IJMC **Department of Mass Communication**

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PERSONALITY SYMBOLS AND BRAND POSITIONING IN THE TELECOM INDUSTRY IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Personality symbol in telecom advertisements is fast becoming industry standard practices. Personality symbol is capable of covering all the identifications of the brand. Despite the increasing use of this advertising method, little or no empirical research has been done to ascertain its influence on brand positioning. The objective of the study is to know the influence personality symbols have on brand positioning. The survey method was adopted with questionnaire as data gathering instrument from 150 respondents in Lagos. Findings showed that respondents identified with various personality symbols used by GSM operators. However, majority (63%) of the respondents said they do not patronize the service because of the personality

symbols used in the advert. Fifty-six percent of the respondents said they feel connected with the personality symbols used by their service providers. The researchers concluded that personality symbols as used by telecom industry operators have contributed to their brand positioning in the minds of their target audience; however it cannot on its own be said to be responsible for the market share of the brand. It was recommended that GSM service providers must complement their use of personality symbols with other marketing communications effort to successfully position their brand.

Keywords: Personality symbol, brand positioning, telecom industry

INTRODUCTION

Since the introduction of Global System of Mobile (GSM) communication technology in 2001 in Nigeria, the marketing communication industry has witnessed increased dynamism and stiff competition for the pocket of subscribers. Before the liberalization of the Nigerian telecommunications market in 1992, Nigerian Telecommunication Limited (NITEL) was the monopoly that dictates who gets connected to its epileptic and often congested landlines. This changed in 1992 when Private Telecommunication Operators (PTOs) were licensed to operate wireless telecommunication services. The PTOs as pioneered by Multilink revolutionized the telecommunication market. The basic selling point of the PTOs was their fixed wireless feature that put to rest the cumbersome logistics of NITEL's cable connection and the politics of line acquisition.

In 2001, the federal government through the Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC) auctioned the first license for the Global System for Mobile Communication (GSM) to the public. At the end of the day, MTN, ECONET and CIL won the right to operate

GSM services. CIL license was later revoked because it could not meet the deadline for paying 10% of the bid price. Since then, other service providers have joined like Globacom, ETISALAT, and many Fixed Wireless operators have been issued Universal License to operate GSM network and other services. With the increase in number of telecom service providers come the need to fight for market share and leadership.

The use of personality symbols to promote an organization's brand had been duly deployed by the telecom industries in Nigeria to promote their products to the teeming Nigerian populace. According to Aaker (1998), a more memorable and interesting brand can be assured with a brand having a personality than a brand which is nothing more than a set of attributes. Brand personality also tends to serve a symbolic or self-expressive function or as the set of human characteristics associated with the typical user of a brand (Aaker, 1997).

Brand, according to Czinkota and Ronkainen (2004:260) relates to a name, term, symbol, sign or design used by a firm, to differentiate its offerings from those of its competitors while Upshaw (1995:14), notes that a brand is the sum of its equity, identity, positioning, personality, essence, character, soul, culture, and ultimately the brand image. Positioning in another guise is the act of designing the company's offering and image so that they occupy a meaningful and distinctive competitive position in the target customer's minds (Kotler, 2005).

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One tool employed by all these service providers apart from different service bouquet is marketing communications such as advertising, sales promotions, sponsorships, experiential marketing, public relations and other forms of marketing communications

activities. Therefore, to connect with their teeming subscribers and win new ones, all the GSM service providers embraced the use of one form of celebrity symbols or the others. With the increasing use of personality symbols comes the need to study and understand the effect and effectiveness of these symbols on the brand they represent.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research study sets out to achieve the following objectives:

i. To ascertain the role of personality symbols in product positioning.
ii. To know the role played by personality symbols in entrenching brand loyalty.
iii. To ascertain if the use of personality symbols is responsible for the current positioning of MTN and GLOBACOM in the GSM market.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To give vent to the study, the following research questions were postulated:

- What is the role of personality symbols in product positioning?
- What is the role of personality symbols in entrenching brand loyalty?
- Is the use of personality symbols responsible for the current positioning of MTN and GLOBACOM in the GSM market?

THEORECTICAL FRAMEWORK

This work is rooted in Symbolic interactionism theory as propounded by George Herbert Mead (1920). The theory explains the symbolic meaning people develop and rely upon in the process of social interaction. Symbolic interaction theory studies and explains society by addressing the subjective meanings that people impose on objects, events, and behaviours. Subjective meanings are given primacy because it is believed that people behave based on what they

believe and not just on what is objectively true. Thus, society is thought to be socially constructed through human interpretation (Dong, 1990).

The key assumptions of Symbolic Interactionism are:

a) Humans must be studied on their own level and efforts to infer principles of behaviour from the study of nonhuman form is misguided.
b) The most fruitful approach to the study of human behaviour is through an analysis of society.
c) Human being is an active agent of behaviour rather than simply a passive respondent to external stimuli.

Based on these assumptions, Dong (1990) asserts that Symbolic Interactionism is anchored on the facts that:

a) Behaviour depends on a named or classified world. The names or class terms attached to aspects of the environment carry meaning in the form of shared behavioural expectations that grow out of social interaction. From interaction with others, one learns how to classify objects and in that process also learns how one is expected to behave with reference to those objects.
b) Among the class terms learned in interaction are the symbols that are used to designate "positions," which are the relatively stable, morphological components of social structure. These positions carry the shared behavioural expectations that are conventionally labeled "roles."
c) Persons acting in the social structure name one another in the sense of recognizing one another as occupants of positions. When they name one another, they invoke expectations with regard to each other's behaviour.
d) Persons acting in the context of organized behaviour apply names to themselves as well. These reflexively applied

positional designations, which become part of the "self," create internalized expectations with regard to their own behaviour.

e) When entering interactive situations, persons define the situation by applying names to it, to other participants in the interaction, to themselves, and to particular features within the situation, and use the resulting definition to organize their own behaviour accordingly.
f) Social behaviour is not, however, determined by these definitions, though early definitions may constrain the alternative definitions to emerge from interaction. Behaviour is the product of a role-making process, initiated by expectations invoked in the process of defining situations, but developing through a tentative probing interchange among actors that can reshape the form and the content of interaction.
g) The degree to which roles are "made" rather than simply "played," will depend on the larger social structures in which interactive situations are embedded. Some structures are "open," others relatively "closed" with respect to novelty in roles and in role enactments of performances. All structures impose some limits on the kind of definitions that may be called into play and thus limit the possibilities for interaction.
h) To the degree roles are made rather than only played as given, changes can occur in the character of definitions, in the names and class terms those definitions use, and in the possibilities for interaction; and such changes can in turn lead to changes in the larger social structures within which interactions take place.

From the above, audience of advertisements encounter personality symbols in the adverts and formulate and reassess their plans of action in terms of the objects and people encountered in the advertisements, and in terms of their own assessments of themselves. This theory is germane to this work because it helps to explain the

relationship between the audience and the personality symbols they encounter in any advertisement they expose themselves to.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

PERSONALITY SYMBOL

Personality symbol according to Halim (2012) is "a type of advertising execution that involves developing a central character through which the brand delivers its benefits. It also allows the brand to build an identity, to differentiate itself from the competitors". This connotes that personality symbol in advertising creates brand character that helps deliver benefits to the audience.

Zeren (2009) says successful personality symbols are sincere and consistent. They have an identity. They do not lie. Personality symbols project ones needs and wishes. People see what they want to be in the personality symbols. For him, creating a personality symbol is social engineering. It targets the social needs and it is one of the most effective strategies in the field of marketing communication.

The use of personality symbol according to Halim goes back to late 1800's. One of the oldest personality symbols created in 1893 is Aunt Jemima, promoting pancake mixes and syrup. The other oldest personality symbol which is still in use just like Aunt Jemima is Michelin Tyre's personality symbol, Michelin man.

Personality symbols perform several functions for the brand. Marra (1990), says that a well-developed personality symbol can provide durability in the messages and therefore build a prestige for the brand. Also by using personality symbols remembering the brand is made easy and its benefits can be conveyed easily. Mostly the creative advertising campaigns that base their communication strategy on personality symbols find the adaption of their messages to other formats and media channels easier as well.

Halim (2012) identified five types of personality symbols often used in advertisement to include:

i. Human
ii. Animal
iii. Magical, mythical or an already known character
iv. Iconic
v. Illusionary or Abstract

On human personality symbols, Schultz and Schultz (1998) says, "whereas a human personality symbol can be a 'real, living', celebrity or an ordinary person, he/she can also be a 'created' person. For example, "Betty Crocker is a computer generated hybrid of 75 real American faces". Examples of human symbols used by GSM service providers include DBanj, Tuface, Funke Akindele, Afeez Oyetoro (aka Saka), Davido and others.

Personality symbol might be a very useful communication strategy in marketing communications however, creating a successful personality symbol is not an easy job. This informed the rationale behind this study.

PRODUCT POSITIONING AND PERSONALITY SYMBOLS

Product, according to Osuagwu (2006:35), is something that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition and consumption. For a product to be successful, it must possess the ability to perform promises made in the advertising as well those made by the salesmen. Having qualified in that respect, companies must ensure that each segment of the society has a brand that identifies with the aspirations of that segment of the society. In other words companies must try to match a particular product with a particular target audience while edging out other similar brands targeting the same audience.

Belch and Belch (2001:52) defines positioning as "the art and science of fitting the product or services to one or more segments of

the broad market in such a way as to set it meaningfully apart from competition." Aaker and Myers (1987:125) agree that the term position indicate the brand's or product's image in the marketplace. On the other hand, Trout and Ries (1972:51) suggest that the only way a brand can stand out among others in the market is for the brand image to contrast with the competitors. According to them, "in today's marketplace, the competitors' image is just as important as your own. Sometimes more important." Belch and Belch (2010) therefore sees product positioning as relating to "the image of the product and or other brand relative to competing products or brands. The position of a product or brand is the key factor in communicating the benefits it offers and differentiate it from the competition. They explain further:

> …the position of the product, service, or even store is the image that comes to mind and the attributes consumers perceive as related to it. This communication occurs through the message itself, which explain these benefits, as well as the media strategy employed to reach the target group.

A company's product position strategy focuses on either the consumer of the product or the competition in the market. Both method, according to Belch and Belch (2001), involve the association of product benefits with consumer needs, while the strategy that targets the consumer does so by linking product with the benefits the consumer derive or creating a favourable brand image.

STRATEGIES FOR POSITIONING A PRODUCT

Before a company can decide on the approach to adopt for its product, Trouts and Ries (1972) advised managers to ask and provide answers to the following six questions:

i. What position, if any, do we already have in the prospect's mind? The answer for this question will be provided through the company survey of the market, that is, the target audience.

ii. What position do we want to own?
iii. What companies must be outgunned if we are to establish that position?
iv. Do we have enough marketing money to occupy and hold the position?
v. Do we have guts to stick with one consistent positioning strategy?
vi. Does our creative approach match our positioning strategy?

Answers to the questions above will give a company an insight into what strategy to adopt, who its competitions are, and an assessment of consumers' perceptions of competition. It will also enable the company determine the competition position in the market, know the target audience's preferences in terms of demographics, life style, taste and purchase motivation. Aaker and Shansby (1982) suggested six approaches. The strategies are:

i. Positioning by attributes and benefits: products can be set apart from other similar brands in the market based on its specific attributes and the benefits it offers. The basic thing is to identify the salient attributes which will fulfill consumers anticipated needs. This is because consumers will be making purchase based on their anticipated needs.

ii. Positioning based on the price and its quality. According to Belch and Belch, company can run adverts that reflect the image of a high-quality brand where cost is considered secondary to the quality benefits derived from using the brand. Again, they may also use price/quality competitively; that is, the company can focus on the quality and value offered by the product at a competitive price.

iii. Positioning by use and application: by associating a product with a specific use, a new product can be introduced to the market while at the same time it can expand the use of an old one.

iv. Positioning by class: there are buses like the Cross Country fleet that are associating themselves with comfort, cost savings and enjoyment commensurable with what is obtained in airlines. The intention is to compete with airlines for passengers to areas within the country and neighbouring countries.

v. Positioning by users: there are products that are used by a particular group of people in the society; such products like food seasoning, sanitary towels are associated with women while products like alcohol are considered drinks for the men.

vi. Positioning by competitor: this is a common strategy in the telecommunication industry. For instance MTN says it is the leading network by saying, ***'where ever you go'***; Globacom on the other hand says, **'Glo… Rule Your World'.** Yet, the two networks provide competing services.

vii. Repositioning: Belch and Belch (2010) added repositioning as a strategy that involves altering or changing a product's or brand's position. According to them, repositioning a product usually occurs because of declining or stagnant sales or because of anticipated opportunities in other market positions.

Apart from the above, the telecom industry especially when GSM services were introduced, makes use of celebrity idols as a means of positioning their brands in the market. For example, Etisalat adopted Tuface as its brand idol. Until recently, they also had Afeez Oyetoro (aka Saka) as its celebrity symbol to the low ends of the market. Similarly, MTN, the leader in the

> market by subscribers' basehas used different celebrity symbols to position its brand in the market. Globacom also used celebrity such as King Sunny Ade (KSA),Bisade Ologunde (Lagbaja), Bezhiwa Idakula (Bez), Bright Okpocha (Basketmouth), Jude Abaga (MI), Wande Coal, Chinedu Okolie (Flavour), Peter and Paul Okoye (P-Square), Waje Iruobe, Omawumi Megbele, Funke Akindele (Jenifa), Chukie Edozien (Lynxx), Sammie Okposo and Ego Ogbaro.

Several nollywood divas such as Funke Akindele, Richard Mofe-Damijo, Sunday Omobolanle (Aluwe), Chika Okpala (Zebrudaya) and his telly-wife, Lizzy Eveome, the Ovuleria of the now rested New Masquerade series have featured as personality symbols for one telecom industry or the other. Others are Bolaji Amusan (Mr. Latin), Madam Ibidun Allison, the Amebo of also rested Village Headmaster and Madam Kofo Abiola, noted for her signature sky-scraper headgears.

Since the coming of GSM service providers, the use of personality symbols has been one of the defining nature of their product positioning in the market. According to Oladimeji (2014) quoting a statement from Glo office on the use of brand personality, he writes that:

> as brand representatives, they are vested with the responsibility of positively motivating their followers from all strata of life, not only to join the Globacom network, but also to recommend its products and services to others in their circles of influence.

METHODOLOGY

The survey research method was adopted for this study. The method deals with subjects concerning all works of life and is suitable for collecting data on attitude of people on certain subject area. Lagos

residents were chosen as the population of the study owing to the fact that most of today's telecommunication service providers started in that state.

A total number of 150 respondents were selected for the study in the senatorial district in Lagos State which was eventually chosen after applying the multi-stage sampling method from the three senatorial districts. Three Local Government Areas (LGA) were selected from the selected senatorial district and it was from these LGAs that three streets were randomly selected. 50 copies of questionnaire were distributed for each of these streets. Of the 150 copies distributed 143 copies were returned, putting the response rate at 95%.

DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

Of the 143 respondents, 71 were male respondents making 49.7% of the total number, while a total number of 72 females responded to the questionnaire. This represents 50.3% of the total figure. Again, the age of respondents were grouped into; 15-20, 21-25, 26-30, 31-35 and others. Of this, those in the 15-20 age bracket represent 38.4% (n=55); 21-25 age bracket represent 16.8% (n=24); 26-30 has 21.7% (n=31); 18.9% falls within 31-35 age bracket and those categorized as others represent 4.2% (n=6) of the 143 respondents.

Majority of the respondents' educational level falls within those with first degree and those categorized as others (that is those who have other certificates other than SSCE, OND, BSC/ND). These two categories returned 32.2% each (n=46); OND category returned 7% (n=10), and SSCE came back with total of 41 respondents, representing 28.9% of the figure.

RQ 1: What is the role of personality symbols in product positioning?

Table 1: Respondents' view of the role of personality symbols in GSM service provider positioning

Sex	Responses					Total
	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair	Bad	
Male	7.6% (n=11)	7.6% (n=11)	19% (n=27)	14% (n=20)	14 (n=2)	49.7% (n=71)
Female	6.2% (n=9)	11.9% (n=17)	22.33% (n=32)	7.6% (n=11)	2% (n=3)	50.3% (n=72)
Total	1% (n=20)	19.6% (n=28)	41.2% (n=59)	21.7% (n=31)	3.5% (n=5)	100% (n=143)

Majority of the respondents, 41.2% (n=59), rated it as good, 21.7% (n=31) rated it as being fair, 19.6% (n=28) says it is very good but only 1% of the respondents think that the role of personality symbols in GSM service provider positioning is excellent, while 3.5% say it is bad.

