Research Result and Discussion

The Pearson correlation analysis was performed to test the relationship that exist between product adaptations and export performance, promotional adaptation and export performance and the extent to which price competitiveness increase export commitment. The r values for product adaptation and export performance at 0.001 degree of significant is 0.625. The promotional adaptation and export performance at 0.05 degree of

significant is 0.269. However, the r value for the extent to which price competitiveness increases the export commitment at 0.01 degree of significant is 0.506. The degree of export performance enhancement by price performance is –0.074. The summary of the Pearson correlation analysis shows that product adaptation is positively related to export performance with coefficient of 0.625. The promotional adaptation is equally positively related to export performance with coefficient of 0.269 and there is positive relationship price competitiveness and export performance with coefficient of 0.506. The analysis shows that there is negative relationship between price performances of the exported product and export performance. These results are detained in table I. It is therefore accepted as it discovered that export performance is positively related to product promotion adaptation.

Hypothesis 2

The t-test for product uniqueness with promotion adaptation was calculated to be 2.856 while the tabulated was 2.423, which indicated that, product uniqueness did not increase product adaptation of export venture. To test the importance of firm position on its export performance, ANOVA test was conducted, which shows that, the firm market position affects its exports performance. The F-test is calculated to be 2.583

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 indicated that the firm's market position affects its export performance. The ANOVA value F-test was 2.58 while tabulated F value was 4.31. This indicated that as promotion adaptation increased, export market competitiveness also increased as support to foreign distribution.

Discussion and Implications

This study represents the first effort reported to investigate export marketing strategy – export performance in Nigeria as far as it can be determined. The most important result of the present study was that marketing strategies was strongly related to export performance. As such, product adaptation, promotion adaptation and firm marketing position affected the firm export performance. However, the product uniqueness does not enhance product adaptation.

It was found out that the overall export performance was related to marketing strategies adaptation, including product adaptation, promotion adaptation and firm market position. The uniqueness of product features was negatively related to product and promotion adaptation can be attributed to other variability outside the scope of this study, which product uniqueness may influence. Top management commitment was also directly related to the higher level of price competitiveness. This effect of price competitive, though not test may translate to higher profit and higher returns on investment.

Limitations and Future Research

Future similar study should attempt to investigate marketing strategy export performance using longitudinal design; this will provide a long period of assessment of the effect of marketing strategies on export performance. Secondly, secondary industry and firm records of total sales volume, export sales, and expenses incurred to attain such sales level should be used and analyzed. One major area that is not considered in evaluating export performance is the environmental constraints, legal requirement and technological inhibition of developing country like Nigeria.

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Vol. 15 No. 5 pp 333-56.

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE CHARACTERISTICS AND OPERATIONS OF ROTATING SAVINGS AND CREDIT ASSOCIATIONS (ROSCAS) IN OSUN STATE, NIGERIA

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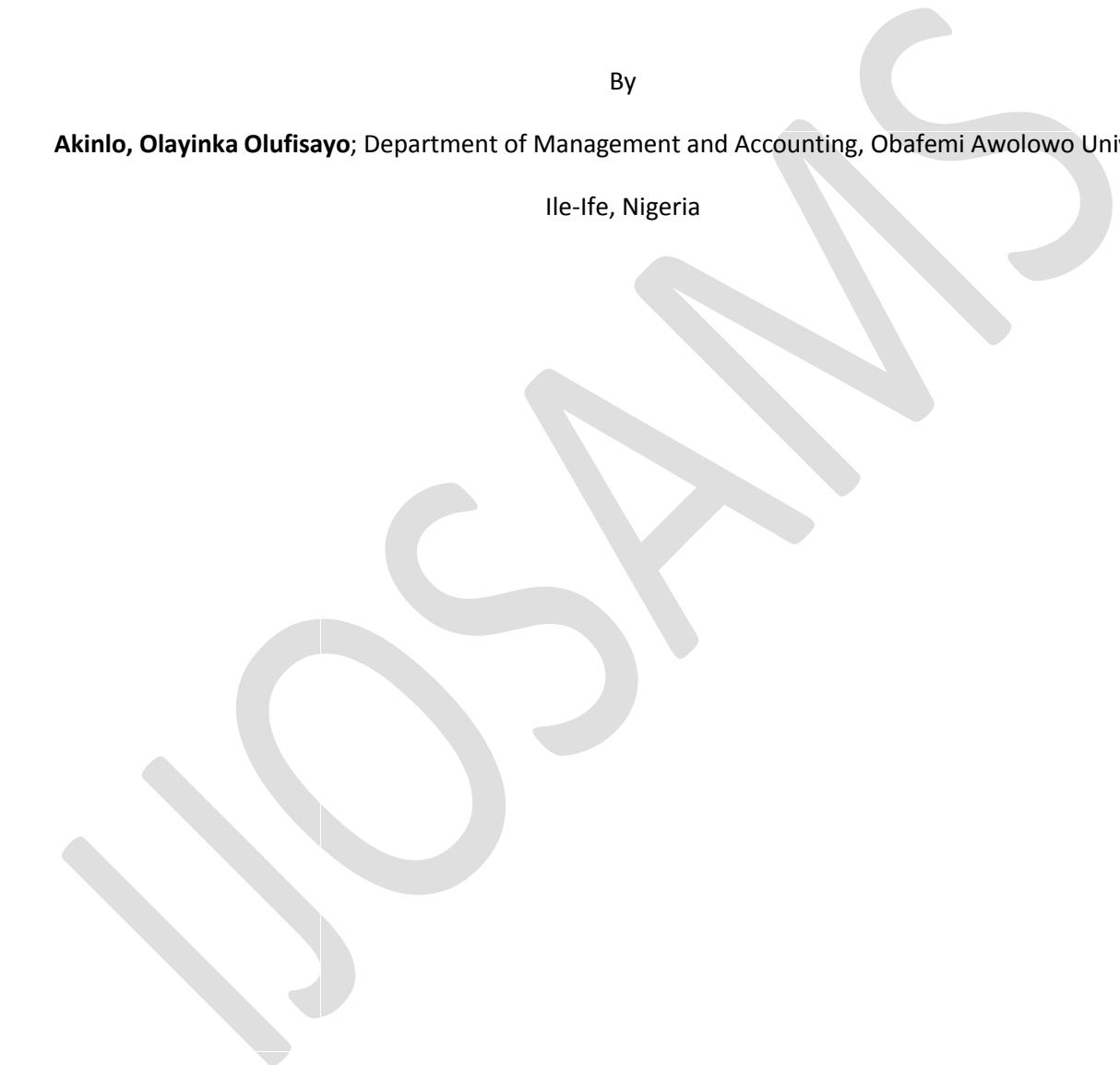
Abstract

The study investigated the characteristics of participants in Rotating Savings and Credit Associations (ROSCAs) and also examined their motivation towards it in Osun state of Nigeria. Primary data obtained through questionnaire administered on 240 respondents were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The study revealed that 57% of the participants in ROSCAs were women, majority earned below N20, 000 per month indicating that most participants were low and middle income earners. It was found that 78% of those interviewed were highly educated and that over 60% were public sector workers. The logistic regression shows that occupation, earnings and length of marriage were the major predictors of desire to save in ROSCAS. The study equally showed that majority of the respondents used their contributions to purchase durable goods suggesting that ROSCAs could be growth enhancing in the economy.

Introduction

In spite of tremendous energies and resources devoted to promoting formal financial intermediaries, available evidences have shown that the volume of business in the informal financial sector has been on the increase in most developing countries. Rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCAs) are among the oldest and most prevalent saving institutions found in the world and they play an important role in savings mobilization in many developing economies.

In Nigeria, few studies have shown the prevalence of rural informal financial intermediation in spite of rapidly expanding formal financial institutions[1]. These findings have raised some questions. One, why has there been some increased participation in ROSCAS in Nigeria in spite of government's promotion of formal financial intermediaries? Who are those participating in ROSCAs? What are the motivations for participating in ROSCAs? How is it organized? And how do they utilize ROSCAs fund? The need to answer these questions constitutes the main objective of this paper.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a summary of previous studies on ROSCAS. Section 3 gives the theoretical framework. Section 4 gives the study population, data and analytical technique. Section 5 provides the findings and discussion and section 6 contains the conclusion.

Literature Review

There have been many studies on ROSCAS worldwide. Most of them acknowledge the prevalence of the institutions in both developed and developing countries. Examples of such studies include Bouman (1995), Kimuyi (1999), Carpenter and Jensen (2002) and Gugerty (2000). The main conclusion from most of these studies is that ROSCAs have helped households mobilize resources, establish saving habit and in some cases ease their transition to a market-based economy (Herskovitz and Herskovitz 1947, Bescom 1952, Ardener 1979, Bonnett 1981, Elder 1988 and Ghate 1992). Many of the studies including Miracle et al. (1980), Mauri (1985), Oladeji and Ogunrinlola (2001) have shown clearly that savings from the informal sector, ROSCAS in particular, are not low contrary to orthodoxy economic view that savings in the informal sector are generally low.

Carpenter and Jensen (2002), through the Pakistan example, show increased household participation both in rural and urban areas. The results indicated age, income, location, occupation and employment in public sector as major determinants of household participation in ROSCAs. Gugerty (2000) records several interesting results in relation to Kenyan ROSCAs. The average participant is 40 years of age with 5.5 years of education. Secondly, it is prevalent among women. More to the point, that most participants use their funds for multiple purchases. The results equally show that ROSCAs provide a collective mechanism for individual self-control in the presence of time-inconsistent preferences and in the absence of alternative commitment technologies. The findings

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[1] Such studies in Nigeria include Oladeji and Ogunrinlola (2001), Magbelola (2000, 2003) and Eboh (2000) among others.

above indeed support other existing studies that have documented predominantly women participation and increased ROSCAs participation among others (see Ardener 1964 and Geertz 1962).

Handa and Kirton (1999) show, among others, that majority of the Taiwan ROSCAs members utilised their funds for the purchase of durable or lumpy goods but a few of them use theirs as precautionary savings for unplanned expenses. The results show that partners with allocations have hands, which are on average larger than those in partners with weekly rotations. Levenson and Besley (1996) rate participation in ROSCAs highest among high-income households in Taiwan. Also, the results support Besley and Leverson assertion that people participate in ROSCAs to buy durable or lumpy goods. Finally, income plays a role in determining participation in ROSCAs.

The study of Pamuk (2000) in Trinidad reveals high level of participation in ROSCAs (known as *sou-sou*). It is observed that ROSCAs are found in both rural and urban areas. Moreover, *sou-sou* finance is not only utilised by the poor who can't get access to commercial banks but also utilised by the wealthy as well. The results further establish that ROSCAs funds are primarily used to build houses incrementally especially among the poor. The study identify the following as reasons for participation in ROSCAs: flexibility, convenience, encourage savings, low information costs borne by participants, orientation towards the needs of members and their function as a form of insurance against unexpected income loss.

In Nigeria, scholars have carried out some empirical studies on ROSCAs. These include the works of Oladeji and Ogunrinola (2001), Eboh (2000) and Magbagbeola (2002). Oladeji and Ogunrinola (2001) observe some commitment in low-income earners to save in *Esusu/Ajo* (ROSCAs). The results indicate age, income, occupation, education and place/region of residence as significant barometers of disposition to, and the level of informal savings. They further show that the self-employed, the less educated and the rural populace identify more with *Ajo/Esusu* (ROSCAs) and also have higher savings ratio than other groups. The policy conclusion from the analysis is that informal savings could be a veritable channel for mobilising savings for development in Nigeria.

The study by Eboh (2000) describes and analyses the risk-reducing subtleties that underpin the organisation, functioning and financial intermediation activities of the traditional savings and credit associations in rural areas. The results indicate that in absolute terms, savings/deposits mobilised by traditional rotating and credit association in former Anambra state were quite high and that female-only ROSCAs generally mobilised higher savings per capita than their male-only ROSCAs counterpart.

Magbagbeola (2002) evaluates the ability of rotating savings and credit associations (ROSCAs) in mobilising funds in south-western Nigeria. The results of the study show high participation in ROSCAs in the study area thereby confirming earlier study by Oladeji and Ogunrinola (2001). In addition, the results prove that ROSCAs is a good and viable vehicle of mobilising funds among members on rotation so that they can have substantial amount of money for purchases of goods and services or investment. The study reveals that over 87 percent of those interviewed did not have more than 10 members while closeness of members to one another and occupation respectively accounted for 49 percent of the factors influencing formation of the ROSCAs.

Theoretical Framework

Going by common experience, individuals save or consume their income. They save in the formal or the informal financial sector or in both. However, ROSCAS which is an informal saving mechanism suggests uniqueness in terms of its motivations, resilience, organisation and determinants. Economic development literature is replete with many reasons why people save. These include accumulation for retirement, smoothening out predictable variations in income and procurement of certain durables among others. All these factors have significant implications for the choice of medium and institutions for savings. As has been pointed out in the literature, both formal and informal financial institutions exist to serve the interests of different types of clientele in the society. The main concern of this work is ascertaining reasons for the resilience of ROSCAS, identifying the calibre of savers and their motivations.

Model specification

ROSCAs Participation equation

$$P_i^R = \beta_0 + \sum \beta_j x_{ji} + e_2 \dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\dots\text{(i)} \qquad \text{Where}$$

x_{ji} = economic and other socio-demographic factors of individual i

P_i^R = Participation in ROSCASs; 1 if individual use informal saving modes (ROSCAs) only

   0, if not ROSCAs only,

B_o = constants.

   Equation 1 relates the desire to participate in ROSCAS to a set of economic and socio-demographic variables. These variables include earnings, education, location, age, marital status among others. Individual earnings are used to examine whether income level has any impact on the desire to participate in ROSCAs. It is hypothesised that lower income earnings lead to formation of other forms of informal association such as ASCRA for forced savings since they can withdraw fund when contingency arises, while individuals with high earnings would prefer to form ROSCAs. Moreover, the individuals with low earnings spend a larger fraction of income on subsistence consumption, so their demand for durables and therefore ROSCAs- too – should be lower. In addition, individuals with higher earnings tend to have higher levels of saving so their demand for ROSCAs as a saving vehicle should be higher. Based on the arguments above, we expect that higher income earners are likely to save more in ROSCAs than low income earners.

Occupation is used to capture the nature of employment on desire to participate in ROSCAs. It is expected to be positive because the nature of employment in most cases determines the stability of income. In addition, stability of income on the other hand enables individuals to sustain regular payments to the ROSCAs thereby avoiding default. Moreover, as argued in the literature, income generating individual is expected to join ROSCAs partly for investment purpose and partly for obtaining lump-sum amount to purchase consumer durables (Haque and Khalily 2002)

Age is expected to have positive effect on decision to participate in ROSCAs. At the early stage of life, people prefer other informal associations where they can keep their savings for a long time since it provides current income stream for them. At a higher age, people will prefer to form ROSCAs. Married people tend to have need for some lumpy expenditure for their household goods, which will motivate them to participate in ROSCAs. Thus married people are more likely to save in ROSCAS than the unmarried and or divorced/separated.

Education is expected to be inversely related to the decision to participate in ROSCAS. This is based on the argument that an educated individual would prefer a long term access to his savings as against single receipt (which is available in ROSCAs). Moreover, individuals with higher education are likely to patronise formal credit institutions as against informal ones such as ROSCAs. Spending pattern is expected to affect/influence decision to participate in ROSCAs. Individuals who spend on durable goods will tend to participate in ROSCAs to obtain lump sum amount to purchase consumer durables. Conversely, individuals who spend on consumption goods might not desire to participate in ROSCAs. Other factors included in the ROSCAs participation model are location, gender and length of marriage. The expectation is that women are more likely to participate in ROSCAS than men because women prefer to form classic ROSCAs where they can accumulate and get a bulk amount. Length of marriage is expected to have negative effect on the desire to participate in ROSCAs. The longer the length of marriage, the higher the level of needs with possible adverse effect on savings. Higher family responsibilities and lower savings might reduce the desire to participate in ROSCAs. Finally, we expect that rural dwellers will be more likely to participate in ROSCAs than urban dwellers. This is based on the fact that rural dwellers have limited access to formal financial institutions compared to urban dwellers.

Study population, Data and Analytical Technique

The study Population

The study on which this paper is based took place in Osun State. The state is located in the South-western part of Nigeria. The state is known to be semi-urban having a fairly representative mix of rural and urban population. The people of the state are mostly Yoruba. Although there are various distinct dialect groups, the people of the state share the same way of life. Christianity and Islam are the two main distinct religions. The dominant occupation for men is farming while most women engage in trading. The state is endowed with a range of mineral resources such as gold, clay, limestone and granite.

The industrial development is at the formative stage and it is principally anchored on conversion of primary products. Economic activities such as cloth weaving, dyeing, carving and carpentry thrive in different parts of the state. Other service industries such as banking and insurance thrive in urban centres. There are not many commercial banks in the rural areas. However, in the urban areas, community banks compete with other commercial banks. In terms of education, the state is highly developed. Nearly all children have access to primary and secondary education. Also, opportunities for higher education are very high in view of many tertiary institutions existing in the state.

The data

The data employed were from the survey work carried out between November 2005 and January 2006, on Rotating Savings and Credit Associations (ROSCAs) in both rural and urban areas. We administered questionnaire on two hundred and forty (240) respondents. We restricted the sample size to 240 respondents to enable us carry out a thorough and in-depth analysis of the operation, organization, characteristics and motivations for participation in ROSCAs in the study area. Out of the 240 questionnaires sent out, 236 were fully completed. The analysis and interpretation of data were based on the 236 questionnaires received.

For the selection of samples, we selected the headquarters of three senatorial districts, namely Oshogbo, Ile-Ife and Iwo. In addition, a town/village each was randomly picked from each senatorial district for the study. The towns/villages randomly selected were Iree, Gbogan and Ibokun. With respect to method of enquiry, we used interview method through personal visit to administer questionnaire.

Analytical techniques

Both tools of descriptive and inferential statistics were employed for data analysis. Descriptive statistics involved the computation of mean, mode, frequency counts and percentages. The inferential statistics involved estimation of logistic regression specified above as equation 1.

Empirical Results and Interpretation

In this section, we first present a descriptive analysis of the characteristics of respondents and operation of ROSCAS in the study area. This is followed by a discussion of the logistic results on the motivations for participation in ROSCAs by the respondents.

Descriptive Analysis

Socio-economic characteristics of the respondents

In table 1, we present summary of data on socio-economic characteristics of the respondents with respect to place of residence, sex, age, and marital status, length of marriage, educational status, and nature of employment, religious affiliation and monthly earnings. From table 1, the following facts are discernible. One, majority of the respondents about 64 percent were from major commercial towns. Two, there was evidence of greater women participation in ROSCAS than men. The dominance of ROSCAs by women might be a reflection of

the constraint felt by women in accessing credit. While both men and women may feel constrained by credit in expanding their businesses, women have less access, either because they are perceived as high risks or because women face gender discrimination in traditional societies (Kaunda 1990). Three, the mean age of the respondents was 40.5 years and the age distribution of the respondents shows a kind of concave pattern and it begins to fall/decrease at 40.5 years. This observed pattern seems to coincide with the notion that individuals need time to establish themselves and to develop more long-standing relationships with others, but also with the idea that the demand for indivisibles tends to be higher among younger individuals as found in Levenson and Besley (1996). This probably suggests that individuals between the ages 30-50 would show higher inclination to participate in ROSCAs. This is quite reasonable, as this age bracket constitutes the most productive time in life cycle. The need to acquire durable goods such as houses and pay school fees is quite high during this age bracket and thus the need to obtain lump sum through such institutions as ROSCAs.

The results equally show that the mean duration of marriage was 15 years and couples that are married for less than 20 years have greater inclination to participate in ROSCAs. Couples that are married for over 30 years are less inclined to participate in ROSCAs. This seems reasonable because the urge/need to buy indivisibles would have reduced drastically for couples that are married for over 30 years.

 The result reveals that the higher the level of education, the greater the desire to participate in ROSCAs. This seems to contradict the perception that individuals graduate to the formal sector with higher education. There are two possible reasons for this finding. One, the current high cost of living might have negatively impacted the value of income/earnings such that it has become very difficult to save alone from one's income to buy needed durables irrespective of one's level of education. Two, it could as a result of the attractiveness of this mode of saving, especially its flexibility, simple organisational structure and convenience.

The result demonstrates that most respondents were employed but mostly in public/ government sector. This might be attributed to the fact that public sector jobs in Nigeria, as in other countries, have a greater degree of security and stability as compared to the private sector.