Table 2: Response as to whether personality symbols influence product positioning in the market

Sex	Response		Total
	Yes	No	
Male	28.7% (n=41)	21% (n=30)	49.6% (n=71)
Female	32.9% (n=47)	17.4% (n=25)	50.4% (n=72)
Total	61.5% (n=88)	38.5% (n=55)	100% (n=143)

61.5 % of the respondents say personality symbols influence the position the GSM service provider occupies in the market while 38.5% of them says no. when asked to give their reasons for their choice, 71.5% of them says the number of times a personality symbol was used

by service provider confirms that it leads others, 20% say when they see a personality symbol in an advert everywhere it register their presence over the others in the market. However, 8.5% says the frequency does not necessarily mean that the service provider is the leader in the market.

Clearly from the response above, use of personality symbols influence how people see a particular GSM service provider with regards to its position as the market leader as affirmed by Halim (2012) where he notes that use of personality symbols is a type of advertising execution that involves developing a central character through which the brand delivers its benefits. It also allows the brand to build an identity and to differentiate itself from the competitors. In essence, the usage of personality symbols in promoting a product has a place in the heart of consumers of such products as the personality's image helps to hold a subconscious imagery of the product. This follows the trend when respondents were asked to list their perceived leading GSM providers in the Nigerian market. 71.5% indicated MTN first and Globacom second followed by Airtel. 40.2% indicated Globacom as the leading GSM followed by MTN, Airtel and Etisalat. The response of those who indicated MTN tallied with the top listing for GSM providers in Nigeria.

Table 3: Respondents' view of which GSM provider is No1. between Globacom and MTN

Sex	Response		Total
	Globacom	MTN	
Male	16.8% (n=24)	32.8% (n=47)	49.6% (n=71)
Female	16.1% (n=23)	34.3% (n=49)	50.4% (n=72)
Total	32.9% (47)	67.1% (n=96)	100% (n=143)

Again, majority of the respondents (67.1%) say MTN is the number one GSM provider rating it over Globacom. This assertion however, is not backed by any empirical evidence and is thus assumed to be the imagination of the respondents most probably based on the fact that the MTN GSM network became functional much earlier than the Globacom network. Now if the respondents agreed that personality symbols makes the respondents rate MTN over Globacom, it would be right then to say that personality symbols can influence product position in the mind of the public and the marketplace.

RQ 2: What is the role of personality symbols in entrenching brand loyalty?

Table 4: Respondents' view as to whether personality symbols influence brand loyalty

Sex	**Responses**		**Total**
	Yes	No	
Male	28.7% (n=41)	21% (n=30)	49.6% (n=71)
Female	32.9% (n=47)	17.4% (n=25)	50.4% (n=72)
Total	61.5% (n=88)	38.5% (n=55)	100% (n=143)

Table 4 shows that personality symbols is vital to the decision a consumer takes when selecting a brand and the eventual decision to stay loyal to the brand. It must be noted that brand loyalty is a result of the brand ability to deliver on its promises and the anticipated needs of the consumer. This view is thus supported by Zeren (2009) when he asserts that personality symbols are sincere and consistent. Thus, the identity built is measured by the respondents' believe in both the personality used in advertising the product and the ability of the telecommunication provider to keep to their promise of good service.

So when asked to rate the influence of personality symbol on their patronage of GSM services from providers, 42.6% rated MTN personality influence as very good on their choice, 26.6% says it is excellent, 26.6% also say it is good, while both fair and bad carries 2.1% each.

On the other hand, 47.5% vote 'very good' for Globacom, 28.7% rated it good, 12.6% say it is excellent, 7% see it as fair and 4.2% described it as bad. Although, 47.5% rated the personality symbols as very good on the part of Globacom to MTN's 42.6%, a huge number of the respondents (26.6%) rated MTN as excellent against Globacom 12.6%. This response perhaps informs the increasing use of personality symbols by various GSM service providers.

RQ3: Is the use of personality symbols responsible for the current positioning of MTN and GLOBACOM in the GSM market?

Table 5: Respondents' view of the influence of personality symbols on MTN and Globacom position in the market

GSM service providers	Responses		Total
	Yes	No	
MTN	12.6% (n=18)	37% (n=53)	49.75% (n=71)
Globacom	18.9% (n=27)	31.5% (n=45)	50.3% (n=72)
Total	31.5% (n=45)	68.5% (n=98)	100 (143)

From Table 5 above, 12.6% (n=18) of the respondents said Yes that MTN current position in the market is influenced by its use of personality symbols, while 37% (n=53) said No. similarly, 18.9%(n=27) of the respondents Yes that Globacom current position in the market is attributable to its use of personality symbols, while 31.5% (n=45) said No.

Furthermore, majority (68.5%) of the respondents said Yes that the position of both GSM service providers in the market cannot be attributed solely to their use of personality symbols. This position affirms the assertion of Belch and Belch (2010), Aaker and Myers (1987) and Trout and Ries (1972) as they see product positioning as relating to "the image of the product and or other brand relative to competing products or brands. The position of a product or brand is the key factor in communicating the benefits it offers and differentiate it from the competition. Hence, personality symbols does not have a place in this wise.

CONCLUSION

To successfully position a brand in the market especially in a fiercely competitive market like that of GSM services, it goes beyond the use of personality symbols. It entails identifying the markets with unfulfilled need, segmenting the market, targeting the segment and positioning one's product or services using a variety of marketing strategies.

For GSM service consumers, Quality of service is very important, along with fair billing and other marketing strategies. It is when all this has been done that the marketers can communicate through its personality symbols the specifically designed message to the identified target audience.

From this study, it is revealed that use of personality symbols play important role in product positioning. The choice of personality symbols goes a long way in connecting the brand to the target customers who see these personality symbols as their role model. The study revealed that the position MTN and Globacom occupy in the marketplace amongst the other GSM service providers is enhanced by the frequency of use of personality symbols among several other factors.

In other words, using personality symbols as a product positioning strategy will work best only if the price is right, the quality of service is excellent, and if the correct strategies and the right promotional activities are adopted.

In view of this, it is therefore recommended that:

i. Use of personality symbols as product positioning strategy must be used to complement other marketing communication efforts especially quality of service.

ii. In the choice of personality symbols, care must be taken to ensure that the right person is chosen that can connect with the right target customers in the market segment. It is only when they do that they can create a message that will resonate with the target prospects.

iii. It is pertinent for GSM service providers to constantly strengthen and refresh their personality symbols to keep abreast of the changing tastes of the target audience.

iv. It is important to have a flexible personality symbols for different campaign so as to accommodate the changing taste of the target audience.

v. For a product to be well positioned in the marketplace, the quality of the product must be high and the price must be competitive. According to Belch and Belch, for this to work effectively, the quality must be better than other brands in the marketplace.

vi. Above all, personality symbols can only help create product loyalty if its psychological and sociological attributes match the needs and expectations of the consumers.

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CONVERGENCE AND PRINT MEDIA NEWS PRODUCTION IN NIGERIA: A STUDY OF *DAILY TRUST*, NIGERIA.

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Abstract

The rise of digital technology has raised concerns about the traditional roles of journalists vis-à-vis the quality of information they produce. A number of the concerns revolve around the decline of traditional journalists in favour of the blogger or the untrained journalist, and the concentration of ownership structure in a few hands which could lead to more avenues of information dissemination but less information provided. This paper examines the concept of convergence and the challenges traditional print journalists contend with when confronted with new technologies which threaten their craft. It specifically examines how Nigerian journalists particularly the print journalists have been pressured into becoming 'convergence' journalists. The study beams a searchlight on *Daily Trust* newspaper to see what has changed between the print edition and the online edition, and how the paper has responded to the challenges of convergence. To determine this, the study employs qualitative content analysis to compare its online edition and print edition based on some

units of analysis. Our finding is that there is not much difference between the online edition and print edition. The study concludes that Nigerian journalists, especially of the print media genre, need to do more in terms of capacity building if they are to stay relevant in the ever-changing media world.

***Keywords*:** convergence, new media, print media, multitasking, cross-ownership

INTRODUCTION

Convergence has brought radical and fundamental changes to mass media that are not simply technological (Allan, 1999). At a structural level, the boundaries between traditional and new ways of communicating are becoming less clear and the relationships between different media are characterized by increasing cooperation, compatibility and connectivity. The processes of digitization and convergence appear to be irreversible. The future of the media seems to be digital yet the implications of these developments are difficult to predict. Changes occurring at different levels have raised questions about the way traditional media organizations will adapt to the new environment or even whether they will survive at all (Allan, 1999; Cottle, 1999; Burns, 2005).

The print media genre has witnessed enormous challenges as well as opportunities as result of media convergence. Convergence has emerged as a buzzword in the theory and practice of mass communication and allied disciplines such as economics, politics, the arts, etc. Convergence has become synonymous with rapid developments in mass media technology, markets, production, content, and reception (Quandt and Singer, 2009).

At the level of news production the current climate seems to suggest that convergence is more a case of evolution rather than

revolution. As the media industries are converging and traditional news organizations expand into new media, their production processes must meet new demands. Newsrooms and journalists are moving from the era of single-media to *multi*-media reporting. New integrated newsrooms are conceived for exactly this reason: to share resources and to manage a multimedia production process (Cottle, 1999).

These developments affect the organization of newsrooms and the working practices of journalists in profound ways. Multiskilling, for instance, is a trend with increasing acceptance in news media, as journalists have to cope with a widening range of responsibilities in order to get their jobs done. Cottle (1999) claims that the increasing demands on journalists create a more pressured working environment which ultimately has a negative impact on journalistic standards. But what exactly does multiskilling mean in large-scale, national news organizations and how are the working practices of journalists changing? Are journalists being overloaded? Are job definitions changing too? (Cottle, 1999; Scott, 2000).

Multiskilling however is raising some issues that require further investigation. On the question whether "multiskilling" is better understood as "deskilling" we need to distinguish first of all between the kinds of multiskilling to be found in broadcast and print journalism. In broadcasting a growing number of journalists might edit or shoot the images for a story, while others might report for more than one medium (radio and the Internet). In print journalism, multiskilling actually refers to writing for both the newspaper and the website. These are four different cases of multiskilling which have to be approached individually as they do not have the same implications for the work of journalists (Cottle, 1999; Scott, 2000).

This article explores the impact on journalism inside traditional news organizations and how they are responding to the challenges of

convergence. The term *traditional* here refers to *analogue* media, i.e., broadcasting and print media, and is used to distinguish them from digital media. By focusing on traditional media we can examine whether and to what extent the process of convergence is eroding the boundaries between them, whether traditional concepts and ideals of news production are being challenged particularly for the print media which is our focus in this study, and how these developments are affecting journalists and the work they do (Cottle, 1999; Scott, 2000). This paper addresses convergence and print media news production with particular emphasis on Nigeria.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past twenty years or so, far-reaching transformations have been witnessed in societies around the globe. Many of these changes have been linked to rapid developments in computer technology and communication networks, and affecting nearly all the facets of social life, including the economy, politics, science and the arts (Quandt and Singer, 2009).

The organization of public communication has, in tandem, been undergoing a dramatic shift. The once stable system of mass media now faces a lot of competition from multi-faceted, constantly mutating information and entertainment sources, to which people connect through interactive technologies such as computers, mobile phones, personal digital assistants (PDAs) and gaming consoles (Quandt & Singer, 2009).

The term "Convergence", which originally simply meant an increasing correspondence between two phenomena or entities, such as two media technologies at some future time, has been stretched to cover all the connotations mentioned above. The possibility of these multiple interpretations has led to the conclusion that "convergence is

a dangerous word", (Silverstone, 1995), even as the discussion is far from being focused.

Convergence has also been used to describe the blurring of boundaries between fixed and mobile communication such as broadcast, telephone, mobile and home networks, media information, and communication; and most notably telecommunications, media and information technology (Silverstone, 1995).

In its media context, the term has been applied to technological developments such as the integration of video on internet, marketing efforts involving cross promotion of media partners, and corporate mergers. All these approaches to convergence, though differing, incorporate the notion of process, and most stress the basis of technological developments. This has led to the common misunderstanding that technology "drives" media change, a technological determinism that ignores social factors (Filak, 2004). However, social scientists have instead stressed the human aspects of developmental determinism, for instance, describing how people use and make sense of the new tools (Williams, 2000).

But journalism scholars and practitioners have however focused their attention on the production of content for multiple media platforms and associated changes in work routines, skills, and newsroom culture. For those in the field of journalism, therefore, the term "convergence" has a specialized and socially relevant meaning, and entails planning and producing stories based on the relative use and strength of each medium. Yet convergence understood in this context must also involve cross-promotion of partnered products but which must also retain elements of competition among journalists in the different newsrooms (Dailey, Demo and Spillman, 2005).

The basic type of cross-media production can be witnessed around the world in form of a relatively cautious attempt to cope with

technological changes and user expectations. The question of how to do journalism in a networked digital environment has been especially important for media firms, which often have materials for large media companies from various media platforms, TV and print, and are interested in developing synergistic strategies for using them. The simplest solution is to shovel content from one platform to the other (Singer, 2005).

A more sophisticated convergence is to produce parallel content for two media platforms, with one digital. With these cross-platforms digital content production, journalists are moving away from creating stories for a single medium; instead journalists are gathering information in a content pool and disseminating it in a variety of formats including Internet, and increasingly portable devices such as cellular phones and PDAs. Journalists must therefore learn how to communicate effectively using multi-faceted vocabulary of media technologies than they did in the past (Singer, 2006).

Despite these substantial changes in the news production process, this model of convergence has continued to depend on a central organization or institution to gather and disseminate information. In many ways, this remains a mass media top-down approach to publishing. The convergence of media formats around an online delivery platform opens up the journalist's work to the other core characteristics of Internet: Not only is it based on digital information and therefore capable of supporting multiple types of content, it is also a network not just technologically but also in a social sense of connecting communicative agents as both individuals and institutionalized actors (Nip, 2006).

This has far-reaching implications because networks are necessarily based on centralization even when we know that they typically have central and peripheral parts. This is because these networks are subject

to laws that affect information distribution, with a structure is not necessarily hierarchical (Monge and Contractor; Scott, 2000). Thus a "converged" media production can also include information in various formats, from users who were in the past more or less passive audience for journalistic output.

Convergence, Media and Society

The deepening of media space through user and community participation has represented a form of convergence that is likely to pose an even greater challenge than the one posed by the need to master new tools and techniques. Since the Internet is both a technological and a social network, information can circulate from one communicator to many others without the help of an institutional "mass media." As a result, convergence between producers and consumers creates what Burns (2005) calls "produsage." This shift affects not just the way journalists go about their jobs but also the way they conceptualize those jobs and their roles within society. The nature of public communication is also subject to change, with potential for greater inclusion of individuals and communities (Burns, 2005).

Moreover, some researchers envision a kind of society in which institutionalized media have a diminishing role and can even disappear altogether once every citizen in the network can obtain a personalized set of information from every possible source without the need for an institutionalized pre-selection authority called "journalism" (Deuze, 2006a, 2006b; Hans, 2005; Hartley, 2000; Jenkins, 2006; Nip, 2006). Yet, other scholars (Hanitzsch, 2006; Schonbach, 1997) have countered that institutionalized forms of journalism guarantee a certain product quality, reduce the complexity of social communication and the work necessary to create it and offer the society a shared meaning in the form of content that reaches mass audiences. Indeed, empirical studies of participatory forms of journalism in some Western countries seem to support this position, as does a long-standing pattern of

unfulfilled hopes that new media technologies will significantly expand participation in civic affairs (Paulson, Heinonen, Domingo and Quandt, 2007; McQuail, 2000). Regardless of what the future holds, the changes within journalism are substantial, and recent developments that stress user input and the role of communities only increase the challenges. Scholarly investigation of journalistic convergence has therefore been multi-faceted.

Convergence and Print Media Production

At first the newspaper and magazine industry reacted poorly to the emergence of convergence. This type of negative reaction led to a steep decline in their productivity both as individual journalists and print journalism as an institution. This also led to lack of preparation for the future that had long been predicted, and which journalists themselves had reported and covered (Quandt and Singer, 2009).
Rather than embrace the future, many newspapers/magazines and other media groups expected the new technologies which birthed convergence to be a temporary inconvenience and a fry in the pan. For a fact, technology was offering change; but change in consumer and advertiser perception, change in the use of news and how news is viewed by the consumer and advertiser, was also part of the convergence. Painfully, print media industry did not anticipate this change but they should have or they should have asked questions and be able to define their path to growth and success. When you embed the massive worldwide economic decline, then you have strong reasons for the need to change (Deuze, 2006a, 2006b).

Consequently, and in order to survive in the ever technological environment, many print media organizations decided that time was ripe to offer free access to online editions and reductions or eliminations of traditional printed editions. Yet, to their chagrin, they soon realize that free news was not as important since nearly all news is now free. Moreover, this move was seen to be knee-jerk reaction.

This is because, recent survey indicates that the younger generation ironically was moving back to the printed sources. This has made some scholars to describe convergence as both planned integration and chaotic integration (Bressers and Meeds, 2007).

Media convergence is, therefore, composed of content, communication, distribution (CLOUD) and the consumer. When you add support for advertising model, and the need to be targeted with branded content, you would begin to notice that change has a greater impact on change in the industry as well.

Bressers and Meeds (2007), whose research has focused on the convergence of the newspaper and online operations, have suggested four areas that would help ensure levels of integration including, organizational and management issues, communication and audience issues, physical proximity and equipment issues and workplace and content issues.

Taken together, these suggest a potential significant shift in newsroom culture. Other scholarly investigations have also highlighted the importance of these changes, and blending of cultural dynamics specific to individual media organizations is seen as key to the success of convergence (Lawson-Bordes, 2003).

Moreover, differing routines in the print media have the potential to lead to stereotyping, conflict over staff and time management, and difficulties related to news flow (Silcock and Keith, 2006). Singer (2004) has suggested that convergence has propelled print journalists in particular to undergo a process of resocialization; though many still thought of online and broadcast counterparts as distinctly separate and had little communication with them. However, it has been observed that newsroom routines and structures did not translate seamlessly across platforms, and competitive tendencies could block small requests for cooperation or information sharing

among convergence partners. Filak (2004) observed that there is a strong tendency among print journalists to see their professional culture as superior to their counterparts in broadcast or other media genres.

Miljan (2008) has argued that new technology has raised its own challenge and this has fundamentally altered the print media as we knew it. One of the challenges associated with new technology is the cross-ownership of the platforms of newspapers, internet, television and even radio in the same market. The other is the realization by same companies that they provide less content in the different platforms by re-purposing existing content. In doing so, they can have few journalists do more.

Another dimension to the argument, as Scott (2005) puts it is that "shared content means few voices covering important events stretched across the network of co-ordinated news providers. These providers, no longer in direct competition with one another, might not be worth paying for because of its removal from public access. Scott (2005) was actually referring to newspaper and television cross-ownership, but as the internet becomes more mainstream, this criticism can be applied to newspaper and internet partnerships.

Convergence has also affected the historic roles of print media journalists. To recoup losses, media corporations have redefined what a journalist is (Miljan, 2008). According to research, newspaper in most major centres of the world have been trying to recover lost revenues as readers have shifted from printed copy to online and other digital forms of information. Some of the cost-cutting plans involve outright buyouts and layoffs. This has been nicely described as "transformation in the marketplaces. Today, a print journalist is everything from editorial writer to photographer to reporter to columnist to bureau chief", argued a researcher.

For instance, a content analysis of a U.S-based newspaper by some scholars such as (Huang, Rademakers, Fayemimo and Dunlap, 2004), across units of analysis such as enterprise, significance, fairness and balance, authoritativeness and localization, showed that the respondents believe that quality has not really dropped; but nearly 40% of respondents believe that quality will definitely drop. The same number also said that quality would not drop. The researchers thus concluded that there was no reason to worry that future journalists trained on multiple media platforms would be jacks of all trades and masters of none, or would produce more reporting (Huang, Rademakers, Fayemimo and Dunlap, 2004).

However, in addition to blogs, other forms of "collaborative user-generated content have drawn public and scholarly recognition of their importance to journalism". The shift in institutionalized control over the publishing processes to user-driven offering, has been noted for some time, but became a focal point of interest with the advent of "Web 2.0" idea (O'Reilly, 2005).

Web 2.0 emphasized the social aspects of digital journalism. This socio-technological convergence brings together an older tradition of participatory, activist media and internet publishing, pushed both by user expectations and technological advances. Collaborative formats include *Wikipedia*, *YouTube*, *Flickr*, and *MySpace*, which are not necessarily journalistic in nature, but user-driven by online news such as *OhMyNews*, *IndyMedia* and *Wikinews* (O'Reilly, 2005. Duyile (2011:162) contends that the "emergence of digital media may encourage journalists old and new, to take advantage of digitalization technology to open new vistas on the balcony of specialized news reporting, news features, news analysis on digital media".

Convergence and ethical issues

Merton (1957) averred that many aspects of convergence, such as the generation of journalistic content for multiple media platforms and the incorporation of content created by people who are not journalists, raise broader issues. Convergence thus not only affects the inner workings of journalism; it also has an impact on other societal spheres including political, economic, and cultural ones that influence and are influenced by the existence and functions of journalism. For example, like all Internet users, political and economic actor from candidates to corporations can bypass journalists in order to communicate directly with others in the network. Similarly, journalists have expanded and now have easier access to original source materials. This access can speed up the journalistic process and foster openness. However, it can also have negative effects; lazy journalists may simply copy and paste online information.

For instance (Deuze,2006a; Deuze, 2006b) argued that there is an ongoing discussion about copyright issues and intellectual property in converging information environments. Collaborative Web sites such as *YouTube* and *Wikipedia* contain materials that have been copied from other sources; the large scale of these copyright breaches and the vast amounts of readily available free online content raise the possibility of a growing tolerance for copy and paste as a valid means of content production. Indeed, political, economic, and cultural changes raise a host of ethical issues. While ethics can be "a flag behind which to rally the journalistic troops in defense of commercial, audience-driven or managerial encroachments" as well as an emblem of legitimacy (Deuze, 2005), the normative principles that guide practitioners remain important criteria for evaluating ongoing changes.

Although all journalists emphasize public service as an overarching ethical norm and professional commitment, observers have expressed concerns about the potential of convergence to undermine this journalistic mission. Among the issues raised have

been conflicts of interest created by new corporate partnerships (Davis and Craft, 2000), a blurring of boundaries between commercial and editorial operations (Williams, 2002), and an overemphasis on cross-promotion rather than enhanced news coverage (Ketterer, Weir, Smethers and Black, 2004). Some journalists have also argued that reduced competition diminished their incentive to hustle to get a story; others feared a drift toward overly sensationalistic or entertainment-oriented news judgment and an excess amount of time or space devoted to promotional efforts rather than civically desirable information (Singer, 2006). In addition to concerns associated with converged newsrooms, the transition to a converged information space, a network in which everyone has the ability to produce and disseminate content, also raises a number of ethical issues. Journalistic autonomy, particularly over determining the appropriateness of practitioners' behavior, is called into question in a media environment filled with people more than eager to serve as watchdogs on the watchdogs (Singer, 2007).

Similarly, the nature of journalistic accountability has changed. A request that the public simply trust the journalist's claims to be accurate, complete, and even-handed in gathering and presenting the news shifts to an expectation, if not a demand, that the journalist use the capabilities of the network to provide evidence for those claims (Hayes, Singer and Ceppos, 2007). More broadly, the transition from a gatekeeping role to a place within a network entails a change in the rationale behind such journalistic norms as truth-telling and fairness. These ethical principles no longer can be based on a belief that without the journalist, the public will not receive truthful or unbiased information and thus will necessarily be misinformed. Rather, these ethical principles are vital because they form the foundations of social relationships, and a network is constituted by such relationships (Nel, Ward and Rawlinson, 2007; Singer, forthcoming).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This discourse is anchored on Polymedia theory. This concept which was introduced by Madianou and Miller (2012, p.125) is about the existence of media-saturated environments in which media technologies gain significance in relation to each other.

Polymedia theory according to University of London (undated) tries to show how people have the option of many different media to communicate with, and that the platform people choose can have significant consequences for their social relationships. As a theory, polymedia according to experts have become an integral part of social and moral issue instead of one of cost and access. Geismar (2010) affirms that polymedia is closer to terms such as multi-channel or multi-platform.

Madianou (2014, p.667) argues that "more than any other technology, smartphones are the forefront of technological convergence." He contends that polymedia, with its emphasis on how technologies, media and platform are relatively defined with a composite structure which users navigate, is well suited for smartphones.

Polymedia theory is apt in convergence discourse because it is the "coming together of things that were previously separate." (Meikle and Young, 2011, p.2).

METHODOLOGY

The study is anchored on qualitative content analysis. This is based on the following units of analysis: Similarity or repetition, adaptation, representation and uniqueness. These units of analysis were authors construction and were adopted based on news convergent variables.

Repetition or Similarity is used here to connote stories that appear in both print and online in almost the exact manner.

Adaptation refers to articles that are similar in nature and which appear in both print and online but with significant changes such as cut for space, appear as updates, or length, etc.

Representation takes the concept of adaptation a notch higher. Representational articles are usually on the same topic, but with different point of views. These stories are not similar enough to be marked as adaptation. The articles in this category vary and such variations could be news story in the online edition, while the print edition could be in form of editorial or opinion. The article must contain significant changes to be considered as representational.

Uniqueness refers to when a story appear only in print or only online. Such stories do not span both mediums.

Sample Method

A consecutive five editions of both print and online editions of *Daily Trust* newspaper spanning Monday 2-Friday 6 February, 2015 were chosen and analyzed based on the following units of analysis. The stories were chosen for their uniqueness, diversity and prominence or topicality, as this period was marked by intense electioneering campaign on the one hand, and the Boko Haram insurgency on the other hand. The stories picked were restricted to only the front page meaning that only five prominent or topical stories were chosen. The limited sample is in line with Wimmer and Dominick's (2006: p:92) postulation that "a huge sample can be poor in terms of quality, as a small sample. A large number of people or elements do not automatically make the good sample."

DISCUSSIONS

What has been discovered from the stories sampled is that all of them followed the same pattern of appearing the same in both the print and online editions, thus satisfying our first unit of analysis which is repetition/similarity. This goes further to show that the Nigerian media, especially the print genre still lags behind in embracing the trendy and the new phenomenon in global media architecture: media convergence. For instance, the lead front page story of Mon day, February 2, 2015, which reads "Troops repel another attack in Maiduguri", appeared exactly the same in both the print and web edition. There is no change in the heading, grammar, or sentence length or any other visible indices we might employ to analyze the story.

On day two, Tuesday February 3, 2015, the same scenario played out. The same for the other three days sampled.

We have also argued in the preceding pages that convergence is not only a media strategy but also an economic one in which communication companies seek financial leverage by making the various media infrastructure they own come together and work together. This strategy, media scholars (Dupagne and Garrison, 2006; Silcock and Keith, 2006) argued is a product of three elements: corporate concentration, a situation in which fewer large companies own large swathe of media properties; digitalization, whereby media content produced in a universal computer language can be easily adapted for use in any medium; and government regulation, which has increasingly allowed media conglomerates to own different kinds of media such as TV, radio, newspaper in the same markets and which has also permitted content carriage companies (cable TV, suppliers) to own content producers such as specialty TV channels.

The common ground for any process labeled as media convergence is the blurring of limits between different media

professionals, skills, formats, product strategies and the blurring between the roles of producers and consumers. Thus scholars have proposed what they referred to as "analytically structured convergence" under four dimensions of: Integrated production (content); multi-skilled professionals (source); Multiplatform delivery (medium) and active audience (receiver) (Deuze, 2004).

We also gleaned from the literature review that print journalism is very much alive. What is however inevitable is a traditional form of journalism now locked in a fierce battle with an ever evolving world of new media technologies. Consequently, it has been forced to accommodate the whims of the new media technologies, which is also the whim of immediacy which in turn is one of the vital features of the digital age.

What this further entails is that it is high time the print media related with the audience not just on a daily basis, but also on an hourly basis and possibly on a minute by minute basis if they are to make any appreciable impact on their audience (Mashable, 2011).

It has also been noted that Nigeria, like many other developing countries, is yet to fully embrace the concept of media convergence. This is not so much for lack of capacity on the part of media practitioners as of business decision on the part of ownership. It is also important to stress that base on investigation,no Nigerian media outfit has yet embraced cross-ownership as a form of media convergence. What we have witnessed is a situation where an individual owns separately a newspaper outfit or radio or television outfit. The commonest example is NdukaObaigbena who owns *ThisDay* newspaper and Arise satellite television separately; and Bola Tinubu who owns *TheNation* newspaper and TVC satellite television separately.

We however found out that what most Nigeria print media do is to have a paired edition of their stories in both printed and online formats sometimes with slight variations or no variations at all.

Moreover, the fear that media convergence would lead to loss of jobs is way off the mark and untenable. The fear can be likened to a smokescreen by journalists who lack the capacity to withstand the rigours and demands of convergence. We arrive at this conclusion because, the quality of blogging and other online platforms have been found wanting compared to the traditional media.

The polymedia concept used in this study can be appreciated in the convergence discourse in the Nigerian context from the angle of what Carrol (2002) cited in Flores (2010, p.9) likened to teenage sex:

i. No one knows what is it but think it must be great.
ii. Everyone thinks that everyone else is doing it.
iii. Those who say they are doing it are probably lying.
iv. The few who are doing it aren't doing it well.
v. Once they start doing it, they realize that it is going to take them a long time to do it.
vi. They'll soon start realizing that there is no right way to do it.

CONCLUSIONS

The convergence media environment poses a number of challenges and opportunities for journalism practitioners and scholars, who face both methodological and conceptual issues. For instance, the standard tool of content analysis becomes far more complicated not only because of the dynamic nature of the medium but also because of the inclusion of many more types of sources than in the past including users as well as journalists. Network analysis offers fruitful avenues for exploration of all forms of digital communication (Tremayne, 2004) but to date has been used by relatively few journalism scholars.

In general, new or significantly revised research methods will be needed to explore and understand the different forms of news and the sorts of sources providing it. Major conceptual work is also needed. Journalism researchers will need to define new roles and new stages in the communication process to accommodate an expanded range of information collectors, editors, and disseminators. Scholars who focus on media audiences also must revise their thinking as lines separating information producers and consumers continue to blur.

More important, tomorrow's journalists will need to integrate the voices and viewpoints of others within the network to a far greater extent than is currently the case. Journalists will never again control the flow of information in the way they once did; a media environment in which only a very few voices had an opportunity to be heard and those only with the permission of a media gatekeeper is gone for good. Journalists in a network must acknowledge that they will retain power only to the extent that they share it. Without facilitating the broad exchange, and not merely the delivery, of information, they will find themselves becoming increasingly irrelevant to the conversation taking place around them. The real power of convergence is in relinquishing the power of controlling information and fostering the power of sharing.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings in this study, the following recommendations are put forward:

- That universities in Nigeria and other journalism trained institutions in the country should mount well equipped integrated classrooms with multi media facilities to incubate multi-skilled professionals who will navigate the converged media landscape.
- That integrated news room is desirable and inevitable in a converged media environment. In this vein, we recommend

training and retraining of journalists on multiple media platforms by media owners to fill this very important convergence gap.

- The issue of context (inadequate production) needs to be seriously addressed by Nigerian print journalists. Creativity and research are needed in that direction.
- We endorsed Singer's position for Nigerian journalists if we are to make any headway in media convergence atmosphere. According to him, "journalists must learn how to communicate effectively using multi-faceted vocabulary of media technologies than they did in the past" (Singer, 2006)

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APPRAISING THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF CAMPUS BROADCASTING TO COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

There is hardly any society, community or state that can function properly today without the mass media because they keep us informed with what is going on across the globe. As a matter of fact, the mass media have played important role in various areas of societal development which include economy, politics, health, human empowerment among others. Campus broadcast stations are currently springing up across tertiary institutions in Nigeria; especially those offering mass communication and related courses. This was borne out of the necessity to equip students with the requisite practical experience and to fulfill one among many requirements of various regulators of our higher education. This research paper therefore, attempts to appraise the exact role and contributions of campus

broadcasting to community development by cross-examining the activities of three selected campus-based stations; *Unilag F.M*, *Diamond F.M* (U.I) and *Unilorin F.M*. The research is anchored on the development media and democratic-participant theory as it employed survey method with the use of questionnaire. Thirty (30) respondents were accidentally selected in each of the campuses. The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Findings showed that the campus-based stations are not giving much attention to their host communities, especially on developmental programmes that can improve their standard of living. However, strategies to abate the various challenges confronting campus broadcasting were discussed. It was recommended among others that management and authorities in charge of these stations should provide an enabling environment for them to operate without necessarily interfering in their activities, operations and smooth running.

Keywords: Campus Broadcasting, Community, Development, Mass Media.

INTRODUCTION

The mass media plays a very crucial role in developmental process.There are growing concerns among critical stakeholders in Nigeria as to what community broadcasting entails and what role or purpose it is meant to serve. However, the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) which is the official regulator of broadcasting activities in Nigeria clearly stated the mission of community broadcasting. The NBC in its revised 2003 code make provisions for the establishment of community broadcasting which can either be campus-based or rural based. These clearly stated goals have given campus broadcast station (radio or television) a dual function which is to serve as a training arm for students of mass communication and

allied courses, and as well as giving adequate coverage to the host community.