Table 1: Percentage distribution of Respondents by Selected Socio-economic characteristics

Characteristics	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Place of Residence	Major Commercial	150	**63.6**
	Less commercial	86	**36.4**
	Total	236	**100.00**
Sex	Male	111	**47.0**
	Female	125	**53.0**
	Total	236	**100.0**
Age	20-29	28	**11.9**
	30-39	80	**33.9**
	40-49	90	**38.1**
	50 Above	38	**16.1**
	Total	236	**100.0**
Marital Status	Single	29	**12.3**
	Married	192	**81.4**
	Separated/Divorced	5	**2.1**
	Widowed	10	**4.2**
	Total	236	**100.0**
Length of Marriage	0-9	65	**27.5**
	10-19	66	**28.0**
	20-29	45	**19.10**
	30 & above	16	**6.8**
	Not applicable	44	**18.6**

	Total	236	**100.0**
Level of Education	No education	14	**5.9**
	Primary	16	**6.8**
	Secondary	19	**8.1**
	Higher	186	**78.8**
	No response	1	**0.4**
	Total	236	**100.0**
Religion	Christianity	164	**69.5**
	Islam	69	**29.2**
	Traditional	1	**0.4**
	No Religion	2	**0.8**
	Total	236	**100.0**
Nature of Employment	Unemployed	9	**3.8**
	Self employed	46	**19.5**
	Private Sector	39	**16.5**
	Public/Government	142	**60.2**
	Total	236	**100.0**
Monthly earnings	**Below N10,000**	**32**	**13.6**
	10001-20,000	**76**	**32.2**
	20,001-30,000	**51**	**21.6**
	30,001-40,000	**34**	**14.4**
	Above 40,000	**38**	**16.1**
	No response	**5**	**2.1**

Total	**236**	**100**

Source: Field Survey 2006

Patronage of ROSCAs

The results show that some of those who participated in ROSCAs still combined it with formal saving mode. 15 percent of the respondents saved only through ROSCAs. About 30 percent of the respondents combined bank, cooperatives and ROSCAs as medium of saving. 32% of the respondents used cooperative and ROSCAs as medium of saving while about 23% of the respondents used Bank and ROSCAs alone as medium of saving(Table 2).

Table 2 Percentage Distribution of respondents by medium of savings**.**

Savings Medium	Frequency	Percentage
ROSCAs	36	**15.3**
Bank, cooperative and ROSCAs	70	**29.7**
Cooperative and ROSCAs	75	**31.8**
Bank and ROSCAs	55	**23.3**
Total	**236**	**100.0**

Source: Field Survey 2006

Reasons for joining ROSCAs

About 60 per cent of respondents reported that the primary reason for joining the group is because it encourages saving (see table 3). According to many, the small amount of contribution made on a regular basis is not a big burden on their budget and that the accumulated sum pleasantly surprises them when it is their turn to take their contribution. Many of the participants agreed that they would like to continue this traditional form of savings on an informal basis rather than putting regular savings in a commercial bank account. Although some of them mentioned lack of discipline as a reason for not putting small but regular savings in a bank, this in fact is precisely what they are doing in ROSCAs when they make their contributions.

Table 3 Percentage distribution of respondents by reasons for joining ROSCAs

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Reliable and easy to raise capital	76	32.2
For household needs	3	1.3
To accumulate savings	139	58.9
Pay school fees	11	4.7
Peer group influence	5	2.1
No Response	2	0.8
Total	236	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2006

The other important reason identified by participants for joining ROSCAs is that the scheme is a reliable and easy way of raising capital. This might be due to the features of the scheme. One, they do not make interest payments for an early contribution they may receive. Unlike the groups documented in Asia, ROSCAs in Nigeria do not account for interest rate implications on contributions and 'draws' at different times. Secondly, individuals can make request to draw their hand early. However, such requests are always accompanied by good justifications for use of fund such as a family emergency, an unexpected house repair expenses etc. These factors probably explain the argument of reliability and easy accessibility to credit from ROSCAs. One other reason advanced by participants for participating in ROSCAs was to be able to get funds not only to pay children school fees but also to meet household basic needs[2,3]

The various reasons identified by respondents as being responsible for their participation in ROSCAs were very much in line with what obtain in other countries. Pamuk (2000) found that the main reason why people join sou-sou group in Trinidad was because it encourages saving. Gugerty (2000) expressed some similarity with regard to Kenya…

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[2] Few of the respondents gave fear of bank failure as the main reason for patronizing ROSCAs. This might not be unconnected with the recent bank failure in the country.

[3] The various reasons identified by respondents as being responsible for their participation in ROSCAs were very much in line with what have been obtained for other countries. Pamuk (2000) found that the main reason why people join sou-sou group in Trinidad was because it encourages saving. The same was obtained for Kenya by Gugerty (2000).

People's Perception of ROSCAs

Almost all respondents 99% agreed that it was easier joining/participating in ROSCAs than banks.

Table 4 Percentage Distribution of respondents on perception of ROSCAs

Criteria	Easy		Difficult		Total
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	
Participation in ROSCAs	233	98.7	3	1.3	236
Making savings in ROSCAs	230	97.5	6	2.5	236
Withdrawal	177	75.0	59	25.0	236
Taking loan*	88	37.3	147	62.3	235
Disengagement from ROSCAs*	69	29.2	166	70.6	235

* There was a case of non-response.

Source: Field Survey 2006

In the same way, 98% of the respondents were of the opinion that it is easier making savings in ROSCAs than banks. As regards making withdrawal money from ROSCAs and banks, most respondents specifically 75% believed that it was easier withdrawing money from ROSCAs than from bank. However, with respect to taking loans from the two institutions, 62% of the respondents ascertained that it was more difficult taking loans from ROSCAs compared to the banks. 37% were of the contrary view. The same pattern was observed in the case of disengaging from the two institutions. Almost 71% of the respondents were of the opinion that it is easier disengaging from bank than from ROSCAs. 29% of the respondents were of the contrary view. The respondents' perception that it is easier to deal with ROSCAs in terms of participation, saving and withdrawal as compared to banks might be connected with the fact that ROSCAs involve less paper works as more often it is based on trust. Moreover, banks access depends on physical access, which is, having a branch nearby. This simply means that rural households are at a disadvantage, as the distance to a bank branch can be great and can involve substantial transportation cost. In addition, quite aside from physical access, participation in the banking sector depends on education; in order to open and operate an account, basic skills such as reading, writing and keeping track of the account are necessary. While the two factors might be critical, reasons for respondents' perception on ROSCAs and banks in terms of accessibility, the view that participation in the banks involves a lot of paper

work and other official documentation would no doubt be a critical factor. Participation in ROSCAs is more open as long as it exists in the neighbourhood and there is evidence of ability to make regular payments. Essentially ROSCAs is based on trust.

Organisation and reliability of ROSCAs.

On the type of savings being operated, the result show that almost (92%) all the respondents adopted rotating credit. 5% operated fixed approach while 3% of the respondents' combined both rotating and fixed method (see table 5). Several factors explain respondents' preference for rotating savings as against fixed saving method. One, ROSCAs, particularly the fixed type, are typically formed by a relatively small group of individuals who live in the same area. It is generally assumed that the prospect of participating in future cycles of ROSCAs as well as the threat of social sanctions by the other members of the group are enough to deter opportunistic defection. As noted by Besley, Coate and Loury (1993), ROSCAs use pre-existing social connections between individuals to help circumvent problems of imperfect information and enforceability.

Table 5 Percentage distribution on type of informal saving operated.

Type	Frequency	Percentage
Fixed	11	4.7
Rotating	217	91.9
Rotating and Fixed	8	3.4
Total	236	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2006

Evidence from our survey indicates that the average size of each group of ROSCAs is fifteen participants. Majority of the respondents (79%) saved monthly. Almost 14% of the respondents saved weekly, only 6.4% of the respondents saved fortnightly while the rest 1% were making daily savings (see table 6).

Table 6 Percentage distribution of respondents on regularity of saving

Regularity of Saving	Frequency	Percentage
Daily	3	1.3
Weekly	32	13.6
Fortnightly	15	6.4
Monthly	186	78.8
Total	236	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2006

Considering savings, majority of respondents saved between N1000 – N4999. Specifically, 42.0% of the respondents saved between this ranges. 25% saved at least N10, 000, 21% saved between N5000 and N9999. Only 9% of the respondents saved between N100 and N999 (see table 7). The average mean saving of the respondents is N6,718.00.

Table 7: Percentage distribution of respondents on the amount saved

Amount (N)	Frequency	Percentage
100 -999	21	8.9
1000-4999	101	42.8
5000-9999	49	20.8
10,000 and above	60	25.4
No response	5	2.1
Total	236	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2006

Regarding methods of fund allocation, 36% of the respondents were involved in ROSCAs groups in which the order of collection changed after each round. Order is negotiated among members at the end of each round in this procedure. 33% were involved in ROSCAs in which order was decided before negotiation i.e. order was randomly done at the beginning of each cycle. 11% of the respondents participated in ROSCAs in which order changed each round. 4% of the respondents participated in ROSCAs where order was based on some criteria as

the order in which one joined the association and/or age. Only 2% of the respondents were in an association where same order was used each round (see table 8).

Table 8 Percentage distribution of respondents on methods of fund allocation

Method of Fund Allocation	Frequency	Percentage
1. Order is decided prior negotiation: -		
Negotiated among members	24	10.2
Random allocation	77	32.6
2. Order is changed each round: -		
Negotiated among members	85	36.0
Random allocation	27	11.4
3. Some order each round:		
Negotiated among members	2	0.8
Random allocation	5	2.1
Use order of joining/age/etc	7	3.0
4. No response	9	3.8
Total	236	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2006

Checking on the reliability of ROSCAs, we sought to know whether respondents had been defrauded in the course of their participation in ROSCAs. The results as shown in table 9 indicate that majority (92.0%) had never been defrauded. This finding supports the view that ROSCAs are reliable informal institutions in the developing countries. Indeed, several factors might be responsible for low opportunistic deflection or fraudulent practices. One, there is possibility of social sanctions by other members against anyone who engages in fraud. Secondly, there is the existence of social collateral that ensures sustainability. As noted in the literature, defaulters/fraudsters would not only be sanctioned socially, but they would also be prevented from further ROSCAs participation. Ardener(1964) explains that " the member who defaults in one association may suffer to

such an extent that he may not be accepted as a member of any other". In some communities, the rotating credit institutions have become so rooted in the economic and social system that exclusion would be a serious deprivation.

The implication of this finding is that ROSCAs could be a reliable mode of saving. Of those few who reported to have been defrauded, 13 claimed to be defrauded to the tune of over N5000.00. The rest claimed to have been defrauded to the tune of amount ranging between N1000.00 – N5000.00. Only 70% of those who claimed to have been defrauded reported that they were discouraged from using ROSCAs. However, 30% reported that though they were defrauded they were not discouraged from participating in ROSCAs (see table 9)

Table 9 Percentage distribution of reactions to fraud and its effect on

Participation in ROSCAs

	Whether defrauded	Fraud discouragement
yes	19 (8.1)	14 (70)
No	216(91.5)	6 (30)
No response	1 (0.4)	-
Total	236(100)	20 (100)

Source: Field Survey 2006

In relation to the reliability of ROSCAs, we asked the respondents whether they had ever missed payment during a season or round. The result shows that 86% of the respondents had never missed payment during a cycle. Indeed, the few respondents who claimed to have missed payment due to salary delay paid back the following cycle. This finding clearly supports the argument that ROSCAs, if well organized, could be a reliable mode of saving.

Use of Savings

Another issue that we explore relates to the use of ROSCAs funds. Since ROSCAs are typically formed as a response to the indivisibility problem, Besley et al (1993) and others argue that ROSCAs members are expected to use their draws mainly for the purchase of durable goods. The results from our survey support the assertion above as 86% of the respondents reported that they use their draws for durable goods(Table 10). Specifically, over

Table 10: Percentage distribution of respondents on usage of funds from ROSCAs

	Frequency	Percentage

Consumption goods	6	2.5
Durable goods	202	85.6
Both consumption and durables	28	11.9
Total	236	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2006

80% reported using their draws to buy household appliances, followed by education expenses for self or children and home construction. Only few of them reported utilisation of their funds for consumption of food, pay debts and clothing materials. This result seems to support the argument that ROSCAs could be growth enhancing particularly where the fund is expended on durable goods as against consumption goods.

Empirical Results

The results of the logistic regression on motivation to save in ROSCAs are shown in table 11. The strongest predictors of desire to save were occupation, earnings and length of marriage. The results show that urban dwellers are less likely to save in ROSCAs than the rural dwellers. This result seems to support the earlier findings that informal savings and lending are more prominent in the rural economy. In addition, we found that men are less likely to save in ROSCAs as compared to women. This result corroborates findings by existing studies that women are more predisposed toward ROSCAS than men (Oladeji and Ogunrinola, 2001). The results indicate that age groups 30-39, 40-49 and 50+ have lower inclinations towards ROSCAs. However, the disposition towards ROSCAs is higher among age group 30-39 compared to age group 40-49 years. This seems to support the argument that the demand for durables tends to be higher among younger individuals and the inclination to save in ROSCAs(Levenson and Besley, 1998).

The separated, divorced and widowed are less likely to save in ROSCAs compared to the married. The results in table 11 show that couples that are married for over 9 years are more likely to save in ROSCAs. However, the inclination to participate in ROSCAs tends to wane as the length of marriage increases. This result seems reasonable as the need to save and buy durables is higher at early years of marriage. Most married couples would want to have the basic durables before the need to take care of children education. Compared to those with no schooling, respondents with education are more likely to participate in ROSCAs. The results show that the disposition towards ROSCAs increases with the level of education. This seems to contradict the assertion that participation in ROSCAs is more restricted to people of average education. Rather, more and more educated people now participate in ROSCAs[4].

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[4] As earlier argued in the paper, this finding might be due to the fact that the current high cost of living have negatively impacted the value of income/earnings such that it has become very difficult to save alone from one income for the purpose of procuring durables. Also, it could be due to the attractiveness of this mode of saving especially its flexibility, simple organisational structure and convenience.

The results show that gainfully employed respondents are more likely to participate in ROSCAs compared to unemployed. However, respondents that are self-employed had higher odds than those employed in the private and public sector (4.366). However, respondents employed in the public sector were more likely to save in ROSCAs compared to those employed in the private sector. With respect to earnings, respondents whose earnings were more than N10,000 are more likely to save in ROSCAs. However, respondents with income range N20,000 – N30,000 had higher odds than respondents in others in the income brackets.

Finally the results show that respondents whose residences were near bank location are more likely to save in ROSCAs. This means that nearness to bank might not be a major factor affecting desire to participate in ROSCAs.

Table 11: Odds ratios from logistic regression analysis of factors affecting desire to save in ROSCAs

Variable	level	Odd Ratio
Location	Rural(ref)	1.00
	Urban	0.715
Sex	Female (ref)	1.00
	Male	0.925
Age	20 -29 (ref)	1.00
	30 -39	0.651*
	40 -49	0.329
	50+	0.574
Marital Status	Married (ref)	1.00
	Separated/Divorced	0.209
	Widowed	0.214
Length of Marriage	0 -9 years (ref)	1.00
	10 -19	4.539**
	20-29	4.157**
	30 -39	3.424**

Education	No Education (ref)	1.00
	Primary	1.098
	Secondary	2.001
	Higher	2.562
Occupation	Unemployed(ref)	1.00
	Self-employed	4.366
	Private Sector	2.149
	Public/Government	3.727*
Earnings	Below N10,001 (ref)	1.00
	N10,001 – N20,000	1.489
	N20,001 – N30, 000	4.574*
	N30,001 – N40, 000	1.515
	Above N40,000	1.713
Nearness to Bank	Yes (ref)	1.00
	No	0.450
Constant		1.386

 * P < .05 and **P < .010

Conclusion

The results show that women tend to participate more in ROSCAs than men. The data reveal that income is a major factor affecting participation in ROSCAs. Majority of the respondents earned below N20, 000. Based on the salary scale structure in Nigeria, one can infer that majority of those participating in ROSCAs are low and middle-income earners. Moreover, participation in ROSCAs is not restricted to those with lower educational background. The study observes that over 60% of the respondents are public sector worker. This is attributed largely to the high degree of security and stability in public sector employment relative to the private sector.

Looking at respondents' perception of ROSCAs, the study establishes that majority of respondents considered participation in ROSCAs easier in terms of saving and withdrawals. In addition, the result indicates that most participants in ROSCAs believe that ROSCAs are easy to organise and operate. Most respondents' adopted rotating saving scheme as against fixed saving method. The average number of participants in ROSCAs was 15. The result shows that most participants preferred ROSCAs of life cycle of 12 months.

The result proves that most participants used ROSCAs as a vehicle for saving in order to buy durables, particularly at early stage of marriage. Finally, the results establish that occupation, earnings and length of marriage were the major factors affecting desire to participate in ROSCAs in the study area.

Acknowledgements

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ARE LO BEDUN NLE... A LINGUISTIC - STYLISTIC ANALYSIS

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Abstract

This paper applies the principles and concepts of the Chomskyan Transformational Grammar (TG) model to the analysis of an Ifá verse from *Èjì Ogbè* titled: *Are lo Bedun Nle…* (when the Colobus monkey had to run on the ground…).

The paper highlights 'entertainment' and 'message' as the most important goals crucial to any literary creation. In the text under study, therefore, entertainment is achieved through the artist's employment of linguistic transformations. Some of the transformations employed include the thematic/focusing, insertion, substitution and deletion transformations. The total effect of the transformations and other linguistic manipulations is a text that is not only fast in rhythm and tempo but also rich in taste and elegance. As for the message, the artist is able to present metaphorically, through the story of Edun (the-white-thigh-Colobus-monkey) and Aaya (the-red-thigh-Colobus-monkey), the morally condemnable universal concept/practice of 'godfatherism', especially in politics and justice administration. This is revealed by the acquittal of Edun and the conviction of Aaya, siblings of the same parents who committed the same crime but got dissimilar judgments in the story/text.

Key words: Transformation, entertainment, message, standard language, literary language, 'edun`dun', 'aaya', thematic/focusing, substitution, deletion and insertion.

Introduction

The role of Linguistics in literary discourse analysis, despite its limitations, cannot be over-emphasised. Going by the current trend among Yoruba scholars, application of linguistics to literary analysis is becoming more and more fashionable in Yoruba studies[1]. Hence, in this paper, our intention is to adopt the principles and concepts of the Transformational Generative Grammar (TG) for the analysis of the Ifa verse; *Are Lo B'edun nle...'* (when the colobus monkey had to run on the ground...) from Eji-ogbe chapter of the Ifa literary corpus.

The TG Model:

The TG model (Chomsky 1957, 1965) recognises the intuitive ability of a speaker which enables him to produce and understand an infinite number of sentences in his language. Besides, the same innate ability enables him to explore and exploit creatively, the linguistic resources of his language to achieve aesthetics and other stylistic goals.

The twin concepts of *competence* and *performance* of TG are relevant to this paper. In transformational terms, *Competence* refers to the intuitive ability of a speaker to recognise *grammatical* and *ungrammatical, acceptable* and *unacceptable, ambiguous* and *unambiguous*; and, *simple* and *complex* sentences in his language. *Performance*, on the other hand refers to the actual usage of language in concrete situations, and this, sometimes may be creative or artistic. In literary discourse, for instance, a novel, a play or a poem, like the one under study in this paper, is regarded as a sample of performance and a clear manifestation of the linguistic competence and creative ability of the literary artist.

Deep structure (DS) and *Surface Structure* (SS) is another basic pair of TG concepts. According to the transformationalists, there are two structural levels for a sentence: the DS and SS. The DS determines the semantic interpretation of the sentence, while the SS represents the surface syntactic and phonological realisations. Most scholars believe that the language of everyday usage, otherwise known as the *Standard Language* (SL), differs in some respect from the language of literature known as the *Literary Language* (LL). With these belief and concepts, it is possible to explain the differences between the SL and LL and the transformations that produce them. In TG, *transformation* is a grammatical process which converts a given utterance into another with a new constituent structure. This is achieved through the application of a set of rules known as the *Transformational Rules* (TR). Examples of TR include the *passive*, the *substitution*, *deletion* and *insertion* transformations. While the *focusing/ passive* transformation re-arranges the elements in the sentence structure, the *substitution* replaces (substitutes) an element or elements with another. In the case of *deletion* transformation, elements are deleted (removed), while *insertion* transformation inserts (embed) new

elements. These principles and concepts of TG provide a set of useful tools for the analysis and interpretation of literary discourse. Two things, however, are to be noted about the TG model. First, the transformations, which produce the SL, are obligatory, while those that produce the LL are in most cases optional. Second, application of linguistic models to literary analysis is not without its limitations, especially at the level of interpretation3. The TG model is not an exception to this. It is for this reason therefore, that references may have to be made to cultural, historical and mythological factors to elucidate interpretation of the text.

Analysis

The text under study, *Are Lo B'edun nle…..',* tells the story of Edun (White thigh colobus monkey) and Aaya (red colobus monkey) who went to steal maize from a farm. On sighting the farmer, Aaya ran away, while Edun was caught because he could not run very well. He was then arraigned for stealing in the Ogboni Cult-house. But having discovered that Edun was an offspring of Osun (a river goddess), whose relation they were forbidden to punish, Edun was consequently discharged and acquitted, while Aaya was punished for the same offence.