Apparently, the establishment of community broadcasting in Nigeria was as a result of societal pressure on the government to facilitate the emerging Nigerian democracy by creating a more pluralistic media system that will engage rural development, (Dunu & Ugbo 2007, p. 39).

Nigeria as a nation is yet to experience typical operation of community broadcasting despite the wave of community broadcasting around the world. This is contrary to the claim by the National broadcasting Commission (NBC) that campus radio stations are community radios. The operation of those stations still reflect top-to-bottom communication model because, the stations are mostly education curricular-based, despite several bottlenecks that exists in how it is being managed and operated (Dunu & Ugbo, 2007).

No doubt, academic institutions serve as the avenue through which the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) began the experiment to develop community broadcasting in Nigeria. This is in consonance with the recognition of community broadcasting as the third tier of broadcasting and a key agent of democratisation for socio-cultural, educational and economic development, and in line with the African Charter on Broadcasting. Starting from *Unilag F.M* in the year 2002 (NBC, 2003); campus broadcast stations have grown to over forty-eight (48) as at August 2018, in many campuses spread across the country. Hence campus radio is now springing up on yearly basis (Asemah, Anum & Edegoh 2013, p. 18).

Campus broadcast stations are licensed principally to train students in broadcasting and other related fields like engineering, information technology, creative arts, use of English, drama etc, and

to provide opportunities for practical experience as well as promoting social well-being of the campus and its host community. Tertiary institutions play a vital role in producing professionals for the industry through the teaching and practice of Mass Communication and other broadcast related courses. Section 2(1) (p) of the NBC Act No. 38 of1992 (as amended) empowers the Commission to accredit curricula and programmes for tertiary institutions in Nigeria that offer Mass Communication in relation to broadcasting.

However, various issues have been raised as touching the exact role of community broadcasting in the overall development of the community that constitutes its reach. Although, stakeholders and experts in broadcasting have pinpointed various developmental roles that community radio is meant to serve. However these campus broadcast stations which are categorized as community-oriented by the NBC are being hindered to deliver in the areas of community development, these and other reasons are what this study tends to critically examined.

Research Questions

As a guide, the following research questions were formulated:

1. To what extent have *community radio stations* contributed to their local communities through the content of their programmes?
2. How effective and beneficial are the various programmes on *community radio stations* to the audience in their quest for information?
3. To what extent have *community radio stations* been able to meet their audience expectations in terms of programme content?
4. To what extent have the selected *community radio stations* affected their host community towards promoting social development and change?

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Concepts of Development

The term "development" often carries an assumption of growth and expansion. During the industrial era, development was strongly connected to increased speed, volume and size.

Various conceptual interpretations have been used to pursue development, among which are economic development, economic growth, and growth with equity. Asemah (2010) sees development as a gradual process of bringing about positive attitudinal change in the people. It is a continuous process of improving their living conditions, through positive change. The essence of development according to Asemah is the development of people through change in their attitude, leading to change of habit. This implies that merely changing things without concurrent change of habit or attitude is not a healthy development. However, many people are currently questioning the concept of growth for numerous reasons – a realization that more isn't always better, or an increasing respect for reducing outside dependencies and lowering levels of consumerism. Similarly, Keghku (2005, p. 53) notes that the term "development" may not always mean growth, but rather implies change.

Understanding Community Development

The community development process takes charge of the conditions and factors that influence a community and changes the quality of life of its members. Although there is no generally acceptable definition of community development, what is acceptable however, is the fact that community development is an agenda that shows whether a given society is making progress and promoting the overall well-being of its citizens.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) sees community development as a process of socio-economic change, involving the transformation of agrarian society, in order to reach a

common set of development goals, based on the capacities and the needs of the people (Owo, in Nwosu, 2007, p. 305). To Anibueze, in Nwosu, Aliede and Nsude (2005, p. 36), community development is a strategy that is designed to improve the economic and social conditions of a specific group of people, that is; the rural people. It includes extending the benefits of development to the poorest, among those who seek a livelihood in the rural areas.

Community development has also been described as a conscious technique or process to solve social change problems; a process that enables communities to "collectively confront and act on their common values and problems" Lotz(1977, p.16) cited in (Anaeto & Anaeto 2008, p. 1). This implies that community development is planned and organized towards assisting individuals to acquire the attitudes, skills, and concepts required for their democratic participation in bringing an effective solution to wide range of community improvement problems.

Campus Broadcasting

The rise of development journalism gave birth to community media or broadcasting. It is on note that the NBC revised code (2003 edition) recognizes community broadcasting and makes provisions for its licensing and operation. It further provides for two types of community broadcasting; campus broadcasting and rural broadcasting. Campus broadcasting according to Canfield and Moore (1977) cited in Brunner (2006) are those broadcast stations which operates within a higher institution and targets the entire members of the institution's community. He emphasized that campus broadcast stations are developmental-oriented in nature, hence the need for them to ensure programmes that are development driven are aired at all times. This according to Folorunsho (2014) will give members of the host community a sense of belonging.

The Nigeria environment has over the years witnessed the birth of a number of campus broadcast stations. Consequently, the National Broadcasting Corporation (NBC), which is the official regulatory body of the broadcasting in Nigeria stipulates that among other things campus broadcast stations should be the broadcast laboratory for students of mass communication, and that they must broadcast educational programmes, maintain professionalism as touching the areas of development, while adhering strictly to the objectives for which they are licensed.

Overview of the 3 Selected Campus Stations

UNILAG (103.1) F.M

There are about 93 campus radio stations in Nigeria and just a campus television station which was given to the University of Lagos recently. The University of Lagos boasts of the first radio and television license;and perhaps the first campus station to go on airamong tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

The history of receiving the first ever radio license as a tertiary institution began during the tenure of the then Head of Department of Mass Communication, University of Lagos, late Professor Alfred Opubor, he took up the challenge and wrote to the Federal Ministry of Information and Communication for a Radio License. It took 25 years of waiting. However, the University of Lagos did not get a Radio License until the eventual Media Deregulation Policy of 1992.The License was eventually granted in February 2002, twenty years after the University applied for the license. Thus; the frequency, 103.1 F.M was assigned to the University in July 2003 and the station was officially commissioned on the 14th of December, 2004 by former Vice President of Nigeria, Alhaji Atiku Abubakar. The radio station is situated on the 7th floor of the Senate Building in the University of Lagos. Today, the station is about 14 years old and still blazing the trail as regards campus radio and programme delivery.

DIAMOND (101.1) F.M

Diamond F.M is the third community radio station in Nigeria after UNILAG and UNIZIK F.M. It is owned by the University of Ibadan and is located in the institution's media centre. The station was officially commissioned on 30th October 2008 by the then Executive governor of Niger State, Dr. Mu'azu Babangida Aliyu as part of activities marking the 60th Anniversary of the University.

The campus-based station was designed to be students friendly, volunteers-driven, inclusive and interactive by providing opportunities for members of the university community to share knowledge, ideas and expertise relating to the University of Ibadan. The name, logo and call phrase of the radio station were sourced competitively through invitation widely advertized in the University Bulletin. A final-year student's Segun Michael entry from the Department of Human Kinetics, Faculty of Education won the prize for the station's name and Mr. Sambo Mohammed – a staff of Registry, for the call-phrase.To mark the 60th anniversary of the University, the station was named *"Diamond FM"* with the call phrase *"promoting values and excellence"*. The station came up with the mission statement *"to position itself powerfully in the University community and its immediate environ and to make positive impacts for the good of all"*.

UNILORIN (89.3) F.M

UNILORIN F.M 89.3 is a campus- based broadcast Radio station situated in the department of Mass Communication, University of Ilorin, Nigeria. It was established shortly after the department of Mass Communication of the school was established in the year 2005 firstly, as the training-radio of the department and later became that of the university environment and the neighbouring communities. The campus station happens to be the first campus radio station in the whole of Nigeria to start 24 hours broadcasting and the first broadcast

organization to start 24hours round the clock program in Kwara state with the provision of educative, informative and entertaining programmes. UNILORIN F.M has range of dynamic OAPs, great programs to educate, enlighten, entertain as well as inform the vast audience. It also has a board of Directors which is charged with the responsibility of formulating policy direction, staffing and recruitment and the management of the station.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is anchored on the development media and democratic participant theories. The development media theory is based on the assumption that the media must accept and carry out positive development tasks in line with national established policy. Thus, Folarin (2002) is of the opinion that the theory can be further fine-tuned to fit perfectly into the situation of developing countries in a way that the media will be obliged to accept and help in carrying out the special development tasks of national integration, socio-economic modernization, promotion of literacy, and cultural creativity. He emphasized that the theory has already provided for the concepts of development communication and developmental-oriented journalism. McQuail cited in Anaeto, Onabajo andOsifeso (2008, p.66) is of the view that freedom of the media should be open to economic priorities and development needs of the society, especially the area of its operational base. In line with the views of Anaeto *et al.* the theory justifies that the media should give priority in their contents to national, regional and local languages, cultures, norms, and beliefs.

On the other hand, the democratic participant theory emphasized on the basis of society and on the value of horizontal rather than vertical (top-down) communication (Anaeto et al.). The main thrust of the theory lies in its insistence that the existing bureaucracy as well as commercial and professional hegemony in media systems

be broken down, so as to guarantee easier media access for all potential users and consumers (Folarin, 2005).

McQuail (1983) cited in Anaeto et al. proposed this theory to take account of many ideas expressed to take care of the needs of citizens. The theory found expression in the 1960s and 1970s in pressure for local and community radio and television. It challenged the dominance of centralized, commercialized, state-controlled and even professionalized media (McQuail 2000p. 160). Making a reference to Ezensberger (1970), McQuail notes that the key to applying this theory was seen to lie in the new technology of the times. It favoured media that would be small in scale, non-commercial and often committed to a cause. Participation and interaction were key concepts. This theory is against the system of parliamentary democracy which has seemed to become detached from its grassroots origins, to impede rather than facilitate movement in political and social life. It also takes exception to a 'mass society' which is over-organized, over centralised and fails to offer realistic opportunities for individual and minority expression. Anaeto et al.stressed "the central point of a democratic-participant theory lies with the needs, interests and aspirations of the active 'receiver' in a political society. It has to do with the right to relevant information, the right to answer back, the right to use the means of communication for interaction in small-scale settings of community, interest group, sub-culture". Essentially, the theory's cautions that communication should not be left in the hands of professionals alone find practical expression in the structure and general operations of citizen journalism.

Thus, the above two theories present the media institution as central and germane to the existence of the society. And, for the media institution to perform developmental functions, it must be peopled by professionals who understand and can uphold the central media tenets such as impartiality, truthfulness, pluralism, balanced reporting,

fairness to all parties, etc. It is only through this that the media institution can live up to expectations.

METHODOLOGY

The research method used for this study was survey with questionnaire as the instrument of data collection. The survey method was preferred to others because it is the major method through which opinions of respondents on an issue are sought. It allows for drawing scientific representative sample from the entire population and facilitates comfortable generalizations on the entire population based on the outcome of the studied sample (Nwodu, 2008). The population for the study consisted of all staff and students in selected campus stations, and they cut across all categories of staff, students, and pensioners, regardless of sex, religion, status and tribe. The choice of the three institutions became necessary and suitable for this study based on the pioneering role they play in campus broadcasting and high level of listenership they command.

Respondents for the study were selected through the stratified random sampling technique. This was to ensure that every segment of the population was equally represented. Thirty (30) respondents were purposively selected in each of the three campuses making a total of ninety (90) in all. Respondents for the study were selected based on the criteria that they listened to the concerned radio stations. . However, 88 copies of questionnaire were retrieved which yielded data as presented in the following tables.

ANALYSIS OF DATA COLLECTED

Research Question 1: To what extent has *Unilag F.M, Diamond F.M and Unilorin F.M* contributed to their local communities through the content of their programmes?

Table 1: Contributions of selected stations to their host communities

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Very High	9	10.2%
High	15	17.1%
Average	41	46.6%
Low	12	13.6%
Very Low	11	12.5%
Total		**88100**

Table 1 above shows that majority of the respondents (about 75%) agreed that the selected stations have either made very high, high or average contributions to their host communities. Only 12.5% agreed to the contrary. This implies that the stations are fulfilling their constitutional mandates.

Table 2: Nature of programmes on selected stations

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Informative & Educative	31	35.2%
Entertainment	10	11.4%
Developmental	28	31.9%
Enlightening	14	15.9%
Others	12	13.6%
Total		**88100**

The Table above indicates that informative and educative, as well as development-oriented programmes dominates the selected stations most, as (67%) agreed to this. Only about 34% agreed otherwise. This

implies that the selected stations are in line with their goals of establishment.

Research Question 2: How effective and beneficial are the various programmes on *Unilag F.M, Diamond F.M and Unilorin F.M* to the audience in their quest for information?

Table 3: Effectiveness and benefits of programmes on selected stations to their audience

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Highly Effective	16	18.2%
Effective	39	44.3%
Moderate	22	25%
Not Effective	11	12.5%
Total		**88100**

From the above Table, about 88% of the respondents believed that the programmes on the selected stations were effective because they have addressed the needs of the audience. Only about 13% of them claimed otherwise. This shows that the audience have maximally benefitted from the contents of the selected stations.

Table 4: Effectiveness of choice of programme on the audience

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Highly Effective	11	12.5%
Effective	21	23.9%
Moderate	38	43.2%
Not Effective	18	20.4%
Total		**88100**

Table 4 above shows that majority of the respondents (80%) agreed that their choice of programme has effectiveness on them. Only 20% of them are on the contrary. This connotes that the choice of

programmes on the selected stations are effective on their respective audience.

Research Question 3: Has *Unilag F.M, Diamond F.M and Unilorin F.M* been able to meet their audience expectations in terms of their programmes?

Table 5: Audience expectations on programmes

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Yes	19	21.6%
No	32	36.4%
Partially	37	42%
Total		**88100**

From the above Table, it is clear that (about 64%) of the audience attested that their expectations have been met by these stations through their programmes, while 36.4% agreed otherwise. This indicates that the expectations of the audience were met by the stations.

Table 6: Duration of programme

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
2 Hours & Above	7	8%
1 – 2 Hours	10	11.3%
45 Minutes	13	14.7%
30 Minutes	22	25%
Less than 30 Minutes	36	41%
Total		**88100**

Table 6 above indicates that majority of the respondents (59%) emphasized that the duration of programmes on the selected stations are more than 30 minutes. Only (41%) stated otherwise. This clearly

shows that most of the programmes are more than 30 minutes in terms of duration.

Research Question 4: To what extent have the selected broadcast stations affect their host communities towards promoting social development and change?

Table 7: Programmes aimed towards social development

Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Very High	6	6.7%
High	11	12.5%
Average	38	43.2%
Low	19	21.6%
Very Low	14	16%
Total		**88100**

From Table 7 above, it is evident that shows that majority of the respondents (about 63%) agreed that the selected stations have either made very high, high or average impact towards social development in their host communities. Few of the respondents (37.6%) stated otherwise. This shows that the selected stations have contributed to promoting social development programmes in their host communities.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Research Question 1: To what extent has *Unilag F.M, Diamond F.M and Unilorin F.M* contributed to their local communities through the content of their programmes?

Responses in table 1 and 2 provided answers to the research question. It could be gleaned from the table that65 respondents (about 75%) were clearly of the opinion that the selected stations have made high contributions to their host communities, which implies that the stations are fulfilling their constitutional mandate. This is also in tandem with the empirical research of Folorunsho (2014) which emphasized on

campus broadcast stations as an arm of community broadcasting that is aimed towards socio-cultural, educational and economic development, witha dual function of serving as a training arm for students of mass communication and allied courses, as well as giving adequate coverage to their respective host communities by reflecting issues that are developmental-oriented. Evidence in the result of the table also affirmed the core assumption of the development media theory which states that freedom of the media should be open to economic priorities and development needs of the society, especially the area of its operations.

Research Question 2: How effective and beneficial are the various programmes on *Unilag F.M, Diamond F.M and Unilorin F.M* to the audience in their quest for information?

Responses in table 3 and 4 have thrown more light on this question. It is evident from the table as 88% of them attested to the effectiveness of the programmes of the selected stations, as they have maximally benefitted from the contents of these programmes. This work is also in line with Olayinka (2017) who concluded that there is need for campus F.M stations to address the needs and aspirations of their local audience, by bringing on air programmes that will meet their interest. This is also in line with the democratic-participant theory which emphasizes on the need for the media to offer realistic opportunities for individual and minority expression, and to guarantee easier media access for all potential users and consumers.

Research Question 3: Has *Unilag F.M, Diamond F.M and Unilorin F.M* been able to meet their audience expectations in terms of their programmes?

Table 5 and 6 has given much credence to this research question. As shown on the table, 42% of the respondents affirmed that the selected stations have partially met their expectations through their programmes, while 21.6% of them said it has met their expectations,

on the contrary; 36.4% respondents said the contents have not met their expectations. This is clearly evident that human wants are insatiable, and all their expectations cannot be met; hence the need for the selected stations to work more on audience-oriented programmes.

Research Question 4: To what extent have the selected broadcast stations affect their host communities towards promoting social development and change?

Table 7 provided the answer to this question, as about 63% of the respondents said that the selected stations have impacted their host communities through programmes that are aimed at promoting community development and social change. The implications for this is that the selected campus broadcast stations have not neglected their constitutional mandate. This work is also in line with the empirical findings of Dunu and Ugbo (2007) which states that community broadcasting (campus-based or rural-based) in Nigeria was as a result of societal pressure on the government to facilitate the emerging Nigerian democracy by creating a more pluralistic media system that will engage rural development and promote societal change.

CONCLUSION

Campus broadcasting has come to stay in Nigeria, this could be adduced to the purpose and functions it was established to serve; as a training-arm for students, as well as an extension to the host community such institution is based. This research paper has carefully identified the strength of campus broadcast stations and the need for them to be community-oriented in terms of their programmes and contents. No doubt, campus broadcast stations (radio and television) in the absence of a typical community radio in Nigeria will assist greatly in promoting development among the rural populace and the various communities they are based. However, campus broadcast stations should not only restrict their coverage on campus activities alone, but also beam their searchlight on developmental issues in the

areas of health, agriculture, adult literacy, and environmental sanitation among others. Through this, the host community will be given a sense of belonging, especially in running their affairs of their country particularly at the local level.

RECOMMENDATIONS

For campus broadcast stations to achieve thelaudable goals and objectives of which it was licensed, theresearcher(s) considers it necessary to suggest the following underlisted recommendations:

- There should be proper guiding philosophy on campus broadcasting in such a way that it will be used in lieu of rural broadcasting, as the mandate that established the two are similar.
- Campus broadcast stations should tailored their programme contents towards developmental-oriented issues, especially in their host environment.
- Management and authorities in charge of campus broadcast stations should provide an enabling environment for the stations to operate without necessarily interfering in their activities, operations and smooth running.
- National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) and other regulatory bodies need to increase their regulations on campus broadcast stations, to ensure their programme contents reflect local views and interests of their host communities.
- The NBC need to revise their code of operations for community broadcasting by giving more roles to campus broadcast stations.

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INFLUENCE OF EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING ON CHILD DEVELOPMENT: A FOCUS ON NTA BENIN.

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Abstract

This study seeks to assess, describe and explain educational programmes on NTA Benin and how they influence child development. The study was anchored on the Social Learning Theory of the mass media as propounded by Bandura. The study adopted survey research design to generate data from the sampled population. To this end, students of Eghosa Grammar school, Benin city were sampled. It was gathered that educational programmes as aired on NTA Benin are very popular among students, and positively impact greatly on the students in terms of knowledge enhancement. As a result of this benefit, the study recommended that Government through the relevant agencies should mandate television stations operating in Nigeria to dedicate significant portion of broadcast time to educational programme.

Key words: Broadcasting, Educational development, Educational Programme, Impact

INTRODUCTION

Educational broadcasting refers to television programming and Radio programming providing or related to courses of study (Encyclopedia Britannica online, 2017). The term "educational" is also applied at times to other programmes that are particularly enlightening, informative or intellectually stimulating. Educational broadcasting can be received in the home or in an educational institution.

There are also adult education programmes for an older audience; many of these are instructional television or "telecourse" services that can be taken for college credit. Examples of these include Open University programmes on BBC television in the UK.

Many children's television series are educational, ranging from dedicated learning programmes to those that indirectly teach the viewers. Some series are written to have a specific moral behind every episode, often explained at the end by the character that learned the lesson.

In the social aspects of television, several studies have found that educational television has many advantages. The Media Awareness Network, explains in its article, "The Good Things about Television", that television can be a very powerful and effective learning tool for children if used wisely. The article states that television can help young people discover where they fit into society, develop closer relationships with peers and family, and teach them to understand complex social aspects of communication.

The first attempt to bring issues affecting children to the fore dated back to the 1924 Geneva Declaration of the Rights of the Child (United Nations for Children's Fund (UNICEF) 2009: 4). Several other meetings held with pronouncements and agreements among

nations to improve the lot of children. But the most notable event about children was the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child which was adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by UN General Assembly resolution 44/25 of November 20, 1989. It became effective on September 2, 1990. About 191 countries have since ratified it (UNICEF 2002). The Convention has produced a profound change with substantive effects on the world's attitude towards children, giving mandate to various sectors of the society, including the media, to take the issues affecting children more seriously.

Born out of the challenge of United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child is the International Children's Television Charter which affirms the rights of children that are identified in the Convention concerning television programming for and about children. The Charter was presented by advocates for children's television to the First World Summit on Children and Television, held in Melbourne, Australia, in March 1995. It was revised and approved at the Prix Jeunesse Round Table in Munich, May 29, 1995, and has been adopted in many countries around the world (African Charter, 2000).Conscious of the fact that the Charter needs to be complemented by a specific Charter that takes Africa's interests and peculiarities into account, the Commonwealth Broadcasters, under the auspices of the Commonwealth Broadcasters Association (CBA) converged in Cape Town, South Africa on October 13, 2000 to ratify the African Charter on Children's Broadcasting (ACCB), earlier affirmed and accepted at the African Summit on children's Broadcasting which was held in Accra, Ghana in 1997.

The Africa Charter on Children's Broadcasting demands that children's programmes should be of high quality, made specifically for them, for development of their physical, mental and social potentials to the fullest and that they should be involved in the

production process. They should also be protected from commercial exploitation, guaranteed right to freedom of expression, thought, conscience and religion and must be ensured equitable access to programmes. In addition to the afore-mentioned demands is the affirmation of the sense of self by children through their culture and language and creation of opportunities for learning and empowerment to promote and support the child's right to education and development.

The Charter further stipulates that children's programmes should be wide ranging in genre and content, but should not include gratuitous scenes and contents that encourage violence, sex and drug abuse. The Charter also requires regular and appropriate timing for broadcasting children's programmes, provision of sufficient resources for qualitative children's programmes and compliance with internationally agreed policies with particular reference to the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Commonwealth Broadcasting Association (CBA) undertakes to promote the ideals embodied in the spirit of the Charter by encouraging CBA broadcasters to implement every aspect of it.

Television is a means of instruction through the various educational programmes that are aired. Children sit before television to learn subjects like Maths, English language, chemistry, etc. For example, watching Sesame Street has been found to contribute to children's scholarly achievement (Cook, Edwin & Samson, 1975). Besides, television is a stimulant of children to participate in educational context like quiz competitions, debate and academic games.

Kirkorian, Wartella and Anderson (2008) pointed out that educational TV programmes designed in line with curriculum with a specific goal to communicate academic or social skills, teach their intended lessons. They noted however that while purely entertainment content, particularly violent content, is negatively associated with

academic achievements of children, 'educational programmes are positively associated with overall measures of achievement and with potentially long lasting effects.

It is not just curriculum-based educational programmes that are beneficial to children, news programmes too are essential since children also live in situations affected by the news, including poetry and conflict, they are thus becoming aware of their environment and grow up as active and conscious citizens as opposed to being apathetic (Livingstone, 2008). Similarly, Mares and Woodard (2012), reviewing several studies provided substantial evidence to show that television viewing and other forms of media use have positive effects on children's social encounters.

Educational broadcasting according to Babalola (2005), plays vital roles in the education process by:

Encouraging a greater understanding of the subject matter because its presentation is done in clear, straight forward and simple language.

Promoting individualized learning because the listener or viewer can learn on his or her own by listening to and or viewing the lesson personally without having to come in contact with the real teacher.

Disseminating large volumes of educational and informative messages to the audience.

Checking schools' population explosion because it takes care of learners both young and old that could not be readily accommodated by the regular school programme (Kolade-Oje & Babalola, 2004).

Promoting equal access to educational opportunity for all learners because the mode of presentation is the same and in uniform, no matter the number of times the presentation is done.

Assisting in population enlightenment programmes because of its coverage of a very wide area at a time. More so that the beneficiaries could easily be reached at their various locations without being assembled at a point for such an exercise.

The year 1932 according to Ogunranti (1988) marked the emergence of educational broadcasting in Nigeria because the first radio receiving station began transmission in Lagos that year. This had a great influence on education in Nigeria particularly due to the educational broadcast that were available to teachers and pupils. The first educational radio programmes were for English language and were broadcast once a week in the early forties by the Radio Distribution Service (RDS) under the Post and Telegraphs Department (P & T). The Nigeria Broadcasting Service (NBS) which was established in 1951 inherited limited educational programmes. This was the situation until 1957 when the Nigeria Broadcasting Corporation was established. Another significant year in the history of broadcasting in Nigeria is 1959. According to Olushola (1979), television in this country and indeed in the whole of Africa was introduced in that year by the then western regional government under the Leadership of Chief Obafemi Awolowo. The government in western Nigeria realized that the television was a better medium than radio which could be used to educate the masses. To back it up, it was written in the charter establishing the Nigerian Television Authority, a provision for fixed amount of time per week for educational television broadcast.

Furthermore, Olushola (1979) observes that about fifty percent of all the TV programmes then was devoted to education and television sets were distributed to the existing schools and colleges. The Eastern

and Northern governments also followed suit a few years later by establishing their own television and radio stations. The programmes from the North which was based in Kaduna were the most widely based educational programmes. In 1969, according to Agun and Imogie (1988), the Northern schools broadcasting unit which was responsible for the production of this programmes was taken over by the Federal Schools Broadcast Unit (FSBU) in Kaduna. The direct involvement of the Federal Government of Nigeria in educational broadcasting, according to Agun and Imogie (1988) began in 1964 when Schools Broadcast Unit (SBU) was established for the production of television programmes for schools in the Federal Capital Territory of Lagos. However, the introduction of the Nigerian third development plan 1975 - 1980 necessitated a change from the name Federal Schools Broadcast Unit to Federal Schools Broadcast and Audio-visual Aid Development Centre. This name according to Agun and Imogie (1988) was later changed in 1977 to National Educational Technology Centre, Kaduna. In modern times, many individuals have emerged with private radio and television stations. These stations support the activities of public organized radio and television stations to propagate educational programmes. For instance, it is through such programmes that awareness on the deadly disease called HIV/AIDs is disseminated. This has gone a long way in educating members of the public on the existence of the scourge and the possible ways of avoiding coming in contact with it.

In a paper titled "Children's Programmes on Nigerian Television Stations: A Case of Media Neglete", Omotosho, Oyero and Salawu (2015) observed that one could be proud of television programmes on Nigerian Television Authority (NTA) in the 1980s and early 1990s. Then, all television stations were owned by the government, and it was normal for every child that had access to television to stay glued to NTA on week days from 4pm till the next

three hours. On weekends, there were exciting programmes, especially the Sunday evening when Tales by Moonlight was aired.

The NTA of those days succeeded in featuring good quality television programmes both local and foreign. The programmes then focused on good values, containing educational contents and those that teach morals. There was a happy balance between the foreign and local television programmes (Nwabia, 2012).

Unfortunately, from the middle of 1990, children's TV programmes began to nosedive both in quantity and quality. Though private television stations have begun to emerge at this point, they did not contribute to the expected values of children's programmes enjoyed in the 1980s. The private stations especially relied on imported children's TV content that has less educational value, thus stiffening the space for the production of good local programmes. The popularity of satellite television does not help the situation, as many cable TV offered endless children's programmes. Nigerian children today are more familiar with *Ben10, Dora the explorer, Barney* than they are with *Tales by Moonlight* (Omotoso, Oyero & Salawu, 2015).

REVIEW OF EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Several studies have probed the effectiveness of educational television programming in Nigeria. In all of these researchers are almost unanimously agreed that educational programmes enhance students knowledge significantly. For example, Babalola (2013) investigated educational broadcasting in Nigeria from a historical development perspective. The work took a look at the historical perspective of educational broadcasting in Nigeria. It traced the origin and development of the concept in Nigeria with the sole aim of evaluating its application to education. The work highlighted among others, the importance of educational broadcasting to teaching and learning as encouraging a greater understanding of the subject matter

because its presentation is done in clear, straight forward and simple language.

However, some problems that hinder the effective utilization of educational broadcasting were observed which include among others, personnel, power supply, equipment, storage, etc. Hence the work recommended among others that, in view of the usefulness of educational broadcasting, the Nigeria government both at the federal and state levels should embrace educational broadcasting and fund it very well. The government should ensure that experts on educational broadcasting are trained and employed in schools so as to ensure that the problem of manpower in the field of educational broadcasting is solved.

Folorunso (1989) carried out a study to identify the nature of instructional programmes being produced in Oyo state Nigeria. Its principal objectives were to identify the nature of the programmes being produced and broadcast to secondary schools for the use of instructional programmes as learning resources, identify the subjects in which the programmes are being used as learning resources in secondary schools and identify the factors associated with the usage of instructional programmes as learning resources in secondary schools. The study surveyed selected twenty nine secondary schools with a student's population of 30,823 by 1982. The researcher studied students in form 4 and selected 1183 students, using available class lists in the selected twenty nine secondary schools. In addition, all the principals in the twenty nine selected schools were included in the sample, while the teacher-librarians in the sixteen secondary schools were also included. The study established the relevance of the instructional programmes in the secondary school curriculum and their acceptability as effective resources to teachers. It however discovered that minimal use was made of the instructional programmes as students used the programmes in many subjects independently without

the guidance of the subject's teachers. This was because the study discovered that none of the schools surveyed had a collection of recorded educational programmes. The study which was carried out many years ago is quite relevant to the present one. It did confirm that students independently utilized programmes on subjects that were found relevant without the guidance of teachers. It would be interesting to know whether this would be the case in the present study. Funding for instructional television programmes appears to have dropped considerably in the last twenty years, and moreover, Nigerian broadcast stations appear to show more interest in the commercially viable contents which are largely entertainment-based. There is therefore, a growing suspicion that secondary school students are not paying adequate attention to available educational contents and using them for self enrichment.

Similarly, Ekanem (2006) undertook a study to determine the extent of media exposure of secondary school teachers in Akwa Ibom state and the type of media contents Nigerian teachers prefer. The results revealed that most respondents ranked radio first as the preferred medium on issues. The most preferred content was news, while information was the gratification mostly derived from the media exposure. Results from the hypotheses testing showed that for the first hypothesis, the null hypothesis was upheld. There is no significant relationship between teachers, mass media exposure and contents utilization.

Wenglisnky (1998) studied the impact of television and higher order thinking technologies on a national sample of 6,227 fourth graders and 7,146 eight graders mathematics achievement in the National Assessment of Educational Progress, organized by American educational testing services. Wenglinsky took note of socio-economic status, class size, and teachers' characteristics. Thus, all relationships between technological and educational outcomes reported, represent

the value added by technology for comparable groups of students with comparable teachers in comparable class sizes. Wenglinsky found the following:

i. Eight-grade students who used television and higher order thinking software showed gains in mathematics scores up to 15 weeks above grade level as measured by NAEP.

ii. eight-grade students whose teachers received professional development on the use of television for instruction showed gains in mathematics scores up to 13 weeks above grade level.

iii. Higher order uses of television/computer and professional development were positively related to students' academic achievement in mathematics for both fourth and higher-grade students.

In yet another study, Omotoso, Oyero and Salawu (2015) examined the performance of Nigerian television stations as regards their programmes for children against the backdrop of responsibilities assigned to the media as partners in protecting the interest and rights of the child contained in various international conventions and treaties. The findings showed a neglect of children on Nigerian television as only 3.3% of their total 818 programmes and 2.6% of the total airtime were devoted to children. However, most of the children's programmes (70.4%) were produced locally and there was a balance in the focus of the programmes between entertainment and learning. Ironically, none of the television stations had a policy concerning children's programming. The researchers, therefore, recommended a holistic transformation in the Nigerian television stations' programming for students.

What the above studies suggest is that apart from the scanty volume of available English language programmes on Nigerian television, other factors may affect the degree of impact the

programmes have on children's learning. Such factors may include the focus of the programmes. This study proposes in part to investigate this possibility. This study is limited in scope to the assessment of the effectiveness of English language education programmes such as "Clip Clap" on television in Nigeria with a focus on Nigeria Television Authority (NTA) Benin and how it influences child's development.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is anchored on the Social Learning theory of communication. Social Learning Theory is a general theory of human behaviour, but Bandura (1977) and people concerned with mass communication have used it specifically to explain media effects. Bandura warned that children and adults acquire attitudes, emotional responses, and new styles of conduct through filmed and televised modelling.