The phrases and sentences used in the text indicate that both Standard Language (SL) and Literary Language (LL) are used. The phrases and sentences are products of one linguistic transformation or the other. Consequent on the language used therefore, the narrative poem can be divided into three segments; namely: the Introductory (lines 1 – 8), the body (9 – 55) and the closing or conclusion (56 – 65). Various transformations are employed, and they run through the entire segments, creating stylistic (aesthetics) and semantic effects. In the introductory part, for instance, the language used is the literary language (LL), i.e. non-casual, critical and examined (Olabode 1992: 18; Fowler 1996). The opening sentence (lines 1 – 2) alone is a product of three different transformations, namely: the thematization/focusing, the substitution and the deletion. In other words, the SS, which is the opening sentence, is derived from two Deep Structures marked DS_1 and DS_2. The processes of transformation can be explained as follows:

SS   1.   Are lo b'Edun n'le

Edun o mo o'n sa

When Edun had to run on the ground

HE COULD NOT RUN VERY WELL.

        DS_2 Are lo b'Edun n'le

(Ti) Edun (k) o (fi) mo o'n sa

When Edun had to run on the ground

He could not run very well.

DS$_1$ Are ba Edun n'le (ni ile]

NP1

Edun ko mo are sa

NP2

Edun had to run on the ground

(But) Edun could not run.

DS$_1$ is the first Deep Structure to which the first transformation, the passive is applied. Through this transformation, the nominal *are* (NP$_1$) 'running' is marked for emphasis by inserting the emphatic marker *ni* 'is/was' immediately after the emphasized nominal *are* (NP$_1$), such that we have; *are ni….* 'It is/was running …' The second, which is the substitution transformation, then substitutes the second mention of the co-referential nominal (NP$_2$ - are) in line 2, at the DS$_1$ level with the nasalized vowel *o'n* of the verb *mo* 'to know'. Application of the thematic/focusing and substitution transformations to DS$_1$ results in DS$_2$. It should be noted that in SL, a sentence with the type of structure found in DS$_2$ should have particle *ti* 'that….' and 'fi' (a preverbal element). But the poet has deliberately left these out to make the sentence a LL, that is, more poetic. It is at this stage that a third transformation, which is deletion, is applied to delete particle *tí,* and element *fí.* The result of all the above processes is the SS.

Application of the thematic/focusing, substitution and deletion transformations as seen above has the following effects. First, the substitution of *are* (NP$_2$, a nominal with two syllables, with vowel *on* (one syllable) and the deletion of particles *ti* and *fí* contribute to the concise and poetic quality of the opening sentence (lines 1-2). Second, application of the thematic/focussing transformation is responsible for the emphatic nature of the opening lines as a declarative sentence, thus arresting the attention of the reader/listener. Third, the marking of *are* NP$_1$ for emphasis, through thematization/focussing has the semantic effect of suggesting that *are* 'running' is possibly the (only) activity Edun cannot do successfully on the ground, and not any other activity. In other

words, it is only on the ground that Edun loses his running versatility, not elsewhere. The introductory continues in line 3 where there is an instance of phonological deviation occasioned by the deletion of consonant (f) of the verb phrase, *difa* in line 3, such that we have: '*A dia fun….* instead of *A difa fun…* (Ifa divination was performed for…). The 4th line of the text, which is:

> 4.　　　Edun*, ti i se omo iya Aaya*
>
> 　　　Nom.　Rel.　　Clause
>
> 　　　Edun, who is of the same mother as Aaya

is an embedded relative clause (through insertion transformation). Though the relative clause (underlined) directly qualifies the nominal Edun, the entire clause (with NP + Rel. Cl. Structure) constitutes the whole line. In other words, the clause in line 4 is subordinate to line 3, giving additional information about Edun, the object of the VP; *dia fun…* (line 3). The additional information given here can be very useful. It is about the kinship relationship between Edun and Aaya who are of the same mother, probably twins[4]. In actual fact, the kind of structure found in lines 1 – 4 is peculiar to ese-ifa, especially, the well known cliché, *a díá* fun…, which characterizes every Ifa verse. It is indeed one of the characteristics which distinguish ese-Ifa from other Yoruba oral poetic forms[5]. The repetition in lines 1-4 of the nominal 'Edun' is stylistic. It adds to the poetic quality of the four lines. For instance, had the poet opted for a deletion of the co-referential NP Edun in line 4, the two lines (3-4) would have read thus:

> DS (a)　　　　A dia fun Edun (line 3)
>
> 　　Ti i se omo iya Aaya (line 4)
>
> 　　Ifa divination was performed for Edun
>
> 　　　Who was of the same mother as Aaya

Instead of: SS (b)　　　A díá fun Edun (line 3)

> 　　Edun ti i se omo iya Aaya (line 4)

Ifa divination was performed for Edun

> 　　Edun who was of the same mother as Aaya

That the poet chooses not to apply deletion transformation in lines 3 – 4, but chooses a repetition of the nominal, Edun, points to the fact that application of the transformation is optional for aesthetic and focusing effects.

Lines 5 – 8 (given below) present yet another instance of transformation. This time, it is nesting (i.e. insertion or embedding) of simple sentences[6].

Aaya fo fere (5)

                          NP   VP

                          O   gori igba (6)

                          NP   VP

                          Edun   ta fere (7)

                          NP   VP

                          E`dun   gori igi (8)

                    NP   VP

Aaya jumped quickly

And climbed the locust-bean tree

Edun darted upwards

And climbed a tree

Each of the four lines exhibits similar syntactic structure, which is: NP + VP.

The NP is either a nominal as in the case of lines 5, 7 and 8, or a pronoun as in the case of line 6. The VP is either a verbal idiophone with the structure: Verb + adverb (idiophone) as in lines 5 and 7, or: Verb-nominal + Noun

(object) as in lines 6 and 8. The similarity in the syntactic structure of the four lines (5 – 8) produces some stylistic effects.

For example, each of the pairs of:

 Aaya fo fere (5)

Edun ta fere   (7)

and: *O gori igba*   (6)

Edun gori igi (8)

Produces a parallelism. Other stylistic features produced by the parallel structures include lexical matching and tonal counterpoints (Olatunji: 1984: 25 – 30). While each of the nominals: *Aaya/Edun*, and the VPs: *fo fere/ ta fere* are lexically matched in lines 5 and 7, each pair of the pronoun/nominal: *O/ Edun* and the VPs - *gori igba / gori igi* are also lexically matched in 6 and 8. As regards tonal counterpoint, the lexical tones of *fo fere* (which is low-low-low, LLL), contrasting with that of *ta fere (*which is mid- high-high, MHH) and the mid-high-low (MHL) tones of *gori igba* contrasting with the mid-high-mid-mid (MHMM) of *gori igi* are responsible for the tonal counterpoint (Olatunji 1984: 30 – 36). Tonal counterpoint operates only on the lexically matched items. It is equally observed that the nominal *Edun* with its sound and level tones (mid-mid, MM) repeated stylistically in lines 1 – 4, and in similar syntactic positions in lines 7 – 8, produce an aesthetic effect. The total effect of the various transformations and the resultant stylistic features is aesthetics, making the introductory part of the text (lines 1 – 8) full of aesthetic flavor and thus, irresistibly arresting to the reader/listener.

At the semantic level, the preponderance/repetition of certain nominals and verbs (action verbs) which relate to motion has certain semantic effect. Such nominals as *are* (running), and verbs/verb phrases such as *sa* (run) *fò* (jump), *fo fère* (jump quickly), *'ta fere'* (dart off/away), *gorí igba* (climb the locust-bean tree) and *gori igi* (climb a tree) express different shades of motion, and are expressive of the agility and swiftness of the monkey as far as motion is concerned.

While the introductory (1 – 8) gives a brief highlight of the Edun/Aaya story, the actual narration begins in line 9, running through to line 55. Unlike the opening segment which starts poetically on a fast note, the language of the text changes to that of prose narrative, becoming more casual and relaxed, in the second segment. Though transformations are also employed in this segment, they seem to have more of semantic effect than stylistic. For instance, thematization/focusing is one of the prominent transformations employed, with its emphatic/focusing effect running through the entire segment.

Focusing transformation (described by Yusuf (1997:107) as Passive transformation or passivization) is a syntactic process whereby the constituent elements within a sentence structure are re-arranged for focusing or thematic effect. This is achieved by moving the element to be focused from its usual position to the sentence-initial position, and then introducing the thematic marker *ni* 'is/was' into the sentence structure. Within lines 9 – 10 alone, we have two instances of passivization. The first is the transposition of the adverbial clause of time:.. *nigba ti iwa se* from its usual position as subordinate clause to the sentence-initial position, such that lines 9 and 10 become swapped or juxtaposed. The second is the movement of the nominal *ileele* from its usual position as the object of the verb *rin* (line 2) to the initial position of the main clause. Therefore, lines 9 – 10 which has the SS.

SS   *nigba ti iwa se* (9)

          Ileele ni Aaya maa n rin (10)

Could be said to have been derived from the DS (below)

Aaya maa n *rin ní ileelè* (10)

                    Vb. Prep. Nom. (object)

nigba ti iwa se (9)

Adv. Cl. of time

The entire sentences in the DS can be re-written as a single sentence

 Thus:

          Aaya maa n *rin ní ilè é lè nigba ti iwa se*

The semantic implication of the transposition is to mark the adverbial clause: *nigba ti iwa se* for emphasis, thereby calling attention to the time frame to which the action in line 10 refers. That is, only in the olden days was Aaya known to be walking on the ground, but not so again. The marking of the nominal *ileele* for emphasis is to call attention to the fact that in those days of old, only on the ground, and not elsewhere was Aaya used to walking. Examples of other sentences involving movement or transposition of elements include lines 13 and 14, 18 and 19, 22 and 23, 48 and 49. In each of these cases, the adverbial clause, which is subordinate, has been transposed to the initial position of the main clause, thus achieving the desired thematic or focussing effect.

          Examples of thematization/focusing transformation involving insertion of the thematic marker (TM) *ni* can be found in:

- Aaya <u>lo</u> ko ri (<u>*ni*</u> o ko ri)…. (lines 16, 17)

  TM   TM

  Aaya was the first to see….

- … *omo Osun <u>ni</u>* (lines 23, 27)

  TM

… was an offspring of Òsun

- ni *loootó <u>nì</u>* oun ya agbado (line 29)

  TM

  Sugbon *loju oloko <u>ni</u>* oun ya a (line 30)

  TM

  He said that indeed he plucked maize cobs

  But that he did so before the farmer's very eyes

Won ni Aaya ti o ri oloko sa <u>ni</u> ki won fi iya je

   TM (lines 38 – 39)

They said that Aaya who ran away when he saw the farmer was the one to be punished.

In the above sentences, all the phrases and sentences occurring before the thematic marker (TM) (underlined) are marked for emphasis in the respective constituent sentences in which they occur.

INSERTION TRANSFORMATION, ALSO KNOWN AS *EMBEDDING* FEATURES IN THE TEXT. IT INVOLVES AN INCLUSION OR EMBEDDING OF ELEMENT(S) IN THE SENTENCE STRUCTURE. THE PRINCIPLES OF THIS TRANSFORMATION ARE OFTEN EXPLOITED IN LITERARY DISCOURSE (SEE OLABODE, 1996). IN THIS TEXT, EXAMPLES OF INSERTION TRANSFORMATION INCLUDE THE EMBEDDING OR INCLUSION OF SUCH PHRASES AS: *WON RII PE…* (LINE 23), 'THEY SAW THAT …', *WON WA SO…* (24), 'THEY THEREFORE TOLD HIM…', *WON NI …'*(53) THEY SAID THAT…', *O NI … (29, 34)* 'HE SAID THAT…', *WON WA BI I …* (31) 'THEY THEN ASKED HIM THAT….', *EDUN NI …* (53) 'EDUN SAID…' ETC. WHICH ARE MARKERS FOR INDIRECT SPEECH/STATEMENT. SINCE THE STORY IS NARRATED, USING THE THIRD PERSON OR OMNISCIENT NARRATIVE TECHNIQUE, THE EMBEDDING OF SUCH PHRASES AS THE ABOVE IS A PROOF THAT THE NARRATIVE IS GIVEN IN REPORTED SPEECH. THE USE OF EMPHATIC PHRASES, CLAUSES AND SENTENCES THROUGH THEMATIC/FOCUSING TRANSFORMATION AS NOTED EARLIER ONLY SERVES AS A PLOY TO AUTHENTICATE THE VERACITY OF THE STORY.

Still on insertion/embedding, the story of Edun/Aaya is embedded within the Ifá verse (èsè-Ifá) which is regarded as a story on its own. This is so because narrative continuity is one of the characteristics of èsè-Ifá (Olatunji, 1984: 123-124), as communication of (Ifa's) messages is through narratives. Stories are told of the problem of a protagonist and how he resolves or fails to resolve it. In other words, every èsè-Ifá tells a complete story with which the client identifies himself. If therefore, an èsè-Ifá is a story in itself, the inclusion of another story, that of the myth of Edun and Aaya, can be regarded as an insertion of a story within another story as in the Fagunwà novels (Bamgbose, 1974: 29). It should be remarked that the popular Yorùbá derisive phrase Edun arinle (the ground - bound colobus monkey) may have been derived from the Edun/Aaya myth. The phrase is an uncomplimentary expression for a person whose fortunes had turned to misfortune, or who suffered great decline. Other instances of insertion in the text include the use of a popular expression from oriki, the Yorùbá praise poetry. For example, the phrase Edun gbalaja (line 50) 'Edun, the sleek one' used in the text is an extraction from the Panegyric poetry of the twin children (oriki ibeji). The full expression is: Edun gbalaja ori igi (i.e. Edun, the sleek one who takes delight in living/running on trees). The inclusion of the oriki phrase has both stylistic and semantic imports. Apart from being a poetic epithet, the oriki is expressive of the affection and empathy which the Ogboni cult members handling the theft case have for Edun. Whereas, Aaya does not enjoy a similar goodwill, for he is punished while Edun is acquitted.

Another instance of insertion is the inclusion of a poetic expression (Yoruba proverb) *Omode ni i yara bi asa, agba abikun deere bi apo* (54 – 55) 'only small children are usually as fast as the hawks, old people have fat bellies which look like sacks'. The proverb gives an apt response to the question put to Edun as to why he could not run to avoid arrest like Aaya. The proverb is expressive of the fact that Edun is the older of the two. While Aaya is able to run into safety because of his young age and sleekness, age seems to be the bane of Edun. The Yorùbá proverb *bi* a *ba dagba, a yogun i ja' (*we stop going to war at the attainment of an old age) confirms this.

Interrogative sentences are also embedded. One of them is '*Ki n ni yoo fun oloko?'* (33) 'what compensation is he going to pay to the farmer? ' Edun offered no response to this question, but instead, started to pretend as if he was insane. His pretence to be insane indicates that Edun knows the consequence of his action should a verdict of guilt be returned on him. Hence, he has to feign madness in order to save himself from the hangman's noose on health grounds. Other interrogative sentences (questions) include the following: 'taa ni o tanran ara won?' (47) 'who is going to pay ransom for whom?', '*Eese ti e o jo fo fere?'* (48 – 50) 'why did you not jump together swiftly?', '*Edun gbalaja, emi lo waa sare se?'* 'Edun the sleek one, why can't you run?', '*kin lo se ti o o fi fò mogi*' ti oloko fi mu o??' (52-53), 'why didn't you jump on the tree,thus allowing the farmer to arrest you?' These barrage of questions to which Edun provided answers actually reflect the prevailing mood and socio-linguistic environment in which Edun and Aaya are being tried. The question and answer session depicts the environment of a court (session) where questioning and cross examination of suspects occur. In fact, Edun's utterances portray him as insane because the utterances (response) are

irrelevant to the questions put to him. When asked what compensation he is going to pay, for instance, he begins to feign madness, saying:

EDUN YAGBADO HAA

EDUN YAGBADO HAA

EDUN PLUCKED MAIZE FORCEFULLY

Edun plucked maize forcefully

The insertion of Edun's utterances has both stylistic and semantic significance. First, his pretence to be insane saved him from punishment. An insane person can commit any untoward act. And since Edun is observed to have been psychologically derailed, or so it seems, he is therefore set free (on medical grounds), for, any punishment may not have the desired effect on him. Secondly, Edun's insane pretences and eventual pardon tend to debunk, in a way, the usual depiction of the monkey, among the Yoruba, as a stupid animal, *òbo.* Here in the text, the monkey (Edun) is wise rather than being stupid. It is not as if the Yoruba are ignorant of the usual (clever) antics of the monkey. The Yoruba expression: *ki i se p'óbo o gbon, obo gbon, tinu obo lobo n se* 'it is not the fact that the monkey is stupid, the monkey is not stupid, it is only that the monkey is full of (clever) antics' confirms this belief, and this is clearly demonstrated in the text. Thirdly, it is true that the insane utterances may have elicited sympathy and pardon for Edun on account of his psychiatric problems, yet, the comic or humorous effect of the utterances cannot be lost on the reader/listener.

Substitution is another prominent transformation used in the text. A statistical count of the instances of substitution shows that 41 out of 65 lines (63%) exhibit substitution. Its occurrence is, however, higher in the second segment. In the affected sentences or lines, the substituted NPs are replaced with the appropriate pronouns and reflexive pronouns through a syntactic process known as *prominalizatio*n or *reflexivization* as the case may be[7]. A few instances of pronoun substitution occurred in the text. They include: '*o'* for *Aaya' (*line 6), '*e'* for *Aaya (*line 12), '*o' for oloko* (20) 'the farmer', '*a'* for Edun (26), '*won'* 'they' for *Edun ati Aaya* (42), '*e'* for Edun ati Aaya (49) etc. Instances of substitution with reflexive pronouns include: '*oun'* 'himself' for Edun (18, 29, 30), *ara won '*themselves' for *Edun ati Aaya (46)* etc. Even in everyday language usage, pronouns, rather than real names of addresses, are often used. Here in the text as well, there is a restrained use of the real names of the characters (i.edun, Aaya and Oloko) involved in the story. Rather than mention these names every time, the narrator uses pronouns and reflexive pronouns as substitutes, thus saving himself the agony of repeating himself to a point of monotony. The reader/listener also is spared of boredom. It should be remarked again that the use of substitution transformation makes the language used in the 2nd segment close to the language of ordinary discourse (SL). The 1st and 3rd segment which record lesser instances of substitution tend to be more poetic than the 2nd segment where it is most prominent. This is because repetition, wherever it occurs, promotes rhythm, emphasis and aesthetics as evident in the 1st and 3rd segments.

The tempo of the story which has been kept low in the 2nd segment through the use of language very close to the language of prose narrative changes as soon as the story enters the 3rd and final phase (lines 56 – 65). Here, the language of the text changes from casual (prose) to a poetic one, and the transformation largely responsible for this is deletion. Deletion transformation is a syntactic process whereby an element, a phrase or a whole clause is removed (deleted) from the underlying structure of a sentence, thereby leaving the sentences with a different SS. Right from lines 56 to 65, the deletion transformation holds, leading to a progressive deletion of elements, such that the echo of the text thins out as the story gradually moves to its conclusion. The DS and SS of the sentences in lines 55 – 65 can be given thus

Lines	SS	DS
56	ARE B'EDUN NLE	ARE NI O BA EDUN NI ILE
57	Edun o moo sa	Edun ko mo on sa
58	Are ori igi lo ye Edun	Are ori igi ni o ye Edun
59	Aaya wa n fo soke	Aaya wa n fo si oke
60	Edun wa n be	Edun wa n be
61	Aaya fo soke	Aaya wa n fo si oke
62	Edun be	Edun wa n be
63	Aaya fo mogi lorun	Aaya wa fo mo igi ni orun
64	Edun si	Edun wa si
65	Edun lo	Edun wa lo

Lines	SS	DS
56	when Edun had run on the ground	When Edun had to run on the ground
57	Edun could not run very well	Edun could not run very well
58	It is running on tree-top that Edun understands	it is running on tree-top that Edun understands
59	Aaya then began to jump up	Aaya then began to jump up

60	Edun then began to hop	Edun then began to hop
61	Aaya kept bouncing	Aaya then kept bouncing
62	Edun kept hopping	Edun *then* kept hopping
63	Aaya jumped and climbed a tree	Aaya jumped and climbed a tree
64	Edun dashed off	Edun *then* dashed off
65	And escaped	Edun *then* escaped

As can be observed from the above, lines 56 – 58 are a repetition of the abridged version of lines 1-3. It is an abridged version because the thematic marker *lo* (ni o) present in the DS has been deleted. This type of repetition in *Ese Ifa* and indeed in this story is meant to perform recapitulatory functions. However, the deletion in the text of the emphatic marker is part of the strategy to enhance the poetic quality of the opening lines. With the exception of lines 58 and 63, other lines can be paired up to form four parallel sets. That is, each pair of lines 56 and 57 59 and 60, 61 and 62, 64 and 65 constitute a parallel set. The parallel sentences diminish in length with the progressive deletion of the underlined elements in the DS. Deletion as a stylistic device leads to compression, one of the characteristics of poetry (Olabode, 1992). The stylistic implication of deletion for this text, especially in the final segment is threefold. First, monotonous repetition of the deleted items in each of the affected lines would have made the text boring. Second, the SS which has deletion is more poetic and aesthetically appealing than the DS which features repetition. And third, deletion which is gradual in the text results in the gradual shortening of the affected lines. The shorter the lines, the faster the rhythm and tempo of the text. All this, combined, contributes to the poetic quality and ecstasy of the text.