Social Learning Theory in media pertains to how learning can be facilitated by mere observation of what's being presented through media. Albert Bandura cautioned that TV might create a violent reality that was worth fearing. Bandura's warning struck a responsive chord in parents and educators who feared that escalating violence on TV would transform children into bullies.

Bandura regards anxiety over televised violence as legitimate. He explains that social learning or "observational learning" involves how behaviours and attitudes can be modeled merely by observing the behaviours and attitudes of others. Bandura preformed an experiment called the Bobo Doll Experiment involving having children observe adults displaying aggressive behaviour toward a doll named Bobo. The adults punched, kicked, and verbally insulted the doll, all in the children's presence. The result of the experiment showed a marked increase in aggressive behaviour from the children toward Bobo the doll. These results tend to support the Social Learning Theory.

Social Learning Theory in media and the Bobo experiment correspond to each other in significant ways. For example, acknowledging mass media's influence on human behaviour in societies valuing freewill in novel ways, and where accountability for a person's action ultimately ends with the individual them, presents a vicious paradox. For example, mass media contents showing violent behaviour towards a specific ethnic group or widely distributing stereotypes pertaining to gender characteristics (e.g. girls are emotional and boys are logical) may be learned and imitated on the individual level.

If negative outcomes result and become widespread, the line between mass media's accountability and individual accountability may not be apparent thus creating a cycle where mass media plays the "individuals can make their own decisions" game while individuals comprising society collectively learns via media to internalize negative attitude towards minorities.

An important factor of Bandura's social learning theory is the emphasis on reciprocal determinism. This notion states that an individual's behaviour is influenced by the environment and characteristics of the person. In other words, a person's behaviour, environment, and personal qualities all reciprocally influence each other. Bandura proposed that the modeling process involves several steps:

1. Attention – in order for an individual to learn something, they must pay attention to the features of the modeled behaviour (educational programme, in the present context).

2. Retention – humans need to be able to remember details of the behaviour (programme content) in order to learn and later reproduce the behaviour.

3. Reproduction – in reproducing a behavior, an individual must organize his or her responses in accordance with the model behavior. This ability can improve with practice.

4. Motivation – there must be an incentive or motivation driving the individual's reproduction of the behaviour. Even if all of the above factors are present, the person will not engage in the behaviour without motivation.

In applying the theory to the present study, we argue that, apart from programme content and frequency of broadcast, the student's psychological make up and socio-cultural and environmental influences contribute a great deal to the extent to which the programmes contents are understood. Again, if educational programmes are properly handled on television, it can contribute to a better understanding of different subjects by secondary school students.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the survey method of research, which entailed the use of the questionnaire instrument to collect data from the population of the study. The rationale for using the survey method is that it helps the researcher to describe, explain and predict the phenomena being studied.

The population studied included all Junior Secondary School (JSS) members of Eghosa Grammar School, Oredo Local Government Area, Benin City, Edo State. Eghosa Grammar School was chosen essentially because of its proximity to the researcher's base. The population of the JSS students is estimated at 380 students spread across JSS 1, JSS 2 and JSS 3. The population was also chosen because its members had access to the signals of NTA Benin and were more likely to access the educational programme selected for study, which is more suited to their demography.

A sample size of 100 respondents was selected for this study. The sample size was drawn 38 each from JSS 1, JSS 2 and JSS 3. The Taro Yemane (1960:240) statistical formula was used in determining the sample size thus:

n = N i

1 + N (e)2 !

Where N = Population

e = Level of significance

I = A constant value.

n = 380

380(0.05) = 1 +380(0.05)2

= 380

1 + 0. 397 = 380

1. 397

113.57

= 114 approximately.

The figure was however reduced to 100 for easier computation.

The study adopted three sampling techniques. The purposive sampling technique was used for the selection of Eghosa grammar school. This was purely for the logistic convenience of the researcher. Next, the stratified sampling technique which entailed the division of the

population into three different strata - JSS 1, JSS 2 and JSS 3. This was to ensure that the various strata of the population were covered. Finally, the simple random sampling technique was used to choose the final 38 students each from the three strata - JSS 1, JSS 2 and JSS 3. This ensured that every member of each stratum had equal chance of being selected. The survey adopted the use of the questionnaire as instrument for the collection of its primary data for analysis. The questionnaire for this study contained eleven (11) questions. All the questions were close-ended to facilitate easy analysis.

DATA AND FINDINGS

The data in table 1 showed that all 100 respondents acknowledged watching either or both of the educational programme - Clip clap on NTA Benin. Clip-Clap, is aired twice a week, and it is a variety programme with segments on classroom work, music and dance and discussion about issues that affect children.

Table 1: Showing the educational programmes on NTA watched by respondents

Question	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
	Clip Clap	72	72
	Others	28	28
	None of the above	0	0
Total		100	100

Source: Field survey, 2018.

Again, the data in table 2, where 95% of respondents acknowledged that they learnt positive lessons from the programme corresponds with the position of Mares and Woodard (2012), who reviewed several studies and provided substantial evidence to show that television

viewing and other forms of media use have positive effects on children's social encounters.

Table 2: Showing views that respondents learn positive lessons from the programmes

Question	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
	Yes	95	95
	No	0	0
	Undecided	5	5
Total		100	100

Source: Field survey, 2018

Data in tables 11 and 14 showed that the programmes' objectives have been achieved to a large extent. In table 11, all 100 respondents (100%) signified that the programme improved their knowledge on the issues treated. In table 14, yet again all 100 respondents indicated that they desired that the programme should be continued. The above cited data therefore signify that the programme has largely achieved the objective for which it was designed.

Table 11: Showing views on whether or not the programmes improve students Knowledge

Question	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
	Yes	100	100
	No	0	0
	Undecided	0	0
Total		100	100

Source: Field survey, 2018

Table 14: Showing views on whether or not the programmes should be continued

Question	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
	Yes	100	100
	No	0	0
	Undecided	0	0
Total		100	100

Source: Field survey, 2018

Based on the data analysis, the key findings of the study therefore are:

- The children's educational programme - Clip Clap - aired on NTA Benin are aimed at improving the knowledge of students on a wide range of subjects both academic and otherwise. That the programme is consistently aired twice weekly is an indication that it is very popular among the target audience - students.

- The programmes positively impact greatly on the students in terms of knowledge enhancement. This fact is expressed by the survey result where a decisive majority of the respondents affirmed the positive impact of the programme on their development.

CONCLUSION

Against the backdrop of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made:

In view of the manifest positive impact of Educational programmes on NTA Benin, it is recommended that government through the Nigerian Broadcasting commission (NBC) and other relevant agencies should

mandate television stations operating in Nigeria to dedicate a significant portion of broadcast time to Educational programming.

Stations already airing education should increase the number of such programmes as a way of enhancing its positive impact on students.

In view of the usefulness of educational broadcasting, the Nigeria government both at the federal and state levels should embrace educational broadcasting and effectively fund it. The government should ensure that experts on educational broadcasting are employed and trained in schools so as to ensure that the problem of manpower in the field of educational broadcasting is solved. Special grants should be provided by government and other stakeholders to support the production of more of such quality and effective children educational programmes like Clip Clap, among others.

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PERCEPTION OF TELECOM SUBSCRIBERS ON 'XTRA AIRTIME' USAGE IN CALEB UNIVERSITY, LAGOS, NIGERIA

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Abstract

Mobile network operators such as MTN, 9Mobile, Airtel and Globacom are found all over Nigeria with different kinds of services to beat the fierce competition. As more and more Nigerians gain access to mobile phones, the network providers and their subscribers are now turning their attention to the delivery of services through mobile phones and the very many extra service offers available to the subscribers one of which is referred to as 'borrow credit and pay later' service. This paper examines the perception of Telecom subscribers on the 'buy mobile airtime or recharge and pay later' service among

subscribers in Caleb University, Imota, Lagos, Nigeria. Survey research design was adopted by the study, with the questionnaire as the instrument for data collection. Study sampled population of four hundred while three hundred and eighty-eight were retrieved. Data analysed showed that 35% of the respondents want their network providers allow them borrow and pay later by the network providers any amount they wanted as much as they pay back; three hundred and six staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, representing 78.9%, were aware of the service. The study therefore recommends that major network providers should reduce the extra charge or out rightly remove it and major network providers should allow subscribers who habitually borrow the 'xtra airtime and pay later' to borrow any amount as long as they pay back

KEYWORDS: Telecommunications, Social Exchange Theory, Global System for Mobile Communication (GSM), Consumer Behaviour

INTRODUCTION

The use of mobile phones in Nigeria characterized by poverty and poor rural development has ignited much interest among scholars over the past decade. Mobile phones have become the most ubiquitous telecommunication technology in developing countries where subscription rates have soared from 250 million in 2000 to 4 billion a decade later (ITU, 2010). By 2010, subscribers from developing countries accounted for around three quarters of the 5.4 million global subscriptions, up from a third in 2000 (ibid).

According to the Nigerian Communications Commission (NCC), in Amzat (2014), as of June 2014, active GSM mobile

subscriptions in Nigeria stood at a little over 130 million, representing 98.31 percent of the market share of the telecommunications industry. This means that the revenues of the 'big four' network providers have continued to grow, due to the growing numbers of subscribers. As a result, the attitudes of mobile phone users that subscribed to these services have become an issue of discourse among communication scholars. This rapid growth was made possible through falling handset prices and calling rates, the introduction of pre-paid mobile phones packages and the expansion of networks into rural areas. Despite the recent expansion, mobile telecommunication markets in developing countries continue to offer significant business opportunities. On the average, credit recharge rates were still lower than in industrialized countries thus leaving significant room for growth. Mobile broadband usage is still very low, but expanding rapidly as the most widely used technology for accessing the internet in many developing countries.

In response, businesses are aggressively moving into emerging markets. Mobile network operators such as MTN, 9Mobile, Airtel and Globacom are found all over Nigeria with different kinds of services to beat the fierce competition. As more and more Nigerians gain access to mobile phones, the network subscribers are now interested in the quality of services rendered by mobile service providers, one of which is the recharge your mobile phone through credit and pay later service. Thus, this paper examines the perception of Telecom subscribers on the 'buy mobile airtime on recharge and pay later' service among subscribers in Caleb University, Imota, Lagos, Nigeria

PROBLEM STATEMENT

There are complaints by subscribers to the major Global System for Mobile Communication providers in Nigeria from issues arising from the services rendered by the telecommunications operators. Some of the issues include call setup failure, inter-network

connectivity, network congestion and call drop (Dajeb, et al, 2006) cited in (Ugwu &Akintayo, 2017). Various studies have been conducted on the impact of information and communication technology to the development of the economy and the improvement of life of people generally. However, none has been done to examine the perception of GSM subscribers on the 'Xtra Airtime' borrow and pay later service of the telecommunications providers in Nigeria; among the staff and students of Caleb University, Imota, Lagos. In this study, an attempt is being made to examine the attitudes of Nigerians who subscribed to this service on the 'xtra airtime' borrow and pay later of the network providers. As the study will be of interest to both subscribers and service providers in Nigeria.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Telecommunications is important in economic development. The telecommunication industry in Nigeria has witnessed exponential growth. The United Nations Millennium Declaration identified access to Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in general and telecommunications in particular as fundamental to achieving greater goals (International Telecommunications Union-ITU, 2004) cited in Ajala & Adesanya (2017). The industry emerged stronger and better seventeen years after its liberalization and regulation by government through the Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC, 2014) cited in (Ugwu & Akintayo, 2017). Mobile communication is now viewed as a necessity and is one of the fastest growing and most demanding technologies (Ugwu & Akintayo, 2017). The revenue and customer satisfaction are directly related to the network quality and performance. As the need to obtain quality service arose, network subscribers now port from one network to the other. Poor network of GSM service providers has, therefore, resulted into high level of customer dissatisfaction and complaints.

Odogbesan and Gbolahan (1996) stated that the consumer is faced with various stimuli to respond to the market; the stimuli include marketing mix (4ps) alongside with other forces within the environment. However, the stimuli pass through decision making process of the consumer which led to the aspect observable buyer response in form of brand choice, dealer choice, product choice, time of purchase and amount to be expended on the product amongst others. It is expedient for the network provider to know what happens between the stimuli and consumers' response behavior.

The consumers' characteristics and their influences serve as a major ingredient in the buyer's perception about stimuli and their purchase decision making process. Daramola, Okafor& Bello (2014) had argued that the network provider needs to view the consumer as a problem solver due to the fact that the consumer is a decision maker that takes in information, processes it in light of situation, and takes actions to accomplish satisfaction that enhances lifestyle.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Social Exchange Theory

This study is anchored on the Social Exchange theory which dates back to Thibaut and Kelly (1959), Kelly and Thibaut (1978), Homans (1961) and Rusbult (1983) cited in Wikipedia. Sociology scholars like George Homans had published a work on "Social Behaviour as Exchange" and thus defined Social Exchange as "the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons". His emphasis then was on the individual behavior of actors in interaction with one another. Emerson (1976) summarized Homans propositions in three ways:

- ✓ Success proposition: When one finds they are rewarded for their actions, they tend to repeat the action.

- ✓ Stimulus proposition: The more often a particular stimulus has resulted in a reward in the past, the more likely it is that a person will respond to it.
- ✓ Deprivation-situation proposition: The more often in the recent past a person has received a particular reward, the less valuable any further unit of that reward becomes.

Blau (1964) contributed to the discourse in his early writings on social exchange theory, by focusing more on the economic and utilitarian perspective, which encouraged him to look forward, as in what the anticipated reward would be in regards to the individuals involved interaction (Cook & Rice, n:d). However, Emerson (1976) viewed social exchange theory as an approach in sociology; which he described simply as an economic analysis for non economic social situations. Thus, social exchange theory is largely seen as a social behavior that may result both in economic and social outcomes (Lambe, Wittmann & Spekman, 2001). In the view of Neoclassic theorists, like Cook and Richard (1978) the actor deals not with another actor, but with the market and environmental parameters, such as market price. Unlike economic exchange, the elements of social exchange are quite varied and cannot be reduced to a single quantitative exchange rate (encyclopedia of Public Relations, 2010).

According to Stafford (2008) social exchanges involve a connection with another person; that involves trust and not legal obligations; are more flexible; and rarely involve explicit bargaining. As with everything with the social exchange theory, it has its outcome satisfaction and dependence on relationships. The social exchange perspective argued that people calculate the overall worth of a particular relationship by subtracting its costs from the rewards it provides (Monge & Contractor, 2003). Ivan Nye (n:d) cited in McDonell, Strom-Gottfried, Burton &Yaffe (2006), stated twelve

theoretical propositions that aid in understanding the exchange theory thus:

- Individuals choose those alternatives from which they expect the most profit.
- Cost being equal, they choose alternatives from which they anticipate the fewest rewards.
- Rewards being equal, they choose alternatives from which they anticipate the fewest costs.
- Immediate outcomes being equal, they choose alternatives that promise better long-term outcomes.
- Long-term outcomes being perceived as equal, they choose alternatives providing better immediate outcomes.
- Costs and other rewards being equal, individuals choose alternatives that supply or can be expected to supply the most social approval (or those that promise the least social disapproval)
- Costs and other rewards being equal, individuals choose statuses and relationships that provide the most autonomy.
- Other rewards and costs being equal, individuals choose alternatives characterized by the least ambiguity in terms of expected future events and outcomes.
- Other costs and rewards being equal, they choose alternatives that offer the most security for them.
- Other rewards and costs being equal, they choose to associate with, marry and form other relationships with those whose values and opinions generally are in agreement with their own and reject or avoid those with whom they chronically disagree.

The social exchange theory is relevant to this study because it lays emphasis on the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, which may be more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons. This implies based on the success proposition that when people find

that they are rewarded for their actions, they tend to repeat the action. Thus, the social exchange theory is relevant to present study because individuals (subscribers to major network) tend to choose those alternatives from which they expect the most profit and vice-versa.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study is guided by the following research objectives:

i. To assess the perception of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on the 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay later services of major network providers in Nigeria;
ii. To determine how often staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, request for 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back of their network providers;
iii. To evaluate the perception of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on how favourable the charges on the borrow 'Air Time' and pay back service of the network provider is; and
iv. To examine the perception of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on how the 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of network providers could be improved upon.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This paper will attempt to find answers to the following research questions:

i. What is the perception of the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos on the 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of major network providers?
ii. How often do staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, and request for 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of major network providers?

iii. What is the perception of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on the charges on the borrowed 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of major network providers?

iv. How can the service of the major network providers be improved upon on the borrow 'Xtra Airtime' and pay back charges

METHODOLOGY

The study used the survey method to gather data in this work by sampling the staff and students of Caleb University, Imota, Lagoson their perception on the 'xtra airtime borrow and pay later' service of major network providers. The instrument used was the questionnaire which was made up of demographics and items for the main study. The study population was 4000, and the study used purposive sampling to arrive at 10% of this population -400 questionnaires were therefore administered while 388 were retrieved. The breakdown showed that among the three colleges, namely: College of Social and Management Sciences with eighty- nine respondents; College of Environmental Sciences, forty-seven respondents and College of Physical and Applied Sciences with eight respondents. In each college, questionnaires were administered randomly via simple random sampling method. The academic staff comprised teaching and non-teaching staff of the university. The major question asked was: "How favourable are the charge(s) on borrowed 'Xtra Airtime' recharge by your network provider? The same question was repeated for students. The 388 responses were analyzed. The response was based on a five-score scale of Very Favourable, Favourable, Fairly Favourable, Unfavourable, and Very Unfavourable. As users of the major GSM service providers, it is envisaged that the respondents would be in a position to respond to the questions.