To the transformationlists, any departure from, or violation of the norms of the SL is referred to as 'deviation'. Going by the general principle of TG, and taking into consideration the generative frame of reference, the literary artist's competence does not lie in his ability to reproduce the norms, but also in introducing surprises through unexpected departure (deviation) from the linguistic norms. Deviation has thus become an important factor in artistic creation. It is therefore, in conformity with the principle of artistic creation that a literary work of art deviates from expected patterns of rhythm and aesthetics which people have learnt to expect. Deviation therefore, is one of the stylistic devices employed in this text. Apart from *A dia* fun… *(line 3),* an instance of phonological deviation earlier mentioned, other instances of deviation with the resultant stylistic and semantic effects also abound in the text. For example, the use of the word *iledi* (22), the name by which the ogboni cult house is called is an archaism and an instance of lexical deviation. Similarly, the reference to *Ogboni*, the cult members who dispense justice in the Yoruba traditional society is also an archaism. The use of archaism is not without its significance. It brings into memory the old and forgotten words, just as it increases, numerically, the vocabulary of the language. Here in the text, the use of *Iledi and Ogboni,* two words which are culturally and semantically related, reminds one of the Yoruba traditional judicial system and how influential the *Ogboni* (the traditional judges) were.

The use of dialectal diction, which is another instance of lexical deviation is also noticed in the text. This includes the use of dialectal words and expressions such as: *eese…* (line 50) instead of *kin ni se* or *ki lo de* 'why? Or 'what happened?' Another is *emi ni?* (52) instead of *kin ni?* 'what is it?' Expressions like the above are from the Osun dialect, being spoken in Ikirun, Inisa and Iragbiji areas of the present Osun State of Nigeria[8]. Apart from their lexical tones which contribute to the general rhythm of the text, they are more poetic when compared with the standard language version. Besides, they constitute a virile source of humor and excitement.

Generally speaking, one striking feature of this text is the cohesion which the various linguistic transformations have created through concentration of certain lexical items. Cohesion, as describe by scholars (Jacobson 1960:358; Freeman 1970:20) is a "recurrent linguistic patterning" which shows the way independent choices at the different points of a text form a network of sequential relations and patterning. The result of such a selection and combination is cohesion. Most of the lexical items used are not only in the same grammatical category, but whose semantic description involves the concept of motion. The lexical items form two different sets—the nominal set and the verbal set. The nominal set comprises of such nominals as *Edun* (repeated 29 times), *Aaya (*12 times) and *Oloko* (7 times). The nominals have the same semantic feature (+ Animate) except *Oloko* which has in addition the feature (+ Human). The other two, *Edun* and *Aaya* have (-Human), but are endowed with the human attributes of human speech and actions in the story. Hence, they (Edun and Aaya) can steal, face prosecution, answer question in defence, can become insane (as in the case of Edun, line 33-35) and can be declared guilty and punished (as in the case of Aaya) or freed and acquitted (as in the case of Edun). The semantic import of the lexical and grammatical equivalence occasioned by the parallel syntactic structures and lexical cohesion is that animals (Edun and Aaya) are being equated with human being (Oloko). What this tends to suggest is that human beings may be superficially different from animals, but are basically the same, and can as a result of their actions and inactions be subjected to the same fate of facing legal prosecution, conviction and acquittal[9].

The second lexical set consists of verbal elements which denote motion of different shades and forms. For example, the nominal *are,* meaning a form of motion, is being denoted or expressed in various shades, using the following groups of verbals:

1. Walking –

   rin   'to walk'   (10)

   wa   'to come'   (14)

   DE   'TO ARRIVE'   (15)

   SI   'TO MOVE' OR 'TAKE OFF'   (64)

   LO   'TO GO'   (15, 64).

Each of the verbs listed above expresses a kind of movement. With the exception of *rin* (10) which expressly denotes walking, in others, the type of motion involved is not so expressly specified but the notion of movement is inherent.

2. Running --

sa   'to run' or to escape'   (2, 38)

sare   (sa are) 'to run' or to run a race'   (50)

The verbs here denote actual running.

3. Climbing --   gun igi 'climb a tree'   (17)

gorí ìgba (gun + ori + igba) 'climb the ìgba tree   (6, 8)

Climbing is another form of motion involving the use of hands and feet.

4. Jumping -- fo (fere)   'to jump swiftly' (5, 49, 51, 58, 62)

be   'to jump sharply'   (59, 61)

ta (fere)   'to dash away/off' (7)

The verbs/verb phrases here denote flight movement or motion in the air.

Apart from the verbals denoting motion, we also have in the text a convergence of verb phrases denoting other human conducts and actions. They include the following:

5.   STEALING --   JALE   'TO STEAL   (14)
        JI AGBADO YA 'TO STEAL MAIZE'   (15)
6.   ARREST --   MU EDUN   'TO ARREST THE MONKEY' (19)
7.   CONFESSION --   JEWO   'TO CONFESS'   (28, 29)

There is also a high incidence of interrogative and other types of sentences. For instance, we have interrogative sentences which are suggestive of interrogation of a criminal suspect or an accused in lines 33 – 34, 46-47, 51, and 53; declarative sentences such as: *'ti Edun tan nibè'* (37) and *Edun bo ninu ejo* (44) which are different ways of saying Edun, the Colobus monkey, has no case to answer.

It is observed that most of the verbal elements in the text are action verbs. The literary artist has consciously selected them because of their grammatical and semantic relatedness to give an expressive imagery of the characteristics of the nominals (whether human or non-human) as far as motion/movement is concerned.

Besides, the verbal elements are also expressive of other various actions in the text – stealing, arresting, prosecuting, interrogating e.t.c all which are conscious actions.

At the semantic level, the text has a deep semantic implication. The story is a clear illustration of the Yoruba age-long belief that all a person needs to get a bad case off one's neck is to know somebody who is on the judicial council. Though morally bad, it is still believed that even when it is obvious that the case is a bad one, judgment may still be tilted in one's favor. The Yoruba axiom which lends credence to this is: *bi a ba ni eni ni igbimo, ba a ba rojo ebi, are la a je.*   Therefore, the favorable judgment (acquittal and discharge) which E`dun got in the story/text must have been influenced by his connection (kinship relation) to the Ogboni cult who invariably, is the arbiter of justices. But in case of of Aaya, he has a *non grata status* and thus had to face conviction for the same offence for which Edun was set free.

Conclusion

In this paper, an attempt has been made to see what role linguistics can play in literary discourse analysis and interpretation. Though not without some limitations, we have used the concepts and tools of the transformational generative grammar (TG) in explicating the text under study.

TWO THINGS ARE USUALLY OF PARAMOUNT IMPORTANCE TO ANY LITERARY ARTIST. THESE ARE 'ENTERTAINMENT' AND 'MESSAGE'. THE STORY OF EDUN AND AAYA IS ONE OF THE WAYS THROUGH WHICH ENTERTAINMENT IS ACHIEVED, FOR A STORY IN ITSELF IS SELF-ENTERTAINING. EMPLOYMENT OF LINGUISTIC TRANSFORMATION IS ANOTHER STRATEGY THROUGH WHICH ENTERTAINMENT IS ACHIEVED IN THE TEXT. THE TRANSFORMATIONS RESULT IN STYLISTIC DEVICES WHICH CONTRIBUTED TO THE POETIC QUALITY OF THE TEXT, ESPECIALLY IN THE OPENING (INTRODUCTORY) AND THE CLOSING SEGMENTS. APART FROM THE SECOND SEGMENT, WHICH IS VERY CLOSE TO ORDINARY DISCOURSE IN ITS USE OF LANGUAGE, APPLICATION OF DELETION TRANSFORMATION IN THE OPENING AND CLOSING SEGMENT HELPS IN SHORTENING OR COMPRESSING THE LINES; SINCE THE SHORTER THE LINE THE MORE POETIC IT IS. THE TOTAL EFFECT OF ALL THE LINGUISTIC MANIPULATIONS IS A TEXT NOT ONLY FAST IN RHYTHM AND TEMPO, BUT ALSO RICH IN TASTE AND ELEGANCE. FOR THE 'MESSAGE', THE ARTIST IS ABLE TO RELATE TO US, METAPHORICALLY, THROUGH THE STORY OF EDUN AND AAYA THE MORALLY CONDEMNABLE UNIVERSAL CONCEPT OF 'GOD-FATHERISM', OR, HOW ELSE CAN ONE EXPLAIN THE DISCHARGE AND ACQUITTAL OF EDUN, AND THE CONVICTION OF AAYA, TWO RELATIONS WHO COMMITTED THE SAME OFFENCE BUT GOT DISSIMILAR JUDGMENT?

Notes

See Yai (1976), Owólabí (1992), Bamisile (1992) and Ajayi (1995).

The Ifa literary Corpus is a poetic collection of the wisdom lore of Orunmila, the Yoruba god of wisdom. There are 16 major chapters known as 'odu' each of which has verses (ese) under it. Eji ogbe from which the text under examination is taken is one of the Ifa chapters. For details, see Abimbola, 1976: 200-204; Olatunji 1984: 109-111)

Olateju (1998: 85, 131, 192)

This assumption is not anyway based on linguistic information but on cultural and mythological factors/information. What actually informed this interpretation is the Yoruba belief that monkeys have their young ones born in twins. Secondly, there is also a mythological relationship between twin children *Ibejì* and monkeys (Edun). The relationship between them is often portrayed in the oriki of twin children.

Abimbola, (1976) pp. 43-57; Olatunji (1984) pp. 109-111)

Olabode (1995)

For a detailed discussion on pronominalization and reflexivization as transformational processes, read Bornstein 91977), pp. 102-103, 163-173.

It has been mentioned in the text that Edun is an offspring of the Òsun (a river goddess). That the Ogbóni cult members speak Òsun dialect when cross-examining might be a deliberate ploy of making Edun feel homely; a way of assuring him of their goodwill and favor.

Interaction or co-existence of humans and non-humans is a characteristic of Yoruba folktales widely used in the novels of D. O. Fagunwa. See Bamgbose (1969, 1974).

Relationship between Edun and Osun is beyond the scope of linguistic analysis and this is an aspect of the limitation of the application of linguistics to literary analysis. The mythological information on how Edun is related to Òsun, the river goddess is also beyond the present writer. It is, therefore, a matter needing further investigation. However, members of the Ógboni cult are known to enjoy and accord one another mutual influence and support.

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Appendix

Are lo b'edun n'le

Edun o mo on sa.

A dia fun Edun.

EDUN TI I SE OMO-IYA AAYA

AAYA FO FERE,

OG'ORI IGBA

Edun ta fere,   5

Edun g'ori igi

Nigba ti iwa sè,

Ileele ni Aaya maa rìn   10

OUN PELU EDUN

Omo iya e

Sùgbon ni ojo kan

Edun ati Aaya waa jale,

Won loo ji agbado ya loko   15

Aaya lo ko ri oloko

Lo ba fo fere gun igi igba

Nigba ti Edun o fi wí pe oun o fo

Oloko ti de,

O si mu Edun

Oloko waa di Edun lokun   20

Nigba ti o mu un de iledì

Won ri i pe omo Òsun ni

Won waa so fun oloko pe

Eni ti o mu wa yii   25

Awon o gbodo pa a

NITORI PE OMO OSUN NI

Won ní kí Edun o jewo

Ni Edun ba jewo

O ni loooto ni oun ya agbado   30

SUGBON LOJU OLOKO NI OUN SE YA A

WON WAA BI EDUN PE

KIN NI YOO SAN FUN OLOKO

EDUN WAA BERE SÍ Í SE BÍ I WERE

O NI: 'EDUN Y'AGBADO HAA

EDUN Y'AGBADO HAA   35

NI ÀWON EGBÉ IMULE BA SO WI PE

Ti Edun ta   n n'be

Won ni Aaya ti o ri oloko sa

Ni ki won o fi iya je

Won ni omo-iya kan naa   40

Ni Edun ati Aaya

SUGBON WON O FI AWO JORAA WON

EDUN BO NINU EJO

Oran si kan Aaya

Awon Ogboni waa ni   45

' Ta ni o o tánran araa won?'

Won ni: Iwo Edun

Nigba ti o mo iwa Aaya

Ee se ti e o jo fo fere?

Edun gbalaja   50

Emi lo waa sare se?

Kin lo se ti o o fo mo'gi?

Ti oloko fi waa mu o?

Edún ni: 'Omode ni i yara bi asa

Agba abikun deere bi apo   55

ARE B'EDUN NLE

EDUN O MO ON SA

Are ori igi lo ye Edun

Aaya wa nfo soke,

Edun mbe

Aaya fo soke   60

Edun be

Aaya fo mo'gi l'orun

Edun si,

Edún lo'   65

When Edun had to run on the ground,

He could not run very well

Ifa divination was performed for Edun,

Who is of the same mother as Aaya

Aaya jumped quickly   5

And climbed the locust-bean tree

Edun darted upwards

And climbed a tree

When the earth was young

Aaya used to walk on bare ground   10

Together with Edun

His brother

But one day,

Edun and Aaya committed an act of theft

They plucked maize cobs from a farm   15

Aaya was the first to see the farmer

He jumped up and climbed the locust bean tree

Before Edun could jump on any tree

The farmer had arrived

He captured Edun   20

And tied him up with a rope

When he took him to the cult-house of Ogboni

It was discovered that he was an offspring of Osun

The farmer was therefore told

That the person he had brought before them   25

They must not kill

Because he was an offspring of Osun

Edun was urged to admit his guilt

And he confessed

He said that indeed he plucked maize cobs   30

But that he did so before the farmer's very eyes

They then asked Edun

What compensation he would give to the farmer

Then Edun began to act like an insane person

He said 'Edun plucked maize suddenly and forcefully.   35

   Edun plucked maize suddenly and forcefully'.

Then the Ogboni elders said

That the case of Edun had come to an end

They said that Aaya who ran away when he saw the farmer

Was the one to be punished   40

They said children of the same mother

Were Edun and Aaya.

But their colours were not alike

Edun was acquitted

But trouble remained in store for Aaya   45

The Ogboni then asked,

'Who would pay a ransom for who?

They said "You, Edun

Since you knew the ways of Aaya

Why did you not jump on the tree together with him   50

Edun, the small one,

Why did you run on the ground?

Why didn't you jump up a tree?

Why did you give the farmer the chance of catching you?'

Edun said 'Small children are usually as fast as hawks,   55

Old people have fat bellies which look like sacks'

When Edun had to run on the ground,

He could not run very well

It is running on tree-top that Edun understands.

Aaya began to jump up   60

Edun began to hop,

Aaya kept bouncing,

Edun kept hopping

Aaya jumped up a tree

Edun dashed off

And escaped   65

        (Abimbola 1976: 201 – 204)

TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF INTEGRATED SCIENCE CURRICULUM IN NIGERIA: DOES GENDER MATTER?

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Abstract

The influence of gender in the understanding of scientific concepts has been receiving the attention of many scholars all over the world. In particular, the need to address the under-representation of females in science subjects and to identify appropriate methods of improving female instruction, as well as their learning of science seems to have received greater attention. This paper contributes to knowledge on science curriculum by using factor analytic approach to investigate teachers' perception of integrated science curriculum in Nigeria. Data were collected from 303 (192 males and 111 females) Junior Secondary School Integrated Science Teachers of Integrated Science Curriculum in Nigeria. The results showed that nine and ten principal component factors were extracted from correlation matrices rotated by the varimax criterion for male and female teachers respectively. The resultant nine factors from male teachers' responses accounted for 62.2% of the total variance on the perception profile while ten factors identified for female responses accounted for 69.0% of the total variance on the perception profile. The results indicate that gender disparity exists in the teaching and learning of science in Nigeria.

Introduction

Science is the basis of technology. For effective living in this modern age of science and technology, it is essential that every child is given an opportunity to acquire at least the basic knowledge and process of science. It is probably in recognition of this that led the Federal Government of Nigeria to introduce the 6-3-3-4 system of education in the country (Sec, ll, N.P.E., 1998). One of the features of the policy is the compulsory teaching of science and technology at the Junior Secondary Schools. This is in form of Integrated Science.

The need to emphasis science teaching and learning in schools made UNESCO to organize the first International Conference on the use of integrated approach in science teaching held in Bulgaria in 1968. Thereafter, the result of various curriculum improvement conferences and workshops led Nigerian science educators and teachers to the decision that the then shallow General Science should be a culturally relevant programme, and was named Integrated Science. As a result, the Science Teachers Association of Nigeria (STAN) in 1970 published a curriculum Newsletter No 1, which contained a statement of the Philosophy, Methodology, Content and Evaluation of integrated science.

The concept of integration in school science subject lays emphasis on both concepts and teaching methods. The Newsletter also stipulated that the use of integrating principle in science produced a course, which is relevant to student needs and experiences; stresses the fundamental unity of science: lays adequate foundations for subsequent specialist study, and adds cultural dimension to science education. Furthermore, the National Policy on Education (1998) stipulated that an integrated approach be used in devising and in teaching science for the first nine years of formal education system in the country. According to the policy document, education of students in science within the first nine years should be aimed at "preparation for useful living within the society and for higher education" (section 4, page 23). In an attempt to achieve these objectives, many science educators, government and non- governmental organization and professional bodies have made efforts towards improving the quality of integrated science teaching and learning in Nigeria Junior Secondary Schools (STAN, 1984; Okebukola, 1990; Udoh, 1998 and Ibole, 1999). Thus, it is expected that learning outcomes in integrated science should be very encouraging. However this has not been the case as reported by Balogun (1992), Olagunju (1995) and Olarewaju (1999). The reasons for such low achievement and negative attitude include, among others, shortage of qualified teachers who are associated with high quality instruction (Olarewaju, 1999) and lack of commitment to the profession by the teachers (Okpala and Onocha, 1990 and Olarewaju, 1999). Parents of students even think that the decline in science achievement of students in secondary schools may be traceable to the deficiencies in teacher preparation (Okpala and Onocha, 1995).

There is no doubt that the science teacher is the backbone and chief intermediary of any science programme. The role of teachers in curriculum development and implementation has been well documented in literature

(McCormick, 1992; and Keiny, 1993). According to Sotonwa (1999), it is the extent to which teachers identify themselves with the curriculum that ultimately determines whether the curriculum will benefit children in the school or not. However, Skelton and Hanson (1989) report on the need for teacher education to address gender issues, suggesting that methods and course contents are important factors as these are viewed as being more directly linked to what goes on in classrooms. Sandra Harding (1989, 1991) has also written extensively on gender and science and argues that increasing the voices of women in science will enrich science. Therefore, there is an urgent need for gender issue to be addressed in teacher education and especially in science education.

Aim of the paper

The paper is aimed at factor analyzing the perception of integrated science teachers of Integrated Science Curriculum on the basis of gender. This would give room for appropriate recommendation on how to improve on the contents and methods of implementing the curriculum.

Research questions

1. What are the factors perceived by male and female Integrated Science teachers of integrated Science Curriculum?
2. What are the underlying relationships among the loaded variables with factors as perceived by the male and female Integrated Science teachers of the Integrated Science Curriculum?

Method of Data Collection

Research Design

An ex-post facto research type and survey design was adopted for the study. It involved collection of data on teachers' perception of Integrated Science curriculum using appropriate questionnaires. This design was suitable because there was no manipulation of the independent variables.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

The study sample consisted of 303 (192 males and 111 female) Junior Secondary School Integrated Science teachers in all the secondary schools in the 16 Local Government Areas in Ekiti State, Nigeria.

Instrumentation

A Likert type teacher questionnaire was used for data collection. It consists of two sectors. Section A sought for personal information of the respondents such as, qualification area of specialization, teaching experience, name of school, town and local government area of the school. Section B is made up of 32 statements, which border on philosophy, objectives, contents and concepts, government policy, instructional procedure, and teaching methods for Integrated Science Curriculum. The respondents are to indicate their agreement or disagreement on a 4-point scale of strongly Agree, Agree, Disagree and Strongly Disagree.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

Four experts in science education and three experts in curriculum evaluation criticized the items and offered useful suggestions. The suggestions and criticism were taken into consideration when the final draft of the instrument was being prepared. The questionnaire was field-tested using 50 integrated science teachers from Akure North and South Local Government Areas of Ondo State, which is a state different from the state of study. The responses were used to determine the reliability coefficient of the instrument, which was found to be 0.75 using Cronbach alpha method.

Procedure for Data Collection

The purpose of the questionnaire was narrated to the respondents before they were made to complete it. They were immediately collected in order to ensure that the entire questionnaires were collected back.

Method of Data Analysis

Data collected were subjected to factors analysis by utilizing principal components factors extraction and orthogonal rotation by the varimax criterion. Factor analysis can simultaneous manage over a hundred variables, compensate for random error and invalidity, and disentangle complex inter-relationships into their major and distinct regularities.

Factor analysis can be applied in order to explore a content area, structure a domain, map unknown concepts, classify or reduce data, define relationships, test hypothesis, formulate theories, control variables or make inference.

Result Discussion

Research question 1:

What are the factors perceived by male and female Integrated Science teachers of Integrated Science Curriculum?

Table 1: IDENTIFIED FACTORS' NAMES FROM FEMALE INTEGRATED SCIENCE TEACHERS' PERCEPTION PROFILE

Table 1a: FACTOR 1: Availability of resources for teaching of integrated science

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
13	.432	Teachers always make use of teaching materials/equipment during the teaching of

		integrated science
17	.413	Teachers are involved in the selection of learning materials/equipment for teaching integrated science
18	.800	Schools always provide the learning materials/equipment for teaching integrated science.
19	.475	Students are ready to learn the integrated science contents
20	.733	The learning materials/equipment selected are of good standard
21	.348	Teaching period for the integrated science are not adequate
23	.597	Government usually provides fund for the implementation of the integrated science curriculum
26	.641	The curriculum is adequately structured to equip the students to carefully observe and report the results of their observations

Table 1b: FACTOR 2: Integrated Science Teaching Methodology

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
2	.388	The integrated science curriculum is more meaningful and significant to students and can improve their academic and vocational skills.
5	.498	I understand various concepts, theories, principles and generalizations state in the integrated science curriculum integrated
6	.857	Teachers find it difficult to teach integrated science curriculum contents
8	.514	Students find it difficult to understand the contents of integrated science curriculum
12	.680	Teachers are not well prepared and motivated to teach integrated science
16	.562	I don't understand the method I could use to teach integrated science most of the time.

Table 1c: FACTOR 3: Development of Basic Skill in Science

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
28	.380	The curriculum is adequate to equip the students on designing experiments including controls where necessary
29	.778	With the contents of integrated science curriculum, students can be properly trained in explaining Phenomena where appropriate using models.
30	.731	The curriculum can build solid foundation for sound knowledge and techniques for further enquiry

Table 1d: FACTOR 4: Conceptualization of integrated science curriculum

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
3	.561	The Nigeria philosophy and values for science and technology are well reflected in integrated science curriculum
5	.447	I understand various concepts, theories, principles and generalizations state in the integrated science curriculum
11	.443	Teachers have the theoretical and practical knowledge and ability to teach the integrated science curriculum content.
26	.825	The curriculum is adequately structured to equip the students to carefully observe and report the results of their observations

Table 1e: FACTOR 5: Philosophy with Meaningful Objectives

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument

1	.549	The objectives of integrated science curriculum are well stated
7	.611	The contents of integrated science curriculum are relevant to the students and well conceptualized by the developers.
11	.443	Teachers have the theoretical and practical knowledge and ability to teach the integrated science curriculum content.

Table 1f: FACTOR 6: Providing realistic science experiences

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
2	.519	The integrated science curriculum is more meaningful and significant to students and can improve their academic and vocational skills.
27	.828	The curriculum can build the students to organize scientific information and make predictions
28	.622	The curriculum is adequate to equip the students on designing experiments including controls where necessary.

Table 1g: FACTOR 7: Teachers cooperation and parents involvement in curriculum implementation

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
4	.592	Teachers of integrated science are always involved in the curriculum planning process
10	.682	Teachers always share experience, materials ideas etc. among themselves in the teaching of integrated science.
24	.711	Parents are not involved in curriculum implementation

25	.615	Teachers always make their observations on integrated science known to appropriate authority(ies)

Table 1h: FACTOR 8: Integrated science Teachers' attitude to correction and change

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
9	.376	Teachers in related subject areas work as a team to teach the integrated science (either in part or whole) in schools
14	.821	Teachers are interested in attending workshops/seminars to be informed about the latest development in the teaching/learning of integrated science
15	.481	Teachers are ready to change or improve when the need arises.
17	.501	Teachers are involved in the selection of learning materials/equipment for integrated science.

Table 1i: FACTOR 9: Effect of Government policy

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
10	.375	Teachers always share experience, materials ideas etc. among themselves in the teaching of integrated science.
11	.364	Teachers have the theoretical and practical knowledge and ability to teach the integrated science curriculum contents
22	.805	Government policy changes often affect integrated science curriculum implementation
32	.385	There are adequate teachers for teaching Integrated science

Table 1j: FACTOR 10: Students' readiness to learn

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
16	.399	I don't understand the method I could use to teach integrated science most of the time.
19	.580	Students are ready to learn the integrated science contents

Table 2: IDENTIFIED FACTORS' NAMES FROM MALE INTEGRATED SCIENCE TEACHERS' PERCEPTION PROFILE

Table 2a: FACTOR 1: Philosophy with Meaningful Objectives

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
1	.606	The objectives of integrated science curriculum are well stated
2	.506	The integrated science curriculum is more meaningful and significant to students and can improve their academic and vocational skills.
3	.758	The Nigeria philosophy and values for science and technology are well reflected in integrated science curriculum
5	.525	I understand various concepts, theories, principles and generalizations stated in the integrated science curriculum
7	.734	The contents of integrated science curriculum are relevant to the students and well conceptualized by the developers.
11	.389	Teachers have the theoretical and practical knowledge and ability to teach the integrated science curriculum content.

20	.519	The learning materials/equipment selected are of good standard.

Table 2b: FACTOR 2: Cooperative attitude of integrated science teachers

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
4	.664	Teachers of integrated science are always involved in the curriculum planning process
9	.754	Teachers in related subject areas work as a team to teach the integrated science (either in part or whole) in schools
10	.619	Teachers always share experience, materials ideas etc. among themselves in the teaching of integrated science.
25	.380	Teachers always make their observations on integrated science known to appropriate authority (ies)
26	.562	The curriculum is adequately structured to equip the students to carefully observe and report the results of their observations

Table 2c: FACTOR 3: Teachers' motivation

Variable	Loading	Statement of items on the instrument
6	.745	Teachers find it difficult to teach integrated science curriculum contents
12	.730	Teachers are not well prepared and motivated to teach integrated science
13	.625	Teachers always make use of teaching materials/equipment during the teaching of integrated science
18	.432	Schools always provide the learning materials/equipment for teaching integrated science.

23	.353	Government usually provides fund for the implementation of the integrated science curriculum
24	.539	Parents are not involved in curriculum implementation

Table 2d: FACTOR 4: Integrated science Teachers' attitude to correction and change

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
Availability of resources for teaching of integrated science		
14	.710	Teachers are interested in attending workshops/seminar to be informed about the latest development in the teaching/learning of integrated science
15	.571	Teachers are ready to change or improve when the need arises.
17	.495	Teachers are involved in the selection of learning materials/equipment for teaching integrated science

Table 2e: FACTOR 5: Development of basic skills in science

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
26	.373	The curriculum is adequately structured to equip the students to carefully observe and report the results of their observations
27	.369	The curriculum can build the students to organize scientific information and make predictions
28	.428	The curriculum is adequate to equip the students on designing experiments including controls where necessary
29	.726	With the contents of integrated science curriculum, students can be properly trained in

		explaining Phenomena where appropriate using models.
30	.773	The curriculum can build solid foundation for sound knowledge and techniques for further enquiry

Table 2f: FACTOR 6: Integrated Science Teaching Methodology

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
16	.685	I don't understand the method I could use to teach integrated science most of the time.
18	.344	Schools always provide the learning materials/equipment for teaching integrated science.

Table 2g: FACTOR 7: Allotted time and students' understanding

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
8	.745	Students find it difficult to understand the contents of integrated science curriculum
21	.758	Teaching period for the integrated science are not adequate

Table 2h: FACTOR 8: Student readiness to learn

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
19	.742	Students are ready to learn the integrated science contents
22	.591	Government policy changes often affect integrated science curriculum implementation

Table 2i: FACTOR 9: Providing realistic science experiences

Variable Loading		Statement of items on the instrument
27	.717	The curriculum can build the students to organize scientific information and make predictions
31	.716	The curriculum can build the student to draw logical conclusions

Table 3: Total Variance Explained for Male Teachers

Component	Initial Eigen values			Rotation Sum of Square Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative
1	5.423	16.947	16.947	2.998	9.368	9.368
2	3.943	12.32	29.270	2.978	9.309	18.675
3	2.233	6.979	36.249	2.949	9.208	27.884
4	1.948	6.089	42.338	2.218	6.930	34.814
5	1.582	4.943	47.281	2.145	6.704	41.517
6	1.335	4.173	51.454	2.059	6.435	47.952
7	1.255	3.921	55.374	1.600	5.500	52.952
8	1.154	3.607	58.982	1.509	4.717	57.669
9	1.041	3.253	62.234	1.461	4.565	62.234
10	.997	3.115	65.349			
11	.939	2.943	68.283			
12	.859	2.934	68.283			
13	.803	2.511	73.480			

14	.747	2.336	75.816			
15	.696	2.175	77.991			
16	.649	2.024	80.015			
17	.621	1.940	81.955			
18	.597	1.865	83.820			
19	.575	1.797	85.617			
20	.540	1.688	87.305			
21	.501	1.566	88.871			
22	.474	1.481	90.352			
23	.417	1.303	91.654			
24	.403	1.258	92.913			
25	.359	1.123	94.036			
26	.353	1.105	95.185			
27	.334	1.044	96.185			
28	.310	.970	97.155			
29	.267	.833	97.989			
30	.259	.810	98.799			
31	.228	.712	99.511			
32	.156	.489	100.00			

Table 4: Total Variance explained for female Teachers

	Initial Eigen values		Rotation Sum of Square Loadings		

Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative
1	6.511	20.347	20.347	3.083	9.635	9.635
2	3.318	10.368	30.715	2.772	8.662	18.297
3	2.247	7.021	37.736	2.336	7.300	25.598
4	2.155	6.735	44.472	2.299	7.189	32.783
5	1.610	5.033	49.504	2.243	7.010	39.793
6	1.443	4.510	54.015	2.243	7.009	46.802
7	1.361	4.252	58.267	2.172	6.786	53.589
8	1.219	3.808	52.075	1.874	5.856	59.445
9	1.188	3.711	65.787	1.726	5.395	64.840
10	1.024	3.201	68.988	1.327	4.147	68.988
11	.924	2.887	71.874			
12	.839	2.623	74.497			
13	.768	2.391	79.436			
14	.688	2.151	81.587			
15	.654	2.044	83.632			
16	.604	1.887	85.519			
17	.543	1.697	87.216			
18	.509	1.590	88.806			
19	.509	1.590	88.806			
20	.471	1.472	90.278			

21	.428	1.339	91.616			
22	.392	1.225	92.841			
23	.344	1.074	93.915			
24	.319	.996	94.911			
25	.273	.854	95.765			
26	.267	.835	96.600			
27	.256	.835	97.400			
28	.211	.658	98.663			
29	.193	.604	98.663			
30	.164	.512	99.174			
31	.150	.469	99.644			
32	.114	.356	100.00			

In order to answer research question 1, reference was made to tables 3 and 4.

The responses of the teachers were separated according to gender and their perceptions based on gender were factor analyzed. Tables 3 and 4 showed that nine and ten principal component factors were extracted from the correlation matrices, and rotated by the varimax criterion for male and female integrated science teachers respectively. The resultant 9 factors from male teachers' responses accounted for 62.23% of the total variance on the perception profile while 10 factors from female teachers' responses accounted for 68.99% of the total variance in the perception profile.

Research question 2:

What are the underlying relationships among the loaded variable with factors as perceived by the male and female Integrated Science teachers of Integrated Science Curriculum?

In order to answer the question, reference was made to tables 5, 6 and 7

Tables 5 and 6 showed the rotated factors matrices of the male and female integrated science teachers.

The tables also indicated the factors interpretable and the underlying relationship that exist among the loaded items on factors. Apart from the fact that the number of variables that loaded on each factor are differing from

one another, a new construct with different name emerged completely from both the male and female perception profiles. Out of 9 factors identified from the male data only 6 factors were similar to that extracted from the female data as it can be seen in table 7. It was also observed that there were variability and inconsistencies in pattern of loading in the female data as against the male data, despite the fact that six factors were similar.

Table5: Rotated Component Matrix for Male

Component

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
VAR1	.606								
VAR2	.509								
VAR3	.758								
VAR4		.664							
VAR5	.525								
VAR6			.745						
VAR7	.734								
VAR8							.745		
VAR9		.754							
VAR10		.619							
VAR11	.389								
VAR12			.730						
VAR13			.625						
VAR14				.710					
VAR15				.646					
VAR16						.685			
VAR17				.588					

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
VAR18			.432			-.344			
VAR19								.742	
VAR20	.519								
VAR21							.758		
VAR22								.591	
VAR23			.353						
VAR24			.539						
VAR25		.380							
VAR26		.562			.373				
VAR27					.369				.377
VAR28					.428				
VAR29					.726				
VAR30					.773				
VAR31									.716
VAR32									
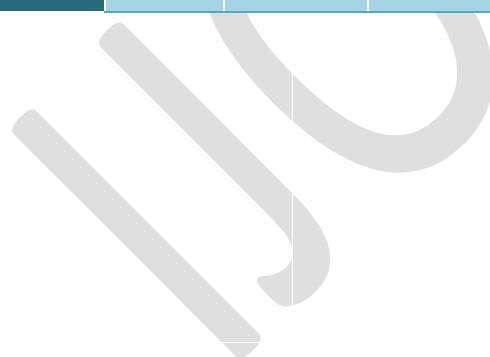
Table 6: Rotated Component Matrix for Female

Component

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
VAR1					.549					
VAR2		.388				.519				
VAR3				.561						
VAR4							.592			
VAR5		.498		.447						
VAR6		.857								
VAR7					.611					
VAR8		.514								
VAR9								.376		
VAR10							.682		.375	
VAR11				.443	.366				-.364	
VAR12		.680								
VAR13	.432									
VAR14								.821		
VAR15								.481		
VAR16		.562								.399
VAR17	.413							.501		
VAR18	.800									
VAR19	.475									.580
VAR20	.733									

VAR21	.348									
VAR22									.805	
VAR23	.597			.825						
VAR24						.711				
VAR25						.615				
VAR26	.641			.825						
VAR27						.828				
VAR28			.380			.622				
VAR29			.778							
VAR30			.731							
VAR31										
VAR32									-.385	
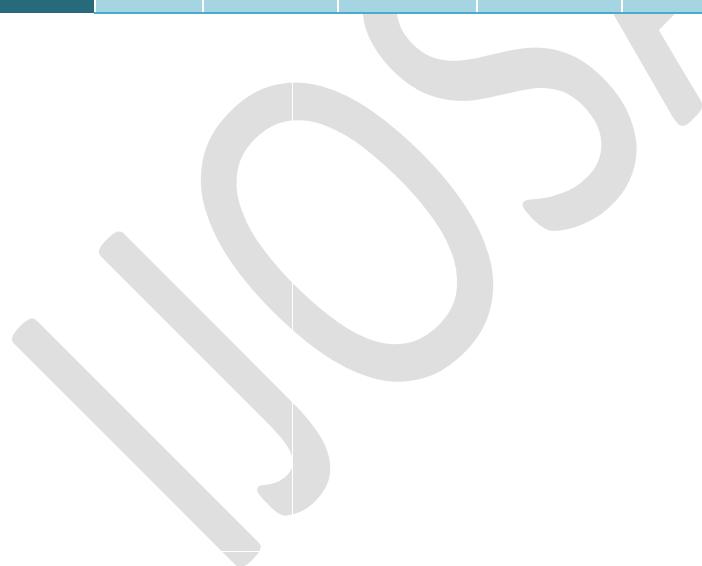
FEMALE			MALE		
Factor	Name	%Variance	Factor	Name	%Variance
1	Availability of resources for teaching of integrated science	9.6	1	Philosophy with meaningful objectives	9.4
2	Integrated science teaching methodology	8.7	2	Cooperative attitude of integrated science teachers	9.3
3	Development of basic skills in science	7.3	3	Teachers motivation	7.3
4	Conceptualization of integrated science curriculum	7.2	4	Integrated science teachers attitude to correction and change	6.9
5	Philosophy with meaningful objectives	7.0	5	Development of basic skills in science	6.7
6	Providing realistic science experiences	7.0	6	Integrated science teaching methodology	6.4
7	Teachers cooperation and parents in curriculum implementation involvement	6.8	7	Allotted time and students understanding	5.0
8	Teachers' attitude to correction and change	5.9	8	Students' readiness to learn	4.7
9	Effect of government policy	5.4	9	Providing realistic science experiences	4.6
10	Students' readiness to learn	4.1			

Table 7: COMPARISON OF TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED FOR FEAMEL AND MALE TEACHERS

Table 7 shows the comparison of the total variance explained for male and female teachers' perception profile. There are nine and ten factors in male and female teacher's perception profile respectively.

Factors 1," philosophy with meaningful objectives and relevant contents" is the most important factor in the male profile and it accounted for 9.4% of the total variance, whereas the importance of the factor is relegated to the 5th position in the female data. In addition, it accounted for 7.0% of the total variance. Moreover, the three principal variables that define the construct in the female profile were variables 1, 7 and 11 (see table 6). These variables also surface among four others to define the same construct in the male profile. However, the correlation of these variables, var1 (0.549), var.7 (0.611) and var. 11 (0.366) for females has less correlation with the construct while variables, var.1 (606). Var.7 (0.734) and var. 11 (0.389) have higher correlation with the construct in the case of the male. These factors accounted for 36.72%, 53.87%, 15.13% variances for male variables1, 7 & 11 and 30.14%, 37.33% and 13.39% variances in variables 1, 7 and 11 in female variables respectively. The other common factors that appeared in both male and female profiles, but with different percentage total variance and correlations are," Integrated science teachers' attitude to correction and change", which is factor 4 in male but factor 8 in female. "Development of basic skills in science ", which factors 5 in male but factor 3 in female. "Integrated science teaching methodology", which is factor 6 in male but factor 2 in female. "Students' readiness to learn", which is factor 8 in male but factor 10 in female and "Providing realistic science experience", which is factor 9 in male but factor 6 in female. Even though these factors are similar there are some emerging differences as earlier pointed out. In male profile, it could be observed that var.18 (school always provide learning material/equipment for teaching integrated science) has inverse relationship (-0.344) with factor 6 that is "integrated science teaching methodology", factor. This could be explained to mean that male teachers perceived provision of learning materials/equipment for teaching integrated science as a very serious handicap for the choice of method for teaching integrated science. This finding is in agreement with Nwosu (1993, 2003) and Bassey (2002).

In male factors, factor 7 (Allotted time and students' understanding) explained about 5.0% of the total variance but this factor does not appear in the female profile. The factor explained 57. 46% of the total variance in var. 21, which is "Teaching period for the integrated science are not adequate" and 32.15% of the total variance in var. 8, which are the only two variables that loaded on this factor. Interestingly, there is a moderately high correlation (0.567) between the factor and var. 8. This finding revealed that effective teaching and learning could only take place when there is adequate time allotted to such activity. This finding is in line with that of Bankefa (1983), who reported that the periods for teaching integrated science were not adequate. In the same vein, factors 1, 4 and 5 emerged in female profile but did not come up in male profile as it could be seen in table 7.

Factor 1, "Availability of resources for teaching Integrated Science " takes precedence over all other factors in the case of female profile and accounted for 9.6% of the total variance explained but do not appear in male profile. This implies that female teacher perceived strongly that resources for teaching integrated science must be available before any other thing could be given consideration for effective implementation of integrated science curriculum. This finding is in agreement with the finding of

Balogun (1983) who said that the major constraint to effective teaching of integrated science subject has been material resources and the quantity and quality of human resources.

Factor 4 explained 7.2% of the total variance in the data for female. The factor has a correlation (r) (0.443 ≤ r ≤ 0.825) with variables 3,5,11 and 26. The factor also explained 68.06% of the variance in variable 26 and 31.47% of the variance in variable 3. These findings reveal that female teachers placed more premiums on the conceptualization of integrated science curriculum and this corroborates the finding of Asun (1983) who said that Integrated Science Curriculum is well conceptualized. Factor 9, "Effect of government policy" also featured in female profile with 5.4% variance but did not appear in the male profile. Variable 22 (Government policy changes often affect integrated science curriculum implementation) has a high correlation (0.805) with factor 9, while variable 32 (There are adequate teachers in my integrated science area) has inverse correlation (-0.385) with the same factor 9. Variable 11,"Teachers have the theoretical and practical knowledge and ability to teach integrated science curriculum" also correlates inversely(-0.364) with factor 9, which implies that government policy does not support adequate training and retraining of teachers of integrated teachers, according to the perception of female teachers.

The conclusion one could draw from this findings is that the female teachers perceived that government policy did not favour provision of adequate and retraining of the teachers of integrated science. This result corroborates Nwosu (2000) who reported that government has a big say on the operations of the schools and on how the schools are being run. An adage says that he who plays the piper dictates the tune.