Table 1: Demographics

Sex	**Frequency**	**Percentage(%)**
Male	203	52.3
Female	185	47.7
Total	**388**	**100**
Age	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
16-20	78	20.1
21-25	119	30.7
26-30	58	15
31-35	53	13.7
36-40	43	11
41 and Above	37	9.5
Total	**388**	**100**
College	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
COSOMAS	220	56.7
COPAS	92	23.7
COLENSMA	76	19.6
Total	**388**	**100**
Level	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
100	110	30.9
200	130	33.5
300	70	20.1
400	60	15.5
Total	**370**	**100**
Designation	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Academic Staff	5	1.3
Non-Academic Staff	13	3.4
Students	370	95.3
Total	**388**	**100**

Source**: Field Data (2018))**

Table 1shows that out of a total of 388 students and staff of Caleb University, Imota, Lagos, 203 (or 52.3%) are males, while 185(or 47.7%) are females.

More than a quarter, 119 (or 30.7%) of the students and staff of Caleb University fall within the age bracket of 21-25, followed by those within the age range of 16-20 with a frequency of 78 (or 20.1%); students and staff of Caleb University within the age of 26-30 are 58 (or 15%); while those within the age range of 31-35, 36-40 and 41 and above have frequencies of 53 (or 13.7%), 43 (or 11%) and 37 (or 9.5%) respectively.

The Demographic table also shows that out of a total of 388 respondents 9 out of 10 respondents are students with 370 (or 95.3%), followed by the academic staff with 5 (or 1.3%), while the non-academic staff has a frequency of 13 (or 3.4%). Of this number,220 (or 56.7%) are from the College of Management and Social Sciences (COSOMAS), 92 (or 23.7) were from the College of Physical and Applied Sciences (COPAS), while the rest 76 (or 18.6.%) were from the College of Environmental Sciences and Management(COLENSMA). Among the 370 students who responded to the questionnaire, 130 (or 33.5%) are 200 level students; 110 (or 30.9%) are 100 level students; 70 (or 20.1%) are in their 300 level, while 60 (or 15.%) are 400 level students or in their final year respectively.

Pie Chart 1: Shows the network respondents' subscribe.

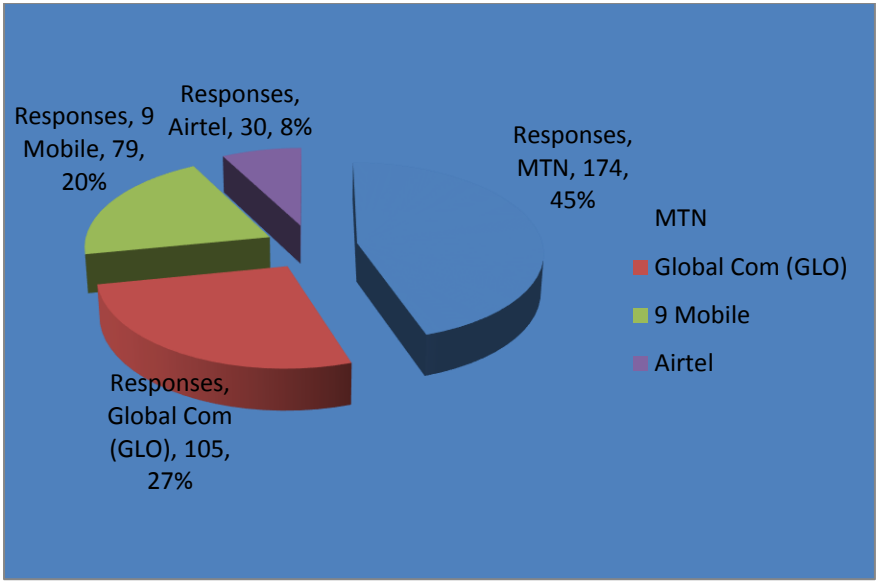
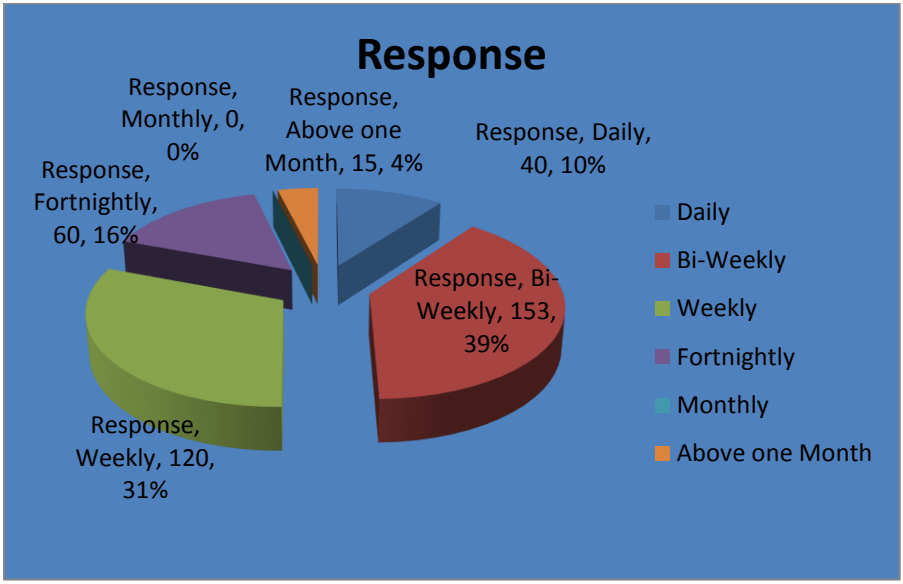


Table 3 shows that majority of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, use the MTN network. This systematically means that 45% are popular with MTN, those that subscribe to Global Com. (GLO)are 105 (or 27.1%), 79 (or 20.4%) are subscribers to the 9Mobile network while 30 (or 7.7 %) are subscribers to the Airtel network respectively.

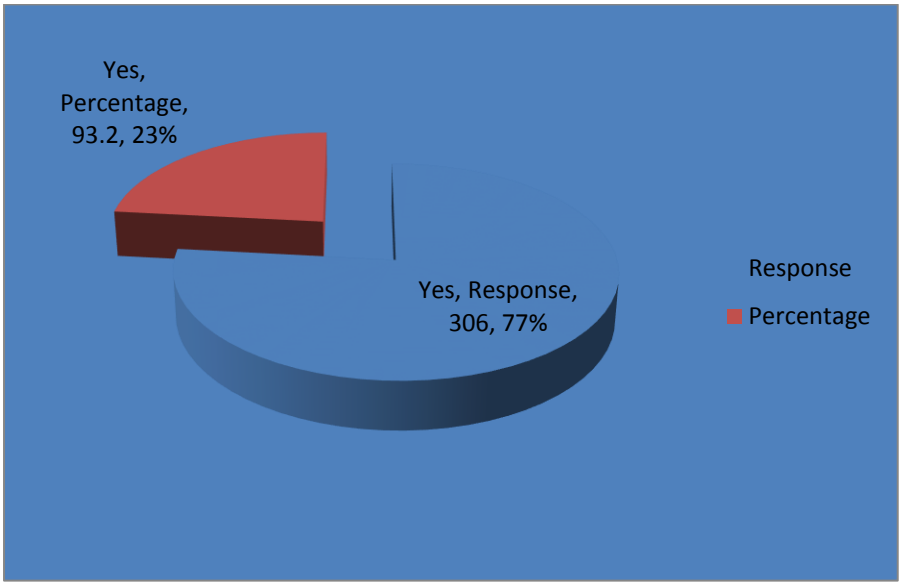
Pie Chart 2: Shows how often respondents recharge their mobile phones.



According to the pie chart in table 3, it is observed that three out of ten, 153 (or 39.4%) of the respondents made up of the staff and students of the sampled population recharge their mobile lines two times in a week (bi-weekly), 120 (or 33.2%) recharge weekly. However**,** 40 (or 10.3%) recharge daily, while 60 (or 15.5%) recharge every two weeks, while 15 (or 3.9%) of the staff and students recharge their mobile phones monthly and above.

ARQI: What is the perception of the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos on the 'Xtra Airtime' recharges and pays back service of major network providers.

Pie Chart 3: Shows whether respondents are aware of some network providers' offer to subscribers to borrow 'Xtra Airtime' and pay later?



When the question on whether the staff and students of Caleb University were aware that their network offer to borrow them Xtra Airtime was asked, table 5 shows that out of a total of 388 staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, 306of respondents which represents 78.9%, while 82 or an equivalent of 6.8% of staff and students of Caleb University, were not aware at all of the offer to subscribers.

ARQI: What is the perception of the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos on the 'Xtra Airtime' recharges and pays back service of major network providers?

Table 2: Showing responses of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on whether theyare aware that when they borrow, they pay back

Respondents	Responses	Percentages %
Yes	306	78.9
No	82	21.1
Total	**388**	**100**

Sour**ce: Field Data (**2018)

When the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, were asked whether they were aware that they are to pay back after borrowing, the response was not surprising as 306 (or 78.9%) that were aware of the borrowing offer answered in the affirmative, while the remaining 82 (or 21.1%) of the respondent answered in the negative.

Table 3: Shows whether staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos have ever requested for 'Xtra Airtime' from their network providers

Respondents	Responses	Percentages %
Yes	306	93.2
No	82	6.8
No Response	23	5.9
Total	**388**	**100**

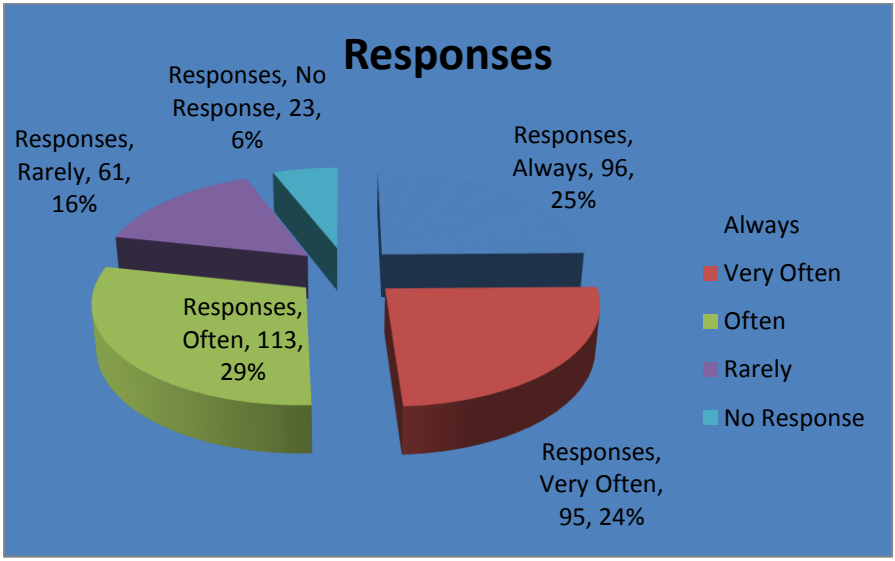
Sour**ce: Field Data (**2018)

From the table above, it is observed that 270 (or 69.6%) out of a total of 388 staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, that knew about the borrow me 'Xtra Airtime' of some network providers had actually

requested for extra airtime, 82 (or 6.8%) of them had never requested for the extra airtime, while 23 (or 5.9%) had no response on this issue.

ARQ2: How often do staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, request 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of major network providers

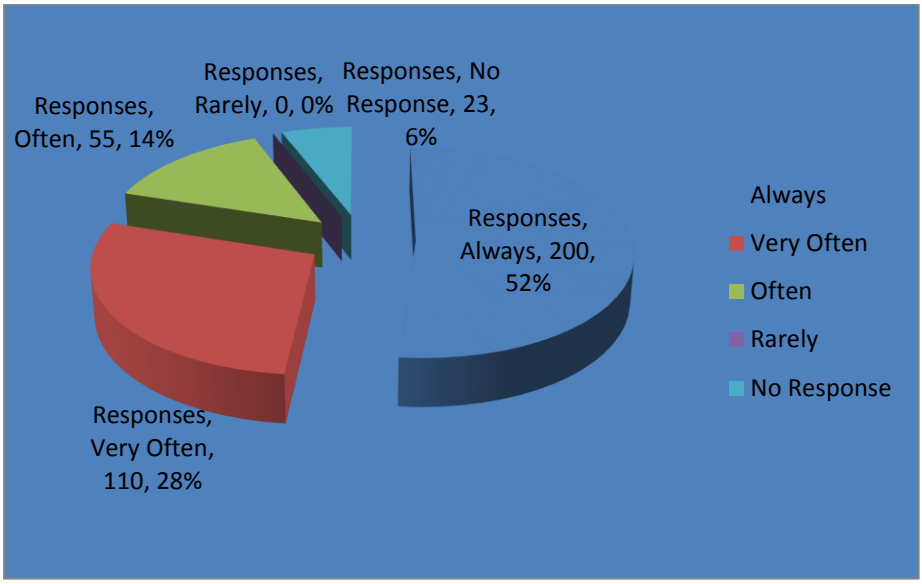
Pie Chart 4: Shows how often staff and students of Caleb University request for extra time from your network provider



The table shows that out of a total of 209 staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos that had ever borrowed credit from network provider; only 113which represents 29.1% of them often borrow, 96 (or 24.8%) do so always, 95 (or 24.5%) borrow often, while 61 (or 15.7%) and 23 (or 5.9%) of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, rarely borrow or had no response on the issue respectively

ARQ2: How often do staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, and request for 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of major network providers?

Pie Chart 5: Shows how often Staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, recharges to pay back the borrowed Xtra Time.



The table above shows that200 or half of the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, or an equivalent of 51. 6% that do borrow xtra time from their network providers always pay back. One hundred and ten of them which represent 28.3% fall for very often in terms of paying back, while 55 (or 14.2%) and 23 (or 5.9%) often pay back the borrowed xtra time or have no response on the issue respectively.

RQ3: What is the perception of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on the charges on the borrowed 'Xtra Airtime' recharge and pay back service of major network providers?

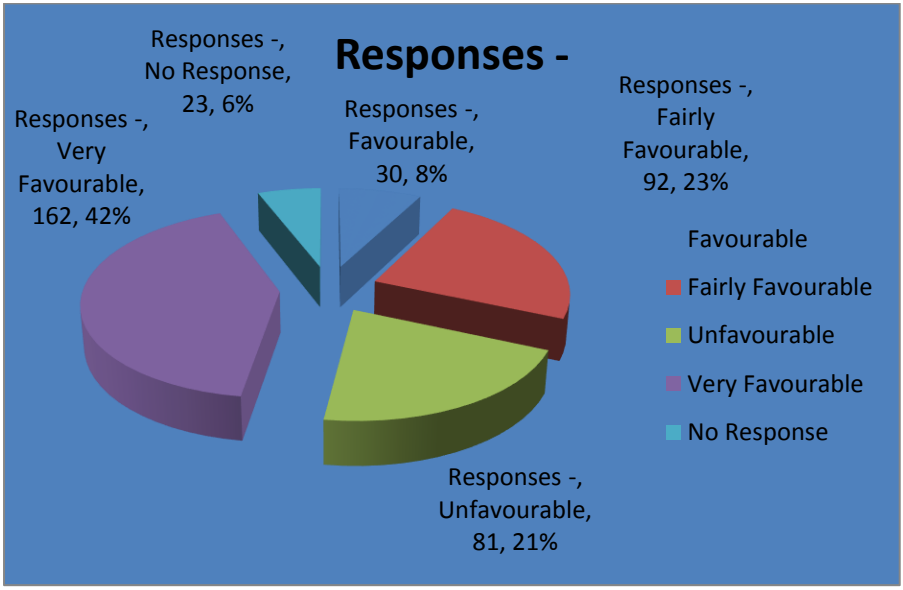
Table 4: Shows whether respondents are aware of the charge(s) on the amount borrowed

Respondents	Responses	Percentages %
Yes	365	94.1
No	-	-
No Response	23	5.9
Total	**388**	**100**

Sour**ce: Field Data **(2018)

Table above shows that 9 out 10staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, 365(or 94.1%) that had ever requested for extra time were aware of the charges on the borrowed xtra time, while 23 (5.9%) had no response to the issue.