One other interesting feature of the result is that, some variables combined with another to define some construct in male profile and the same variable combined with different variable to define a new construct in the female profile. From table 7, factor 2, which explained 9.3% of the total variance in male profile, is an integral part of factor 7 (Teachers' cooperation and parents involvement in curriculum implementation), which explained 6.8% of the total variance in the female profile.

The study revealed that male and female teachers of integrated science perceived the curriculum differently. This is in agreement with the finding of Tucker and McCollum (1997) who reported that basic characteristics of individual such as innate abilities, age sex etc and external influence such as education, experience and cultural effect, represent the sources and dynamics, which give rise to common, specific and errors of measurement factors.

Conclusion and recommendations

It could be observed that six out of all the factors perceived by male and female integrated science teachers of integrated science curriculum are similar, while some factors appeared only on the male

profile; others came up in the female profile. Among the factors, which were identified by both male and female teachers, are: philosophy with meaningful objectives and relevant contents, integrated science teachers' attitude to correction and change, integrated science teaching methodology and development of basic skills in science. The integrated science curriculum was brought to light in order to give an opportunity to every child to acquire at least, the basic knowledge and processes of science. Therefore, the teachers, the curriculum developers and the government are expected to play their roles in order to see that students understand the way of the scientist through engagement in activities that are consistent with these factors.

For the fact that nine and ten factors were identified from male and female perception profiles respectively is a pointer to the fact that gender disparity is still in existence in the teaching and learning of science in Nigeria. Therefore, the differences in the perception of both female and male teachers should be addressed by government policy and those changes in the policy that had not favoured effective implementation of integrated science curriculum should be reviewed.

The following practical recommendations are provided:

1. There is no gainsaying the fact that integrated science curriculum is not properly implemented by the teachers of the subject. In the light of this, effort should be geared towards improving on the training of teachers in our teacher training colleges and universities. The implication of this is that the curriculum of these institutions would have to be modified to include the methods of instruction recommended in the integrated science curriculum and how to carry out simple demonstrations by making use of appropriate materials and equipment.
2. The Professional Associations like Science Teachers Association of Nigeria (STAN) and the Ministries of Education have an important role to play in the organization of workshops and seminars for teachers in the field so as to update their knowledge particularly in the area of methodology and also in the use of relevant materials and equipment.
3. Parents, teachers and others stakeholders should be involved whenever integrated science curriculum is to be reviewed. This could be done by organizing public forum where all the stakeholders would be able to air their views on the on the curriculum. These views could then be collated and used to modify the contents of the curriculum.
4. All available science textbooks would need to be reviewed in line with the contents of the modified curriculum. Indigenous authorship should be encouraged and the use of local examples is likely to facilitate easy implementation and understanding of the concepts.
5. The teachers would need to be trained in the art of improvising some essential materials. Many schools in Nigeria are not adequately funded; this culminated into non-availability of materials and equipment needed to carry out demonstrations. If teachers could be trained on how to explore resources in their environment, this problem would be solved to some extent.

Suggested Training and Retraining Model

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                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │  Teacher Training Institutions  │
                    │    (Curriculum Innovation)      │
                    └─────────────────────────┘

┌───────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────────┐
│ New ideas in      │──▶│ Teachers in the      │◀──│ Teachers in      │
│ Integrated Science│   │ classroom            │   │ training         │
└───────────────────┘   └──────────────────────┘   └──────────────────┘

                    ┌─────────────────────────┐
                    │  Workshop/seminars       │
                    │  ──────────────          │
                    │  1. Methodology          │
                    │  2. Improvisation of     │
                    │     materials/equipment  │
                    └─────────────────────────┘
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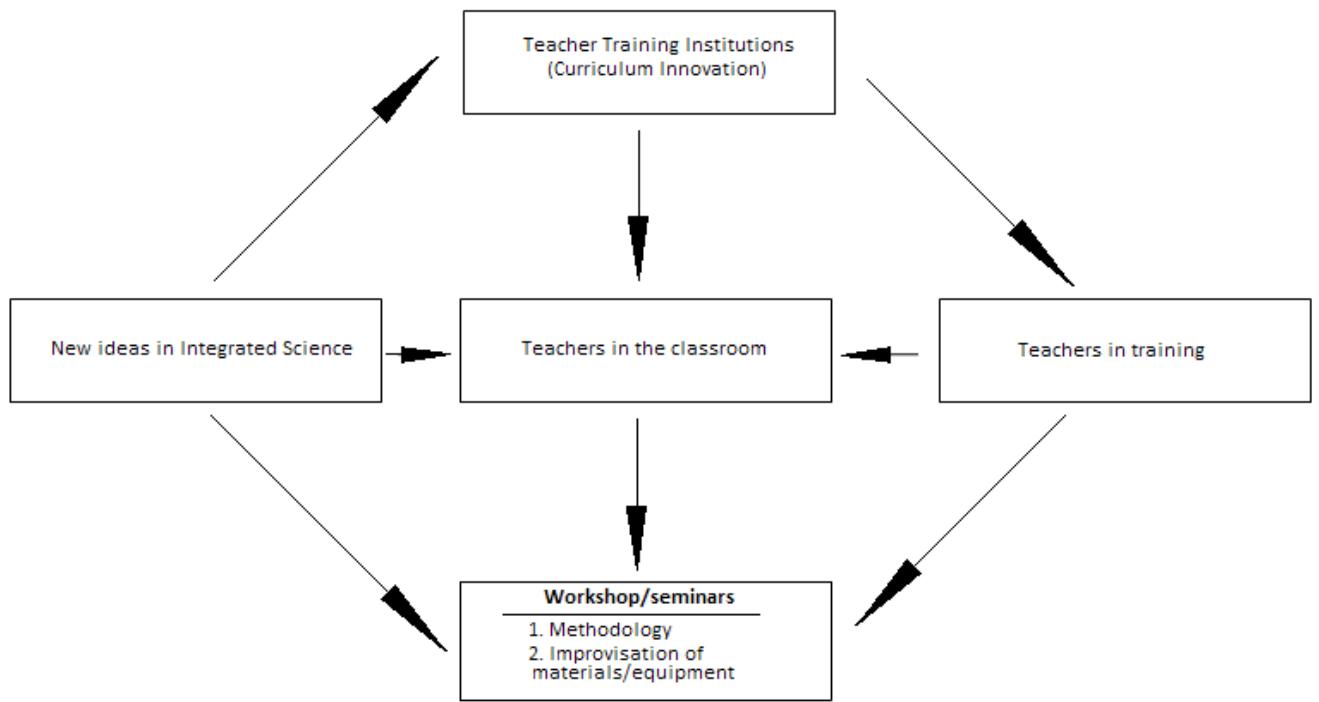
The above model would be useful in changing the professional status of male and female Integrated Science teachers. The new ideas in the integrated science curriculum would have to be incorporated into the curriculum of the teacher training institutions whose duties include graduation of these crops of teachers. Integrated science teachers already in the field would need to update their knowledge through workshops and seminars, which are to be organised by professional associations like the Science Teachers' Association of Nigeria (STAN) and the Ministries of Education.

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Rethinking Nigerian Foreign Policy, and Security in Africa

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Abstract

Nigeria's foreign policy direction has hardly been debated since it became an independent state in 1960. Although there is abundant literature on Nigerian foreign policy, it has not spurned a discourse as to what should be the country's foreign policy goals in the twenty-first century. The central question of this study is to address whether Africa should remain the primary focus of Nigerian foreign policy? The nature of security threats in Africa, and the international system in post September 11, 2001 era, should lead Nigeria to reevaluate its policy goals towards Africa, and to embrace diversification of its foreign policy. A more dynamic and purposeful reevaluation of foreign policy holds the promise of turning the image of Nigeria into a more respected player in international affairs.

Introduction and Rationale

  Almost five decades after Nigeria's independence, Africa remains the focus of its foreign and security policy. Decolonization in Africa attracted Nigeria's attention and devotion to the idea of African solidarity in the 1960s and 1970s. Scholars of Nigerian foreign policy have continued to overlook how Nigeria, as a country, can enhance its foreign policy and security potential in relation to other African states. Those who have examined Nigerian foreign policy did so from the perspective of the decision-making process (Ukeje 1995; Inamete 2001), clearly ignoring the imperatives of foreign policy, which is the implementation of objectives. These imperatives are the fundamental notion of a state justification for pursuing a particular policy, which must be followed by actions. Foreign policy explains the basis of a country's interactions with the international community. It includes the decisions and actions that countries apply to their relations with each other on the international stage. As Hugh Gibson remarks, "a foreign policy is a well-rounded, comprehensive plan, based on knowledge and experience, for conducting the business of the government with the rest of the world." He contends that the purpose of it is the "protection and promotion of the interests of a nation" (1944:9).

Indeed, foreign policy is the foremost instrument a country uses to guide its activities and development in the sphere of the continuously chaotic international system. It embraces the goals that "a nation's officials seek to attain abroad, the values that give rise to those objectives, and the means or instruments used to pursuing them" (Wittkopf, Kegley and Scott 2003:14). In Gibson's words, " If we are to have a sound foreign policy it must be realistic"(Gibson 1944:1), and "the one we should seek to achieve for our own country—is one that concentrates on fundamentals and plans far enough ahead to foresee the need for change and prepare to bring it about by peaceful means"(ibid.:12). Nigerian policy actions have been grounded on a fundamental principle of seeing African states as one nation bonded by geography, race and the disparate experience of colonization. Therefore, I imply that the development of Nigerian foreign policy is peculiar to the socio-political formations that threatened and eventually destroyed the colonial system—nationalism.

In this instance, due to colonial legacy, nationalism in Africa has led Nigeria and other African states to think of themselves as part of a nation—Africa. As Thiam states, "The colonial status of various peoples in Black Africa has led them to look for a common platform in the fight for independence. The doctrine of pan-Africanism meets this requirement. In it the 'African Motherland' is exalted" (1965: 15). Hence, the identity of being African is pivotal to the way Nigeria conducts its foreign policy. As a result of this, " The passage from difference to [one]identity as marked by the rite of citizenship is concerned with the elimination of that which is alien, foreign, and perceived as a threat to a secure state"(Campbell 1992: 42). Campbell argues that foreign policy is used to foster solidarity within a nation, and to create a sense of identity in the face of "enemies." One thing that is clear is the unification of Africans' intensity in their quest for sovereignty. This intensified identity was induced by nationalistic sentiments that eventually brought an end to colonialism and its structures.

To address the issue of Nigerian foreign policy in the twenty-first century, answers must be provided to the following questions: (1) should Africa remains the central focus of Nigeria's foreign policy? (2) What benefit has Nigeria gained so far in keeping its foreign policy objectives and goals primarily within Africa? The measurement of gain should dictate Nigerian foreign policy in Africa. Thus, answers to these questions will help inform what path Nigeria should take.

Evolving challenges

This study presents an objective view of what Nigerian foreign policy goals should be in Africa, and to stimulate discussion as to what it should be in a world that is undergoing transformation (depending on how you view it) since the events of September 11, 2001. In the year 2007, Nigeria held its presidential election, which was the first time in the country's history that a civilian government handed-over power to another civilian government. President Umaru Yar'adua's administration is presented with an opportunity to lead Nigeria in a new horizon. Thus, the country has an opportunity to take stock of its international affairs and to develop a new vision for the future. This article will suggest to Yar'adua's administration that there must be renewed interests in the formulation of what Nigerian foreign policy's goal should be. The recommendation of this article should serve as a guide for Nigerian foreign policy makers: the President, Nigerian National Assembly, and the Bureaucrats in charge of Nigerian foreign policy. Just like the Cold War era, the events of September 11, 2001, have transformed the structure of the interstate system.

These events have led many countries to reevaluate their foreign policy and security for the purpose of adjusting to the new or emerging global realities. Obviously, the foreign policy of a country is determined by the behavior of the international environment. In this case, the new world order marked by uncertainties brought by international terrorism, nuclear threats and regional economic imbalances may be compared with the international order witnessed at the beginning of the Cold War. This work concludes that Nigerian foreign policy should take a new direction, or be amended in order to reflect the complexities of the post 9/11-world environment. In this regard, Nigerian foreign policy must reevaluate its decades' long pro- African policy if it must survive the chaos of the new international structure. Thus, in order to analyze how Nigeria should restructure its foreign policy behavior in Africa, it is imperative to use IR theory as a framework.

The theoretical mode that will be used is grounded in the rationalist approach to foreign policy. Political realism, the traditional and most dominant theory of international relations, sees the international system as a struggle for power among states. A state needs power to be able to maintain its existence within the system. With power, a state can influence or coerce other states to do its will. This theoretical tradition is not new in the explanation of African politics because "Many of the scholars who have been involved in the analysis of postcolonial African foreign policy have been intrigued by the nature of this power shift" (Adogamhe 2003: 81). Adogamhe shows that many Nigerian scholars such as "Thompson (1967); Akinsanya (1976); Akinyemi (1978& 1982); Ojo (1985); and Gambari (1989)" have analyzed

African foreign policy using the power politics perspectives. While they may have used realist theory to investigate the problems with Africa in postcolonial period, it is noteworthy to mention that their approach was different. Ojo's realist theoretical approach for instance, focused on the "competition for leadership within African regions and the continent as a whole" (Adogamhe 2003: 81), thus neglecting other levels of analysis.

Additionally, the concept of nationalism, which binds nations and groups under one nation, will be used to systematically examine Nigerian foreign policy behavior. These will help to illustrate the emotions of Nigerian leaders and the way they saw themselves as in-group (Africans) compared to the colonial people. Accordingly, Cottam and Cottam note, "Perhaps understanding the emotions associated with different types of "other," with different images of others, would help further the understanding of the strategies used in different conflicts" (2001:100). Perhaps, the process of evaluating the formation of nationalism in the continent will explain its impact on Nigerian foreign policy.

The theory of realism, which will be more useful towards the end of this paper; will explore the power perspective of it—realpolitik— on states' external behavior. In the study of political realism, there is a significant difference between leadership (commonly called individual level) of analysis, and state levels of analysis, which is the approach of this paper towards Nigeria's foreign policy. In light of the above observations, Laura Neack emphasizes the need for "those of us concerned with theoretical development in foreign policy[to] do more to stipulate the foreign policy problem,puzzle or behavior we seek to explain and how proposed variables contribute to it"(Neack,Hey, and Haney 1995,quoted in Adogamhe,85). Neack's warning appears to remind one of the difficulties of using a theory to explain social and political events.

To analyze Nigerian foreign policy, one has to come up with an ideal method of studying foreign policy. This method will guide the path of this paper's analysis, as it will provide illustration and recounts the reactions of Nigerian government to the task of trying to establish and understanding foreign policy. Foreign policy analysis must satisfy the empirical foundation of research, and it goals should be clearly stated. Explanations of a country's behavior must be done in a scientific manner (Snyder, Bruck and Sapin 1963; Rosenau 1966). Based on the works cited above, there has been a considerable increment in the study of foreign policy using empirical inquiry to explain countries international behavior.

This paper will use the chronological approach of studying foreign policy to undertake this assignment, which is the most popular approach because it gives a better understanding of "what has gone before" (Goldstein 1984: 7-8). The analytic model, which is another method of studying foreign policy is also employed, in order to provide an answer to "the question 'why'" (Ibid.: 4) the persistence in Nigerian foreign policy towards Africa? As Michael Brecher aptly sums it, "It is only through an integrated framework of a foreign policy system that… [it is] possible to amass sufficient knowledge about state behavior in the past to permit tentative predictions of probable response to similar challenges in the future" (1972:15). This integrated approach to foreign policy is adopted to explain the consistent pattern of Nigerian foreign policy behavior towards Africa.

In their analysis of possibilist theory, Sprout and Sprout investigate the relationship between the environment and the determination of man. They find out that environmentalists have tremendous concern for the physical environment and how humans relate to it. Environmentalists believe "Nature" has always been the guiding principle of humans as it sends signals of warnings to heed or otherwise. Therefore, the behavior of the environment gives humans "choices" to make decisions based on the situations. Based on this, the perennial question would be how would humans act or react in situation that is unexpected? Sprout and Sprout look to the probability of behavior that could happen if humans have the knowledge of the environment in trying to provide answer for the question raised above. They observe that "Probability behavioral models have three assumptions: motivation, environmental knowledge and the best way of using the knowledge to obtain alternatives and taking decisions." All these assumptions are features of human behavior in making decisions. Cleverly, they associated these models to American style of decision-making, which they called "common sense probabilism." The American style assumes that humans already have the knowledge of their environment and they are able to make rational decisions to satisfy their ends whatever they might be. This, they do by calculating the costs and benefits of their actions within the environment (1969: 43-75).

In this regard, Nigeria should not hesitate to change its own foreign policy and security in Africa. The leadership needs to calculate the costs and benefits of Nigerian foreign policy as it relates to Africa, and the security it needs for survival in the continent and the increasingly unsecured global order. The impact of events of September 11, 2001, will no doubt have effects on how countries conduct their foreign policies. The perspective, therefore, is that Nigerian leadership should rethink the way Nigeria conducts itself in Africa.

Unsurprisingly, most of Nigeria revenues come from the sale of oil, and this "has created power potential [for Nigeria] but not necessarily actual power or influence" (Shaw 1984: 394), and this great power potential is an assumption held by its leaders (Wayas 1979). Ironically, over the years, this assumption has not translated into reality. In analyzing the position of Nigeria in the world system, Shaw and Faseheun (1980:551-573) find that Nigerians believed in the greatness of their country and its influence in the African community. Nigeria's overwhelming involvement in the formations of intergovernmental institutions in Africa is substantive foundations for legitimizing Nigeria's role as a major power in African diplomacy. Nigeria played significant contributions and roles in the founding of the Organization of African Unity (O.A.U), now called African Union (A.U) (Aluko 1973:145-162), and its roles and interests in the West African economic integration process were seen as avenues to launch Nigeria into world politics (Ojo1980: 571-604). However, Nigeria lacks a coherent vision and purpose in its foreign policy.

It is necessary to mention that this paper is not objecting to the decision-making approach in the study of foreign policy. This approach is as crucial as any other approach. Inamete contends that there are several factors that affect a country foreign policy. Factors such as " the personalities of political leaders who are involved in the foreign policy milieu, the nature of the foreign policy decision-making system, the nature of the political system, and the nature of national attributes, and the nature of the

international system"(2001:17). Inamete argues that of all the factors mentioned, foreign policy decision-making is the most significant because of its hierarchical structure of decision making, which could affect the processing and accessibility of information from bottom to top of the hierarchy. However, I argue that decision-making in foreign policy would be less significant if decision's positions are not decisively established. As Joseph Frankel observes "…decision-making…is understood [as] an act of determining in one's mind a course of action, following a more or less deliberate consideration of alternatives; and by decision is understood that which is thus determined. By action is understood a thing done, a deed, or the process of acting or doing" (1963:1). Hence, decision-making and actions are central components of foreign policy. But calculated actions of foreign policy influenced the motive of this paper. I posit that Nigerian policy actions in Africa have not yield quality result for the country. Thus, this paper will look at the actions of Nigeria in Africa.

Apart from the dynamics of decision-making in foreign policies, one should also be concerned about the nature of the political system. Addressing the issue of foreign policy from a decision-making perspective is only a fundamental, and not, a broader aspect of understanding foreign policy. It has been noted that "The foreign policy of a country depends on a whole series of factors acting simultaneously and not always in the same direction. It is the sum of these factors, however, which determines and guides foreign policy" (Thiam 1965: xi). Bringing these two (decision-making and nature of the political system) approaches together can also provide a comprehensive understanding of countries' foreign policies. With respect to Nigeria, the domestic problems of the nation somewhat impede on its capability to formulate a coherent policy. As one observer remarks, "the domestic political process of a state is not a mechanistic, rational policy-making device, but a dynamic, potentially unstable, and normally fractious system of relations among contending interests"(Buzan 1983:232).

Moyibi Amoda (1972: 14-75) shows that from inception, Nigeria as a country has had some misgivings as a political structure. Amoda traces the foundation of Nigeria's political system to 1914 when different groups of people were forcibly amalgamated into a country by the British colonial power into one political entity irrespective of the divisions that existed. The result of this forced integration was a superficial political system with complex divergent interests based on language and tribal origins. Hence, the trajectories of political system have struggled along tribal lines. The cultural diversity and the problems surrounding these trajectories as explained by Amoba should have served as a recipe for what to expect from Nigeria in the decision making process of foreign policy.

To this point, I have tried to define foreign policy, and show its importance in international relations. Having said that, I also established Nigerian foreign policy as the centrality of this paper, by calling into question, its actions within the structure of the environment. If Nigeria must reform the way it conducts its foreign policy in Africa, it must first identify the problem before a change can occur. Hence, an examination of the political environment of Africa during and after colonialization must be carefully explored.

African Nationalism, Independence and Nigeria

The aim of this section is to approach the issue of Nigerian foreign policy towards Africa, by reviewing Nigeria's role in the formation of African nationalism. This section seeks to open a new political discourse in the study of Nigerian foreign policy towards African states. It suggests that African nationalism, the vehicle on which Nigerian foreign policy was built upon, was superficial because the common culture and identity that predicated African nationalism during the colonial period was constructed in order to drive out the Europeans. It's been twenty-five years since the last African country attained independence in 1980. It is therefore time for Nigeria to reevaluate its anti-colonialist approach towards foreign policy because African nationalist ideal is now outdated.

To understand the background of Nigeria's foreign policy, it is necessary to consider how the traumatic experience of colonialism and its attributes play a significant role in shaping Nigeria's transition to independence. This colonial orientation plays a critical role in Nigeria's vision of the world. As expected, Nigeria drew a contractual relationship with other African states based on their shared colonial and geographical experience. This relationship developed out of the rational ambition of achieving emancipation from the European colonial powers, the common enemy. As a result, many African leaders, Nigeria's included, believed that the solutions lie in collective actions to maintain the identity and integrity of Africa. Hence, nationalism entitled Africans to seek recognition for their culture, and to determine their own fate.

In the words of Anthony D. Smith, "nationalism is important - both as a social and political phenomenon, and as an object of sociological investigation" (1971: 3). G. de Bertier de Sauvigny (1970) says the word nationalism was first used in 1836 as some form of "national sentiment." For Hayes and Kotze, "it is a system of thought that contains two components: a sense of political solidarity, consciousness of identity, or a common purpose; and a desire and striving for political self-determination" (Davis and Brown 2002: 240). Haas defines nationalism as "the convergence of territorial and political loyalty irrespective of competing foci of affiliation, such as kinship, profession, religion, economic interest, race, or even language"(1986:709). According to Fred Halliday, "Nationalism, as both ideology and social movement, has been one of the formative processes of the modern world" (1997:360). He contends that nationalism was a useful tool of the past employed by the Europeans in their tribulation time prior to 1945, and by the Third World in the quest for self-determination during the period of colonialism. As an ideology and a social movement, it became "increasingly prevalent and perhaps dominant, even over communism" (ibid).

The unique formulation of African culture as advanced by African elites in their struggle against colonial oppression aided the perception that Africa was a homogeneous nation, and helped legitimize the concept of nationalism in Africa. It was significant to generate a social movement that would be instrumental in building a common identification for Africa's political action towards the colonial powers. This identification transcended ethnic boundaries that existed prior to the arrival of the

Europeans. African leaders held these general views of colonialism, which strengthened and influenced Nigerian policy formation after independence. As Margaret Hermann (1980) notes, a country leadership ability to pursue a certain foreign policy is influenced by the beliefs and emotions of its leadership structure. For Nigeria, the motivation for its leaders was to see the end of colonization in Africa.

Therefore, Nigerian leaders used nationalism to create "an awareness of membership in a nation (potential or actual), together with a desire to achieve, maintain, and perpetuate the identity, integrity and prosperity of that nation" (Rejai and Enloe 1969: 141). In sum, Nigerian leaders have a strong devotion to the interests of their African identity and holding it to be above the interests of other identities. Therefore, Nigeria's role became what Holsti (1970: 236) calls "national role conception," which is how a country sees it self on the international stage. This role is influenced by the experience of colonial socialization.

 Colonial education introduced Africans to the concept of Western philosophy and they were indoctrinated with this culture. Therefore, the mode of the African elite's life would reflect that of colonial citizens. Additionally, the outbreak of the Second World War exposed Africans to other nationalist movements, such as the Indians of Asia .The inadequacies of the Europeans and their invisibility was marred by the significant injury that was sustained during the war. These epochs motivated Africans to seek autonomy from the colonial powers (Wallerstein 1961: 56).

The deduction from Wallestein's analysis is that African nationalism was a result of modernization. Nationalism theorists like Gellner have argued that nationalism is a by-product of modernity (O'Leary 1997), and in *Nations and Nationalism* (1983). O'Leary adds, Gellner expands on his ideas in *Thought and Change* (1964) by defining nationalism as:

the general imposition of a high culture on society, where previously low cultures had taken up the lives of the majority, and in some cases the totality, of the population. It means the general diffusion of a school-mediated, academy supervised – idiom, codified for the requirements of a reasonably precise bureaucratic and technological communication. It is the establishment of an anonymous impersonal society, with mutually substitutable atomized individuals, held together above all by a shared culture of this kind, in place of the previous complex structure of local groups, sustained by folk cultures reproduced locally and idiosyncratically by the micro-groups themselves.[i]

This view suggests that nationalism, as some theorists such as Eisenstadt, Smelser and Silvert would agree, is "conditioned by the presence of modernization and the related process of structural differentiations" (Hah and Martin 1975: 367). They propose that based on its "structural" complexities, "modernization" erodes "traditional societal roles," "norms and authority," thereby making the people to seek "…allegiances to the emergent nation" (ibid: 368). In this case, one could argue that Africa, during the period of colonization, fits the category of the "emergent nation" because of the "disqualifying marks," which is the lack of genuine homogeneous features except for the color their skin.

To put this into perspective, it would be imperative to define what a nation means. According to Smith, a nation is a "named human population sharing an historic territory, common myths, and historical memories, a mass public culture, a common economy and common legal rights and duties for all

members" (1991:14). Haas defines a nation as "a socially mobilized body of individuals, believing themselves to be united by some set of characteristics that differentiate them (in their own mind) from outsiders, striving to create or maintain their own state" (1986:726). For Almond and Powell, a nation is "the self-identification of a people based on the language that they speak and the values, allegiances, and historical memories they share" (1996:2).

Empirically, Rejai and Enloe (1969: 141) contend that "none of these traits may actually exist" but "a people" just want to believe that they do. That is the case with Africa. Most of the nations that make up Africa do not share the traits as defined by Smith and, Almond and Powell, to become a nation. For instance, a country like Nigeria has many nations with different cultures and languages within it, needless to say Africa as a whole. It is the observation of this paper that Africa, as a continent comprising many nations, has no monolithic culture, language, religion or history. It is perceived that the only thing there share is the color of their skin. Therefore, "African nationalism is nothing more or less than the rejection of colonial control, race domination, and discrimination." Chidzero maintains that the "equality of [the] individual" is based on the western idea of liberty and justice, was the concept that inspired African nationalism (Chidzero 1960: 466). Similarly, Reid asserts that African "nationalism was basically a secondary aspiration until Africans were convinced that equality with Europeans was not going to be achieved" (1978:225).

Even, African nationalism did not mean African states during colonialism had a strong sense of solidarity. Africans wanted to have their freedom to choose and rule themselves, which was why they formed nationalist movements (Mushkat 1971). The fact that they are "'all Africans' may be no more than a recognition of a geographical fact: that they have "a common interest in the independence of Africa'" (Mazrui 1967: 45). However, with countries attaining independence in Africa, nationalist zeal decreased because of states' formation. If this was the case, it shows that African nationalism was ingeniously predicated on a false sense of primordial unity by the elite in order to gather support for their aim of gaining political power.

Elsewhere, it has been argued that the social movement in Africa during the colonial period should not be seen as nationalism because Africa is not a nation. In Mazrui's words, "[African] nationalism is a reality that played a part in ending territorial colonialism but nationhood itself is an ambition rather than a reality"(1982: 23).

Hence, the conclusion is, what was believed to be African nationalism was situational because it was constructed by the elite based on their own rational interests and not on culture. Fane concurs that the use of the concept "African nationalism" is wrong and "misleading," because it was the creation of the African elite in order to gain political control (1956: 294-295). Drawing on this observation, John Breuilly notes that nationalism is nothing but politics and power, in which the elite transforms the "cultural identities" of different group into one identity, as a tool to achieve political acceptance among the people (Ozkirimli 2000: 105-107).

Decolonization means the period of "post World-War II movement wherein African societies have striven to transform their erstwhile colonial relationships to the Western-dominated capitalist world order," (Ate 1987: 5) in terms "of the political, economic, social, and psychological dimensions of the existing power relationships between the colonizing nations and the colonized peoples"(ibid: 10). It brought territorial integrity and power to Africans. For the first time, Africans became the rulers of their own countries (not ethnic groups), which meant access to greater resources because of the (dubious) amalgamations of different ethnic groups with each newly independent African state. The political structure of this newly independent state would be rearranged because the colonial authorities left powers in the hands of traditional rulers who must now wrestle with the new sets of educated leaders that were at the forefront of African nationalism. This gives Wallerstein great concern, and he laments about "the ways in which social structures, especially new ones – in this case, the independent African states – hold themselves together, acquire the loyalty of their subjects in a complex economy where the interests of the citizens vary widely" (1961:4). Wallerstein worries about the shifts in alliances, group reactions, or actions to these alliances, and how long they would last.

This structural change, as noted by Wallerstein, brought to mind Weber's three forms of society – traditional, charismatic and rational (Hua 1995: 24). Kings and Chiefs satisfy the characteristics of the form of traditional society in Africa because their power is derived from the values and beliefs of their historical past. The educated elite could be categorized as representing the charismatic and rational forms of society because they would be taking power away from the traditional authority and applying their own Western ideology on how the society should be governed in order to attain order and stability.

Studies of nationalism in Africa and their outcomes would be weak without discussing the emergence of African intelligentsia. Kohn contends that nationalism "is a product of the growth of social and intellectual factors at a certain stage of history" (1944: 6). Elucidating the impact of nationalism on Nigeria means identifying the influence of education in the struggle for self-recognition in Africa. Before colonization brought modern education to Africa, Islamic education was there, evidenced by the various Islamic universities in West Africa. Moreover, Ethiopia's success in the production of monks and diplomas through the Orthodox Church is another strong example that Africa had some form of intellectual development before colonization (Falola 2004). However, as Falola argues, "Both for Africans and colonizers, [western] education was necessary for survival. For colonizers the system could not function without elite or, at the very minimum, a group of people who could read or write" (2004: 7).

As the African educated elite began to grow in size, the process of decolonization seemed inevitable because these Africans had been exposed to the ideas of liberalism, equality and freedom through their study of European philosophy. For example, Africanus Horton, who was the first black medical doctor in Africa, perhaps in the world, advocated through his writings in the late 1880s for a universal approach to solving African colonial problems. He believed that civilization would be the way out of Africa's

problems, and it should proceed gradually through the help of Western involvement. By this, he meant educating and copying the European ways of life (Boele van Hensbroek 1999).

Many of African educated elites had come back to their colonies to work, but they were treated differently from the white settlers in terms of economic and political benefits. With the influence of western education, these Africans concluded that the Europeans were not living up to their own principles and values of equality. This led to the formation of political and social groups that were comprised of educated Africans that would seek for equal treatment and finally, the establishment of a political structure that was completely run by Africans (Wallestein 1961: 45-55). Pieter Boele van Hensbroek has shown that, from a sociological perspective, the educated elite served as "intermediaries between the Western powers and the indigenous leaders and peoples." And they are seen as the "protagonists of African interests" (1999: 39).

Nigerians were among those African elites that bought into the ideology of African nationalism. Nigerian students played a significant role in the formations of the African Student Union and, later, West African Student Union in Britain in the early 1900s, which emphasized unity among Africans in their aspirations for independence. Furthermore, it advocated for the creation of a West African state that would eventual lead to an African state (Adi 2000). Nigeria would later become one of the operational sites for "nationalist political movements" in Africa (Kilson.Jr 1958). Nnamdi Azikwe and Obafemi Awolowo were mouthpieces for nationalist struggle during the period of colonization. Their experience influenced the way Nigeria drew its foreign policy after independence, which reflects group consciousness that was the creation of nationalism.

Nigerian Foreign Policy Developments and Actions

Nigeria was created in the 'late 19th century' by the power of British colonialism in the face of fierce African resistance (Herskovits 1982: 10). The Nigerian Constitutional Conference of 1957 that handed over defense and foreign policy matters to Nigerians culminated in Nigeria's independence in 1960 (Idang 1970). As a would-be new state, Nigerian foreign policy formation and evolution needs to be given special attention because of its size, natural resources and potential in world politics.

Pre-independence Foreign Policy Assessment

In comparison to other African states, Nigeria in the context of decolonization (1950s) had considerable numbers of leaders who on a consistent basis engaged in debates before any action was taken on important issues (Phillips 1964). This civil characteristic was a reflection of the influence of Western philosophy on Nigeria's educated elites. Fritz Schatten calculates that "By the end of 1952 there were no fewer than 2,028 Nigerians studying in Great Britain and another 334 studying in the United States"(1966:35). In his study of Nigerian foreign policy between 1959 and 1963, Phillips argues that domestic struggle in Nigeria often underlines leaders' public debates on issues. Focusing on the

different political parties in pre-independent Nigeria, Phillips (1964:4) contends that in developing a foreign policy for Nigeria, its leaders found it very difficult to agree on a uniform direction on what and how Nigeria's foreign policy should be pursued. Besides, it has been argued that nationalists do not always agree on what the state goals and objectives should be after fighting to gain independence.

 As described above, the political structure of Nigeria prior to independence was unstable and thwarted by sectional interests. Nigeria became independent in a situation where:

 No one party had anywhere like a national following. Parties were identified by the regions of their origins.   In each region, there was a tendency for the dominant party to thwart and frustrate the activities of the minority parties… Yet out of this melee Nigerians were to elect politicians who were to form a government which was to steer the country, among other things, into a meaningful foreign policy, one which would not only secure the survival of the state, but would assist it to rapid economic and industrial growth, the goal of all underdeveloped countries (Phillips 1964: 9).

The dysfunctional political nature of Nigeria was attributed to the fact that all the regions that made up Nigeria had no common history besides the British framework of colonialism. This fraction in political development was seen in political parties' formulation of foreign policy agenda or manifestos.

One of Africa's best sons, and a great Nigerian, Dr. Nnamdi Azikwe preached for Pan-Africanist foreign policy. This, according to Adibe, "emerged as the principal ideological tool for ensuring some semblance of sociopolitical cohesion through its emphasis on common racial identity." It was the same kind of policy that other West African states had adopted as their foreign policies' objective (2001: 18). Besides, Dr. Azikwe, Dr. Nkrumah of Ghana, Sekou Toure of Ivory Coast and Leopold Sedar Senghor of Senegal were all advocates of Pan-Africanism (Thiam 1965: 14-15). On the eve of Nigeria's independence, Azikwe, the leader of the National Congress of Nigerian and the Cameroons (NCNC), a political party associated with the Eastern part of Nigeria, gave an insight into the kind of foreign policy Nigeria should pursue. Azikwe advocated "a 'neutralist' foreign policy, with adherence to 'no axis of geopolitics'; and the policy of 'good neighbour' toward African states, with the attempt to establish closer economic and political relations with them"(Phillips 1964:15). A few years before Nigeria's independence, Azikwe had argued for this kind of policy because he did not want African states to be caught in the East and West Bloc political saga of the Cold War. Harris has shown the same trends in African countries' foreign policy behavior in the "formative decades" but added to the fact that Africa was fearful of exploitation by both the West and East blocs (Khadiagala and Lyons 2001: 3).

Following in Azikwe's step was Chief Obafemi Awolowo, the leader of the Action Group (AG), a political party with tremendous support from the Western part of Nigeria. On September 11, 1959, in one of the Action Group's conferences, Awolowo asserted his vision of Nigerian foreign policy. Awolowo expressed concerns for any vision of Pan African unity and neutrality as a principle of international relations. For instance, he argued that the nature of Egypt's political structure in the proposed union would act as a deterrent to the vision of African unity because black African states would not be Egypt's satellite like Syria. Moreover, the presence of whites in East and South Africa was another reason that African unity was not feasible.

As a result, Awolowo pointed out that Azikwe's aspiration for African unity would not come to fruition because "[Awolowo] saw no chance of cooperation."(Phillips 1964:11). On the issue of international neutrality, Awolowo believed that neutrality would do no good to Nigeria's purpose because it is dangerous to do so. He urged Nigeria to cooperate with both the West and East Bloc in world politics (ibid.). However, Awolowo did not hide his partiality towards the Western Bloc when he declared that, "the question is, as between the Western Bloc and Eastern Bloc, where can a man freely exercise his natural right to hold and express any opinion subject to such restrictions as may be laid down by Laws enacted by the freely elected parliament of the land? The answer is obvious: it is in the Western Bloc." Awolowo was careful in his statement not to openly call for an alliance with the Western Bloc (ibid.: 16-17).

Unlike NCNC and AG, Northern People's Congress (NPC), a political party associated with the northern part of Nigeria under the leadership of Alhaji Ahamadu Bello, the Sardauna of Sokoto was blunt with its own foreign policy suggestion. It advocated a strong relationship with the United Kingdom just as other parties have done, and it strongly advised that Nigeria extend ties with the United States of America; following the policy pattern of the other major parties. As one observer[ii] once noted, "in Nigeria… the several provinces were far too busy negotiating their own differences to worry about the gigantic problem of West African unification." The domestic politics of Nigeria at that time was focused on getting a date for its independence and working on a constitution for the country (ibid.: 13).

Post-colonial Alignment and Nonalignment

Nigerian leaders clearly struggled to agree on what Nigeria's foreign policy should be. Would it be geared towards alignment or non-alignment to any world power? Nonalignment is a temporary national policy that does not guarantee "against alignment pressure in the power conflict" for reasons such as, "lack of experience in international politics… lack of experience with communists policies… new nations are showing themselves to be incapable of self-government … is merely a peace-at-any-price policy dictated by economic need and immature internal organization… is wholly anti-Western and anti-colonialist." (Burton 1966:11-12). Interestingly, Legum argues that nonalignment does not mean that a country will be neutral or isolate itself from world politics. Rather, nonalignment "is the assertion of the rights of a nation to freedom of decision in international affairs, and the right to make choices on the basis of each issue's merit, regardless of the Cold War alliances"(1966: 56). For instance, immediately after independence Nigeria established one of her first five missions in Washington, thereby established a cordial relationship with the U.S. When the United States during the Nigerian civil war refused Nigeria's arms sale request, the Nigerian government turned to the Soviet Union (Herskovits 1982: 53-54).

Rothstein (1976) observes that foreign policy is significant to a new country because it helps to create an identity and "reaffirm" the country's independence. Alluding to Ostheimer's work on Nigerian politics, Rothstein shows that unity on foreign policy is easier to achieve than unity on domestic policy because of divergent groups within the country. One could argue that Nigerian leaders believed that Nigeria's interests would be best served by focusing its foreign policy towards helping African states. It was not surprising when Nigeria's foreign policy officials had to show other African states that Nigeria would not use its "political stature, and human resources development" to maltreat them (Ofoegbu and Ogbuagu 1978: 121-122).

However, Nigeria's pro-African foreign policy would not impair its relationship with the Western world. Since Nigeria's independence and its political development through successive governments, military included; a similar pattern has developed in its foreign policy approach. Hardly has any Nigerian government tried to define what Nigeria foreign policy should stands for in the world without Africa.

The federal election of 1959 in which the two largest parties (NPC and NCNC/NEPU) formed a coalition, set the stage for a federal parliament in 1960 that requested Nigeria's independence from Great Britain in January of 1960. As Prime Minister Balewa declared:

That this House authorises the Government of the Federation of Nigeria to request Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom as soon as practicable to introduce a legislation in the Parliament of the United Kingdom providing for the establishment of the Federation of Nigeria on October first, 1960 as an independent sovereign state, and to request Her Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom at the appropriate time to support with the other Member Governments, of the Commonwealth Nigeria's desire to become a member of the Commonwealth (Phillips 1964: 27).

This was the first foreign policy move made by the newly elected Nigerian legislature. It called for independence and, at the same time, asked to be admitted into the organization of countries that wanted to maintain their relationships with Great Britain. The Prime Minister also used the occasion to reiterate Nigeria's concern for Africa.

In the second meeting of the parliament, the issues of South Africa's apartheid, French atomic bomb test and the question of Pan-Africanism were the main focus of debates in the House. There was a consensus among House members that the Nigerian government was not doing enough to help South African blacks despite publicized racial killings. This issue was raised by NCNC in the House. It urged the government to place a ban on South African goods into Nigeria. Moreover, South Africa was perceived to be Nigeria's greatest threat because of its white dominated government. Concerns were also expressed as to where Nigerian diplomats should be trained. At this time, Nigeria had diplomats being trained in London, Washington and Khartoum. Many in the parliament raised the question why Nigeria could not train its own diplomats. They argued that if Nigeria allowed its diplomats to be trained by other countries, then Nigeria would be susceptible to the policies of these countries.

The opposition party, Action Group, berated the government for not condemning the French test of atomic bomb in the Sahara desert. They appealed to the government to suspend the trade relationship between Nigeria and France, and for the freezing of French "assets in Nigeria." They also chided the government for not having "a comprehensive White Paper on the foreign policy which can be debated and adopted by this House" with just four months to Nigeria independence (ibid: 30-34). The Prime Minister claimed that he had already lodged protest with United Kingdom, but it seemed that neither United Kingdom nor the United States of America, nor United Nations had the power to stop France from testing their weapon. Additionally, the Prime Minister reminded the opposition that Nigeria was not an independent nation yet and, therefore, could not have a well-defined policy until independence (ibid: 34).

The objectives of Nigerian foreign policy were released on August 20, 1960, the last day of the session in the House of Representatives. It was speculated that the Prime Minister waited to this day in order to avoid debates on it. The policy statement was "864 words" that defined "how the mind of the Government is working" (ibid.: 40-41). Excluded from the statement were most of the issues and opinions that was discussed by all the political parties. Issues such as "neutrality or non-alignment" and building closer relations with great powers were not mentioned. The whole statement was rounded in ambiguity. Nevertheless, the statement acknowledged Nigeria's involvement in the Commonwealth and the United Nations. It strongly advocated Africa's co-operation and unity through the "elimination of colonialism" (ibid.:52-53). It is clear that Nigeria-Africa's relations would preoccupy Nigerian foreign policy. After Nigeria's independence in October 1960, its foreign policy was to tackle every African problem as Prime Minister Balewa has stated, "We belong to Africa and Africa must claim first attention in our external affairs." Nigeria also remained committed to its non-alignment policy. These have defined Nigerian foreign policy for [48] years (ibid.: 133-134).

Nigerian Military and Foreign Policy

Before the new Nigerian government could have a firm ground on self-government and democracy, the military took over the political power of the country proclaiming themselves the messiah of the common people. Just like every other military takeovers, the civilians are blamed for the way the policies of the country are being managed. The military believes that politicians are egoistic in nature and as such put themselves before the good of the country. In 1966, Nigeria witnessed the first of many military takeovers of the political system of the country, which was as a result of internal conflicts among Nigerian politicians.

On January 15, 1966, General Aguiyi-Ironsi came to power after a group of young military officers executed a coup de'etat. This administration barely lasted for six months when General Ironsi was assassinated on July 29, 1966. Some scholars argued that his programs and policies were directed to benefit his ethnic group's (Igbo) interests. Despite the short period of this administration, it was able to pursue a foreign policy semblance to that of the disposed civil government. Ironsi was able to follow in the footstep of its predecessor by making the issue of "racism and colonialism" as the focus of his

administration. During this period, Nigeria stopped the use of its airspace and ports by South African and Portuguese traveling back and forth from South Africa. It also closed the Portuguese embassy in Nigeria as protest to Portugal's involvement in South Africa (Abegunrin 2003: 32-33).

General Yakubu Gowon's administration would turn out to be one of the longest serving military regimes in Nigeria's history. Gowon came in to power with the coup that assassinated General Ironsi. Gowon would stay in power from 1966 to 1975. During this period, Nigeria fought its civil war from [1967 – 1970], its economy was at his best due to its oil production, and was able to take an important role in the Organization of African Unity. OAU had been supportive of the Nigerian federal government during the civil war; it had sided with the Gowon administration against the secessionist Biafra who got recognition from four of the OAU members. These members are "Gabon, Cote d'ivoire, Tanzania and Zambia"; even a non-member state like South Africa supported Biafra because Nigeria had been a threat to South African white government survival in Africa. On the international stage, France and Portugal supported Biafra. OAU support was to foster unity among African states and not to give the whites in South Africa something to rejoice about (ibid.:34-35).

Post civil war Nigeria saw Gowon showing gratitude to African states that did not support or get involved in Nigeria's internal conflict. He gave financial aid and oil concessions to some African states. At the same time, he strengthened its support for the opposition to the white South African government because Nigeria equally saw South Africa as a security threat to its survival in Africa. Additionally, Portugal also became a focus of Nigerian policy; when in 1971 at the OAU Conference, General Gowon called on "the OAU to coordinates its efforts for African liberation movements." He declared that African states should either appease or confront the South African problem. However, Gowon noted that Nigeria would not join in appeasing the South African white government. He then concluded that Africa should make a commitment to liberating "at least one Portuguese African territory within three years." Thereafter, Nigeria increased its aid to liberation movements, and Portugal was forced to reevaluate its policy in Africa, which led to the independence of Guinea Bissau, Mozambique in 1974 and Angola in 1975 (ibid.:36-39).

With General Muhammad's administration, Nigerian foreign policy drastically reaffirmed its goals of fighting racism in South Africa and other African states still under colonial rule. At the time, Nigeria was discovering its new identity as one of the most powerful countries in Africa, and arguably the most powerful in West Africa. Nigeria spent 8 percent of its gross national product (GNP) of $2.8 billion annually in 1978, and its military was one of the most powerful and the largest in African after Egypt and South Africa between 1978 and 1979 (ibid.:62). Unlike Gowon's administration that "relied heavily on Balewa administration's adviser for advice on and assistance with the implementation of foreign policy decisions", Muhammad relied on think –tank groups and intellectuals for ideas on matters of foreign policy. The evidence of change could be seen in how Nigeria handled the Angolan crisis. Under Gowon, Nigeria wanted the three major liberation movements (Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA), National Front for the Liberation for Angola (FNLA) and National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (UNITA)) to come together and form a government.

Under Muhammad, the policy changed to that of supporting one of the three liberation movements - the Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola (MPLA). Nigeria not only gave funds to MPLA, but also campaigned for support for it from African states. This move did not go down well with the United States government, as President Ford sent his Secretary of States Henry Kissinger to lobby African states not to follow Nigeria's footstep. The U.S. feared that the Soviet Union and Cuba, who were also involved in the Angola conflict, would be successful in exporting communism to South Africa through Angola (ibid.: 66). The U.S. diplomatic move angered the Nigerian government because they saw it as an insult to Africa and its leaders. As a result, the Nigerian government in January of 1976 took over the U.S. Information Service buildings and radio stations in Lagos and Kaduna (ibid.). Sadly, Muhammad was killed in a failed coup d'etat on February 14, 1976, and Obasanjo, his second in command succeeded him as Nigerian head of state.

As one would have expected, Obasanjo's regime was an extension of Muhammad's administration, and therefore, its policies were the continuation of what Muritala had started. On June 29, 1976, Obasanjo made a policy statement identifying the objectives of Nigerian foreign policy. Accordingly, Abegunrin (2003) notes, Obasanjo identified five objectives:

- The defense of our sovereignty, independence, and territorial integrity.

- The creation of the necessary political and economic condition in Africa and in the rest of the world that would foster Nigerian national self-reliance and rapid economic development. This would facilitate the defense of the independence of all African countries.

- The promotion of equality and self-reliance in Africa and the rest of the developing world.

- The promotion and defense of social justice and respect for human dignity, especially of black men.

- The promotion and defense of world peace.

Obasanjo was following the example of his predecessors by making such statement that reemphasized Nigeria's commitment to Africa; as a matter of fact, his administration provided support to the liberation movement in South Africa. Abegunrin contends that numbers 2, 3 and 5 of the objectives were "beyond Nigerian capabilities." It is one thing to make a policy statement, and it is another thing to executive the statement (ibid.:67-68).

In 1977, Obasanjo's administration rekindled relationship with the United States under President Carter. Carter had declared that the United States foreign policy would focus on human rights, and the Nigerian government believed that this policy would be sympathetic to the blacks in South Africa. Moreover, the United States government saw Nigeria as a partner in solving the problems in Africa and other developing countries, contrary to Carter's predecessor that saw the South African issue as one of the Cold War confrontations with the Soviet Union. The U.S. attended the "U.N. World Conference for Action against Apartheid in Lagos [Nigeria] in August 1977." This was the first time the U.S. would be attending

a conference of such magnitude in Africa. This conference was presided over by the Nigerian External Affairs Minister Joseph Garba. The U.S. attendance illustrates the new relationship it had developed with Nigeria. Two months later, Obasanjo met Carter in Washington on a state visit where they discussed issues ranging from bilateral trade to South Africa. The following year, President Carter became the first U.S. president to visit Nigeria when he went there in March 1978. With these visits between both leaders, it was clear that Nigeria and the U.S wanted to work for peace and democracy in Africa (ibid.:71-72).

Shagari Administration: A Civil Respite (1979-1983)

General Obasanjo became the first Nigerian Military leader to hand over power to a civilian government in 1979, a promise he made and fulfilled (ibid.: 99). Alhaji Shehu Shagari became the first executive president of Nigeria. In terms of rhetoric, Shagari's administration continued the legacy of Generals Muhammad and Obasanjo's foreign policy initiatives for Nigeria by making several statements condemning the actions of the South African government. However, its administration lacked the actions to back its words. Shagari's style was more in tuned with that of Balewa in the first republic. One observer described Shagari as, "decent, and well meaning but weak and indecisive as a leader" (ibid:100). This has led a commentator to describe its administration as "a political pupil of the Balewa government" (ibid:102) because of its conservative tendency and pro-western policy.

Shagari's inability to continue where Obasanjo left led to the decline of Nigeria's influence and power in Africa. Abegunrin (2003) argues that the economic crisis of the late 1970's and early 1980s affected Nigerian foreign policy. He contends that because the world economy was in recess at the time, as such Nigerian economy, which is based on a single product – petroleum could not sustain Nigeria's spending. Moreover, the Reagan Administration policy of "constructive engagement" in South Africa was able to soften Nigeria's hard-line stand on the South African issue. Since the U.S was the major buyer of Nigeria's crude oil, Reagan used this as advantage to weaken Nigeria's policy in South Africa. Shagari agreed to Reagan administration's request that Cuban troops should withdraw from Angola in order to facilitate Namibia independence. Many Africans were disappointed by Shagari's action. Therefore, because of "Nigeria's economic decline, the Shagari Administration became a Western tool for achieving in Africa the goals of the United States and other Western nations" (ibid:114). This was the situation of things when the military struck again, ushering in the General Buhari's regime.

The Return of the Military (1983-1998)

General Buhari's excuse for overthrowing the Shagari administration and taking over the political system of the country was the declining economic situation in which the country had found itself. Buhari's regime came to power in January 1, 1984 and claimed to be an offshoot of Generals Muhammad and Obasanjo's regimes, a claim Obasanjo dismissed. Nonetheless, the height of the Buhari's administration would be defined by its relationship with the neighboring states, the Western Sahara conflict, and the lingering South African issue. Shortly after coming to power, the administration closed Nigeria's borders and expelled illegal aliens, citing national interests and security for its actions.

This development had a great impact on the neighboring countries because the economy of all of them (Niger, Chad, and Benin) but the Republic of Cameroon, depended on Nigeria (ibid:122-124)..

Cameroon and Nigeria's border has been a major security concern for Nigeria because Cameroon has consistently claimed the Bakassi Peninsula – the disputed area, despite the fact that 98 percent of its people are Nigerians. Bakassi Peninsula is vital to Nigeria security because it is a passage to one of its ports in the southeast. This issue will be examined in the later part of this paper. Nevertheless, some argued that Buhari administration's actions threatened Nigeria's role in Africa because Nigeria has always being at the forefront of African neighborliness. The situation prompted the Buhari administration into sending delegations to assure West African leaders of Nigeria's good intention and to also seek their support in fostering Nigeria's security (ibid).

During the week of the twentieth OAU summit, Nigeria recognized the government of Saharawi Arab Democratic Republic (SADR) as a sovereign state, living up to its policy of self –determination. Morocco and eighteen of its supporters had walked out on the summit two years prior to this announcement to protest the calls for SADR admission into OAU membership. In recognizing SADR, Buhari stated that, "no member state should walk out of the Organization because such an action would achieve nothing but merely please the imperialists and other detractors of our Organization." Abegunrin sees some semblance in how Buhari handled the situation and how the Muhammad handled the MPLA and its attainment of OAU membership (ibid: 126).

With the South African issue, "Buhari tried to influence the Reagan Administration to change its constructive engagement policy toward South Africa." This policy tied Namibian independence to the withdrawal of Cuban troops from Angola. Major General Joseph N.Garba, the foreign minister during the Muhammad and Obasanjo's regimes was appointed Nigeria's permanent Representative to the United Nations. Garba was able to get influential American citizens and business to "lobby the American government" on the issue of South Africa. This list among others, included, "Reverend Jesse L. Jackson, David Rockefeller, and Anthony Solomon," and businesses "such as Gulf Oil, Mobile, Kellogg's, and Bechtel Corporation." Abegunrin concludes that Reagan had no interest in Nigeria and as such, the relationship between the two countries was at its lowest (ibid.: 127).

After fifteen months in office, General Babangida overthrew the Buhari Administration. Under Babangida's leadership, Nigeria experienced "some good moments," and "rising international profile." Joseph Garba became the president of the Forty-fourth Session of the U.N. General Assembly, and Chief Emeka Anyaoku was elected secretary-general of the Commonwealth of Nations (ibid.:134). Nigeria carried out successfully the first peacekeeping mission in Africa during the Liberian civil war under the banner of ECOWAS. One of the reasons why Nigeria agreed to the mission was the evolvement of "a regional approach to solving regional problems." The United Nations whose "peacekeeping capacity was overstretched" and "whose finance was weak" supported this development. Another reason was the fact that the major powers in the world decided not to do anything "created both a challenge and an opportunity for Nigeria, ECOWAS, and the OAU [now AU (African Union]." (ibid)

Additionally, the Liberian conflict was seen as a "threat to the collective security of the West African sub region, and to the peace and security of the African continent as a whole." Abegunrin posits that the major powers refusal to get involved in the conflict could be linked to the end of the Cold War. Since there is no more communism, Africa was no "longer important to the United States," and Africans should solve Africa's problems. The peacekeeping force that was created, ECOWAS Monitoring Group (ECOMOG), at the early stage, got most of its logistical needs from the Nigerian government (Adeleke 1996:578; Howe 1996:152). It was estimated that "by 1997," Nigeria had spent almost $2 billion on the Liberian war (Ero 2000) and elsewhere, in 1999, Reuters news agency reports that Charles Quaker-Dokubor of the Nigerian Institute of International Affairs says, "Nigeria spent over $6 billion in Liberia and over in Sierra Leone on peacekeeping operations."[iii]

From 1993 to 1998, the internal problems of Nigeria began to slow its active participation in the ECOMOG, as well as in Africa as a whole. Several conflicts erupted at this time in the continent that Nigeria did not play any significant role in them. For example, the Rwandan conflict, where genocide was committed. Based on the situation of things in Nigeria at this period, "in short," as Baker laments, "was a state in real danger of collapse" (2003:156). This work, as a consequence, will be less assertive if it attempts to explore the limited role played by Nigeria. This means that the administrations of Generals Abacha and Abudlsallam will not be visited. Also, president Obasanjo's government, the present administration, has been excluded from this analysis.

Nigerian Security in Sub-Saharan Africa

With the illustrations of African nationalism and nation above, it is obvious that African nationalism was situational; it is, therefore, imperative for Nigeria to reconsider its foreign policy in Africa. After all, African states have achieved independence, which means African nationalism has accomplished its mission to get rid of the imposition of dominant culture on Africa. The continent is not a nation, and Nigeria needs to restructure its foreign policy to reflect the reality of time, especially in the post 9/11 world. Reconsideration must take into account the size of Nigeria, and the need for it to create a definite command from political and economical perspectives. Jervis (1976) and Cottam (1977) warn about the negative consequences that a country could face if it misread the international environment. They highlighted the importance of perceptions in foreign policy behavior in international politics.

For the first thirty-five years of its independence, "Nigeria has perforce been concerned with the twin problems of colonialism and minority white regimes in Southern Africa" (Polhemus 1977: 43). As consequence, many things have happened in the recent past and continue to happen that threatens Nigeria's security in the West African sub-region and Africa as a whole; contrary to Inamete's (1993) assertion that the Afrocentric nature of Nigeria's foreign policy would make it a respectable actor in Africa. For instance, the Bakassi peninsular issues with Cameroon seems to have been neglected by Nigerian leaders over the years, evidenced by the International Court of Justice ruling that favors

Cameroon's ownership of the island. Yet, Nigerian governments have claimed that the country's "security and economic interests… [are] the primary determinants of their policies towards states in the West African sub-region (Nwokedi 1985: 196). In that case, how do we explain Cameroon's possession of Nigerian territory?

Indeed, Nigeria should have seen the writing on the wall during the crisis of the Liberian war. In other words, when arrangements and consultations on how to quench the civil war in Liberia were going on, some West African states were working to circumvent Nigerian influence. These countries viewed Nigeria with dismay and were not totally in support of Nigeria's gesture to bring peace and political stability to Liberia. It appears that their criticisms of Nigeria were based on their interpretations that Nigeria was trying to establish itself as hegemony in the region (Howe 1996; Mortimer 1996). De Gaulle, the French leader, who supported the secessionists during the Nigerian Civil War, expressed the same concern about Nigeria. It was also the suspicion of Nigeria's domination that led to the creation of Communaute Economique de l'Afrique de l' Quest (CEAO) inspired by France to help its former colonies to challenge the economic integration and industrialization aims of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) under the Nigerian leadership, in the West African region.(Nwokedi 1985: 197& 202).

Okolo (1988) notes that since the end of colonization, Nigerian foreign policy has been disappointing and has identified two conflicting sides to Nigerian foreign policy practice. There are those who argued that Nigeria should show morality in its policy while the others want realism as the root of Nigerian policy. A combination of both moral and realist politics have been the foreign policy behavior of Nigeria. This has made it difficult to defined Nigerian foreign policy in "terms of absolute morality or absolute power" (Okolo 1988:79). As observed above, the issues of colonization and racism, Okolo would concur, are the moral aspects of postcolonial Nigerian foreign policy towards sub-Saharan Africa. Instead of using its power and size to promote its interests, Nigeria was busy promoting and protecting the interests of sub-Saharan Africa excluding South Africa.

However, Okolo contends that "[a]n exclusively moralistic foreign policy orientation will not be adequate to deal with a plethora of issues with which the state is daily confronted in its interactions with the external world"(1988: 69). Especially, in the present time, every sub-Saharan African State would want to be the most powerful state in the continent; thus, realism needs to be the only aspect of Nigerian policy in the continent. Hence, Nigeria needs a more diversified foreign policy that would look at African states as rational actors and not kindred.

Conclusion

Nigeria needs a plan or doctrine that would restore its prestige as the most dominant country in Africa in terms of military and economic capabilities. What happened to the vision and conception of Nigeria

as a leading African country as suggested by the realist Okotie-Eboh in 1960, at the founding of the country as an independent state? He opined that:

Nigeria must show that by her size… population…economic potentialities and all the resources at her command, she is prepared to lead Africa so that Africa can be seen as a principal personality and a nation that will be recognized not as a second-class nation but as a first class [nation] in the comity of nations (Ate 1987: 54).

In a similar vein, Joseph Garba has declared that Nigerian foreign policy "should pursue Nigerian interests first and at all times" (Abegunrin 2003: 63). It should resort to methods that will justify its interests by recognizing that its proximity to African states should not create a special relation, and consequently, recognize that these states have their own interests which could be existential threats to Nigeria's position in the geographical definition of Africa.

Furthermore, Nigeria should not consult with other African states outside the African Union, whenever it appears that there is danger in the continent. It means, other than the combined effort of A.U, Nigeria should not embark on military missions such as the Liberia and Sierra Leone, unless such missions directly affects its primary interests. As a prominent scholars once said, interests must be well guarded at all costs (Morgenthau 1962: 291). This prescription should not be misconstrued as isolationist argument because Nigeria would still be involved in African affairs through African Union, but its role should be limited.

 Nigeria must draw a new plan of international interaction, which must include the full utilization of its relationship with the United States. This is the moment for Nigeria to use world environment to its advantage. Its relationship with the United States must translate into something that would help to elevate Nigeria's status as a regional hegemony in Africa. If the features of this doctrine are followed, Nigeria will return to prominence in Africa and the world as a whole. President Umaru Yar'Adua must make a radical change in the course of Nigerian foreign policy because 9/11 has transformed states' interactions.

 Nigeria is one of the few countries that faction its system of governments after the American style; there is no reason why it should not emulate the way the American foreign policy is set up. Nigerian foreign policy should assume national interest and security above everything else. Nigeria should be more concerned about its survival and less on Africa's problems because if Nigeria dies, Africa would still be there. As long as Nigeria survives, it can help to make things better for Africa. Now is the time for Nigeria to grow stronger and more influential. With the illustrations of African nationalism and nation, it is suggested that African nationalism was situational; it is therefore imperative for Nigeria to reconsider its foreign policy in Africa. After all, independence has been achieved for all African states, which means African nationalism has accomplished its mission to get rid of the imposition of dominant culture on Africa. The continent is not a nation, and Nigerian needs to restructure its foreign policy to reflect the reality of time, especially in the post 9/11 world.

Notes

[1] Paul-Marc Henry in Foreign Affairs, April 1959.

[2] (http://www.sierra-leone.org/slnews0999.html).

3 See Ernst Gellner, Nations and Nationalism (1983, p.57) as by quoted by O'Leary, Brendan

(1997) In "On the Nature of Nationalism: An Appraisal of Ernest Gellner's Writings on Nationalism."

British Journal of Political Science, 27, (2), 191-222.

[4] Falola may have used the phrase "modern intellectual" inappropriately because Gellner does not see educated African as modern intellectuals. For Gellner, there is a difference between the intellectuals and the intelligentsia. As he argues, "Intelligentsia" must not be equated with "intellectuals" because intellectuals "have existed in all ages." He contends that intelligentsia is "a class which is alienated from its own society by the very fact of its education" (See Smith 1971: 134).

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