Pie Chart 7: Shows whether respondents perceive the charge(s) on the borrowed 'Xtra-airtime' to be favourable



Going by the question that informs the table above shows that, it is observed that vast majority of the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, that were aware of the extra time policy of their network providers are not happy about the charges attached to the extra time. This evident as 162 (or 41.8%) frowns at the charges as being very unfavourable, 92 (or 23.7%) see it as being fairly favourable, 81 (or 20.9%) condemns it as unfavourable, while only a few 30 (or 7.7%) and 23(or 5.9%) gave their nod as being favourable and gave no response respectively.

Table 5: Showing whether respondents want the 'Xtra Time service to continue

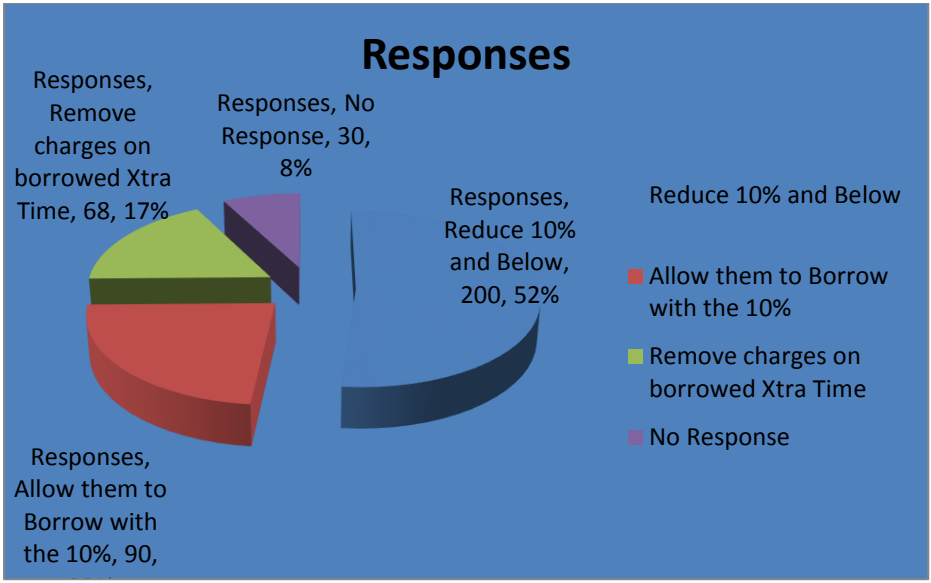
Respondents	Responses	Percentages %
Yes	388	100
No	-	-
Total	**388**	**100**

Sour**ce: Field Data **(2018)

Funny enough staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, want the policy to continue**,** despite the fact that some were not aware of it earlier and some were not at ease with the policy, yet they all want the programme to continue. This can be observed from the table above.

ARQ4: How can the service of the major network providers be improved upon on the borrow 'Xtra Airtime' and pay back charges

Pie Chart 8: Show respondents opinion on what should be done to improve the borrow 'Xtra Airtime' and pay later service.



When the question on what should be done to improve the borrow 'xtra airtime' and pay later service; 51.6% of the staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, wanted the charges to be reduced by 10% and below, while 23.2% wanted their network providers to allow them borrow any amount they wanted as much as they pay back. 17.5% of the staff and students said that their provider should not charge anything on the extra time; only 7.7% were silent on the question.

DISCUSSION

The study was aimed at ascertaining the perception of Telecom subscribers on the 'buy mobile airtime on recharge and pay later' service among staff and studentsin Caleb University, Imota, Lagos, Nigeria. Findings in the study revealed that half of the staff and students of the institution sampled share their opinion for a 10% reduction of the service charge. Also, thirty-five percent of the respondents want their network providers allow them borrow and pay later offer any amount they wanted as much as they pay back. Ten

percent call for a total removal of the charges and only five percent of the respondents were silent on the question. This finding also supports the view of Homans (1961) definition of social exchange as social behaviour that involves "the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons.

In addition, a large number of mobile phone users are aware of the extra airtime borrow and pay later offer by the network providers. Thus mobile phone users that are aware of the extra airtime borrow and pay later offer were also aware of the charges attached to it and most of them had actually requested for the service at one point or the other. However, only few of the mobile phones users that had borrowed airtime from their network providers always employ the service while others rarely use it. A large number of the subscribers confirmed that they pay back the borrowed extra airtime and the rest confess that they don't often recharge their phones to pay back airtime with the charges. This agrees with the view of Stafford (2008) that social exchanges involve a connection with another person; that involves trust and not legal obligations; are more flexible; and rarely involve explicit bargaining.

It was observed from by the findings that the poverty level in the country is still very high that the students in higher institutions and some of their lecturers still favours the extra airtime borrow and pay later offer. All of the respondents did not hesitate to protest the idea to stop the service. The findings in one part could mean that students in higher institutions are prone to borrowing when they are broke and on the other hand could mean that the level of poverty from the independent labour force is taking a toll on the dependence labour which the school children categorically belong.

Based on this, findings revealed that staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, on the 'borrow Xtra Airtime and pay later' offer service could be summarized as follows:

- Large number of students and staff Caleb University, Lagoswere quite aware of the borrow xtra airtime offer; while,
- All respondents that were aware of the borrowing offer were also aware of the charges attached to it;
- All the students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, that know about the borrow xtra airtime service of some network providers had actually requested for the service;
- Only few students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, that had borrowed credit from their network provider always use the service, others are very often, often and rarely respectively;
- Large numbers of students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, that do borrow xtra airtime from their network provider always pay back. Only few of them fall for very often in terms of paying back and others often pay back the borrowed xtra time;
- Vast majority of students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, that were aware of the xtra airtime policy of their network providers are not happy about the charges attached to the xtra airtime. This is evident as 150 students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos out of the 388 frowns at the charges while only 20 out of same number consider it ok;
- All students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, want the policy to continue, despite the fact that some were not aware of it earlier and some were not at ease with the policy, yet, they all want the policy to continue;
- 50% of students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, wanted the charges to be reduced by 10% and below, while 35% wanted their network providers to allow them borrow any amount they wanted as much as they pay back. 10% of

students and staff of Caleb University, Lagos, said that their provider should not charge anything on the xtra time, only 5% of them was silent on the issue.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this study examined the perception of mobile phone subscribers on 'xtra airtime borrow and pay later' service of major network providers among staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos. As more and more people gain access to mobile phones, the network providers and their subscribers are now turning their attention to the delivery of services through mobile phones and the very extra service offer available to the subscribers, one of which is the 'borrow credit'. Outcome of this study based on the views of staff and students of Caleb University, Lagos, could mean that mainly students in higher institutions are prone to borrowing when they are broke, and on other hand, could mean that the level of poverty from the independent labour force is taking a toll on the dependence labour which the students categorically belong.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Major network providers should reduce the extra charge or out rightly remove it.
- Major network providers should allow subscribers who habitually borrow the 'xtra airtime and pay later' to borrow any amount as long as they pay back.

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ANALYSIS OF THE COSTS OF INDUSTRIAL CONFLICT BY ACADEMIC STAFF UNION OF NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES (ASUU) ON THE PROFESSIONAL SERVICE PROVIDERS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN NIGERIA

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Abstract

Academic staff members under the auspices of their union (ASUU) have incessantly embarked on strike actions within the spate of three decades since the Union's establishment. The actions are said to be too many such that Nigerians are of the opinion that they are responsible for the poor quality of graduates. This work estimated the costs of three recent strike actions between 2009 and 2013 on the professional service providers in the University of Ibadan. In-depth interview and content analysis research designs were employed and data were collected using in-depth interview guides. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics and textual analyses methods**.** Each large shop owner lost of ₦645,250.00 during the 2009 strike action, ₦237,600.00 in 2011/12 and ₦332,750.00 to 2013 strike action, All the fifty eight (58) registered large shop owners in 2013 lost a total of ₦19,299,500.00 . Each small shop owner lost ₦307, 050.00 to 2009 strike, ₦66, 000.00 to 2011/12 strike and ₦211, 750.00 to 2013 strike action. All the 162 registered small shop owners in 2013 made a loss of ₦34,303,500. Total economic cost of the strike actions for each large and small shop owner was ₦1, 215,600.00 and ₦584,800.00 respectively. Strike actions resulted in huge loss of revenue from loss of business and have negative effects on their

livelihood. It is recommended that they should engage other ventures and that ASUU should find alternative to strike action.

Key Words: Industrial conflict, Professional Service providers, Academic staff union of Nigerian Universities (ASUU), University of Ibadan.

INTRODUCTION

Industrial conflicts especially in the form of strike actions are not new phenomena in the world and especially in Nigeria as strikes permeate almost all the sectors of the economy. Negotiation and collective bargaining as activities of industrial relations are necessitated by disagreement between management and workers on matters pertaining to either policy formulation on the welfare of workers in an organisation or workers participating in decision-making process on matters regarding their interest and welfare. Agitations by workers' union to improve conditions of service and other welfare packages are almost always not in consonance with the interest and expectations of employers and this is the very foundation of industrial conflicts. (Diejomaoh, 1979)

In registering their resentment over management's insensitivity to workers' plight, organised labour employs various pressure tactics ranging from strike actions, picketing, active non-compliance, boycott of lectures, meetings and so on. Indeed, industrial conflicts have been a recurring issue in all sectors of Nigerian economy, especially tertiary institutions with attendant negative consequences on the students, the government and goal achievement in these institutions. The incessant strikes by academic staff members of Nigerian university have assumed an alarming dimension that the public now accuses them and other university workers of embarking on strike for any

inconsequential issue with either or both management of the respective institutions and the Federal Government. (Nwaocha, 1984)

On the other hand Professional Service Providers are the owners of business centres that provide secretarial services like typesetting, printing and photocopying. **Costs** capture economic and non economic losses incurred during the strike action. **Economic Costs of strike** represent Quantifiable (monetary) losses associated with strike actions while non economic costs are losses associated with strike actions which cannot be quantified in monetary terms.

This paper analysed the costs of strikes by the academic staff members in the University of Ibadan on the Professional Service providers and particularly focuses on the 2009, 2011/12 and 2013 strike actions by the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU).

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Concept of Industrial Conflict

It is an indisputable statement of fact that the only place where conflict does not occur is in the graveyard. If conflict is therefore pervasive among all human groupings, organisations are not left out. Organisations comprise of people, with different social, educational, and religious background who come together to work in unity to achieve common goals that none of them can achieve single-handedly(Oludeji,2009) Conflicts are normal experiences within the work organisations and are, to a large extent, predictable situations that arise in the course of managing complex and stressful projects in which there have been significant investment. Industrial conflict occurs when disputes and disagreements arise between the employer and employees; it also refers to dissatisfaction manifested in workplace.

In an organisation, employers and employees interact with one another and the employment relationship between them is a very special type ofexchange. In such relations, whenever there is a clash of interest between the employees and the employers over matters relating to the working conditions which may result in dissatisfaction for either of the parties involved, then industrial conflict may occur. Korpi and Shaler (1979) view industrial conflict as an important symptom of societal change, with a central role being assigned to changes in the distribution of power resources between contending parties.

Conflict is endemic among human groupings because of the divergent interests which are usually diametrically opposed. While employers must maximise profit by minimising the cost of production usually to the detriment of employees, employees in turn (usually represented by trade unions) often seek to secure work conditions that are of a bearable standard with better remuneration. In view of this, conflict springs up. Workers may express dissatisfaction either formally or informally. (Otite, 2001)

Fajana (2000) defines industrial conflict as the inability of these parties either between employers and employees or within their groups to reach agreement connected with the object of employer-employee interaction, whether or not this inability results in strikes or lockout or other forms of protestation. Ogunbameru and Oribabor (2000) agree that industrial conflict occurs whenever clash of interest/objectives exist in worker- management relations.

Onyeonoru (2005) and Marshal (1994) holistically define industrial conflict as all expressions of dissatisfaction within the employment relationship, especially those pertaining to the employment contract and effort bargain. Onyeonoru (2005) expatiates that it includes formal expressions of conflict, organised along the

lines of trade unions and employers' associations as well as the informal conflict that lacks systematic organisation such as covert grievances that may be expressed in the form of industrial sabotage, absenteeism or lateness.

Smyth (1977) defines it as "the inability of two conflicting bodies to reach agreement on any issue connected with industrial interaction, whether or not this conflict results to a strike, lock-out or other forms of protestation". According to Otobo (2000), the fact that there is no sign of overt conflict in a given period does not mean other forms of industrial conflicts are not occurring. Dahrandorf (1959) affirms that "conflict of interest is inevitable between employer and employee because an authority relationship in the aim of the two parties will at least lead to conflicts". His view is that there will always be conflicts between those in authority and those without authority, that is, the governing and the governed, because of divergent views on the basic employment relationship, which seems to make some degree of conflict inevitable at the workplace. He observes that while the government wants to impose a condition on the governed, the governed want to have a say in the imposition upon them. It is the absence of having a say that brews conflict.

Industrial conflict denotes the clash of interest and resultant disputes of varying intensity between different individuals, groups and organisations in the industrial relations systems. It may centre on differences in terms of status, power distribution, responsibility, or informal manifestations of authority and subordination (Akanji,2005). Industrial conflicts are perceived either as disruptive to the proper functioning of society or as providing an impetus for social changes and progress. They exist at every level of industrial relations, with localised conflicts even within the separate groups of actors like any other disagreement; they are affected by emotional tensions between the actors concerned and by various outside influences.

Industrial conflict is synonymously used with trade dispute. The Trade Dispute Act, 1976, also defines it as "any disagreement or dispute between workers or between workers and employers regarding the conditions of employment or unemployment of workers and the general conditions relating to employment''. Thus, the definition includes all aspects of a dispute. It does not only include the disagreement between employees and employers but also emphasises the difference of opinion between workers. The disputes generally arise on account of poor wage structure or poor working conditions. The disagreement or difference could be on any matter concerning the workers individually or collectively and it must be connected with employment or non employment or with conditions of labour.

From the point of view of the employer, an industrial dispute resulting in stoppage of work means a stoppage of production. It results in increase in the average cost of production since fixed expenses continue to be incurred. It also leads to a fall in sales or the rate of turnover, leading to a fall in profits. The employer may also be liable to compensate the customers with whom he might have contracted for regular supply. Apart from the immediate economic effects, loss of prestige and credit, alienation of the labour force, and other non-economic, psychological and social consequences may arise. Losses due to destruction of property, personal injury and physical intimidation or inconvenience also arise.

For the employee, an industrial dispute entails loss of income. The regular income from wages and allowance ceases and great hardship may be caused to the worker and his family. Employees also suffer from personal injury if involved in strikes and picketing, and the psychological and physical consequences of forced idleness. The threat of loss of employment in case of failure to settle the dispute advantageously or the threat of reprisal action by employers also arises. Prolonged stoppages of work also have an adverse effect on

national productivity and national income, and also cause wastages of national resources. Hatred may be generated resulting in political unrest and disruption of amicable social/ industrial relations or good community attitude.

Conflict is inevitable in organisational life since the goals of different stakeholders such as managers and staff are often incompatible. The four types of organisational conflicts identified by authors are: (i).interpersonal conflict which has to do with conflict between individual members of an organisation and occurs as a result of differences in their goals or values; (ii) intra-group conflict, which occurs within a group, team or department; (iii) inter-group conflict, which arises between groups, teams, or departments and, (iv) inter-organisational conflict which occurs across organisations.(Jones, George, and Hill (2000) and Yesufu 1984).

Bagshaw (1998) asserts: conflict is a fact of life in organisations as well as in other areas of life, as people compete for jobs, resources, power, acknowledgment and security and dealing with it is difficult because it arouses primitive emotions such as people feeling threatened. Conflict is inevitable in labour–management relation, but without cooperation based upon an ideology that makes it possible to develop constructive industrial relations, the marvels of modern technology and industrialisation may lead to disaster (Ubeku, 1985). Industrial conflict is said to be a cankerworm that has eaten deeply into Nigeria's socio-economic development. Conflict, if properly managed, can be an opportunity for clearer communication, better understanding and increased productivity, while unmanaged conflict is a barrier to productivity and puts companies and employees at risk.

Industrial conflict is expressed in different terms such as strike action, industrial unrest, industrial disharmony, trade dispute, industrial dispute and so on, (Adeola , 1980). All these are concepts

which express the existence of unhealthy relationship between key actors in the industrial setting (Ogunbameru & Oribabor (2000).

Forms of Industrial Conflict

Labour–management conflict, according to Otobo (2000) may take the following form: (a) peaceful bargaining or grievance handling (b) boycotts, (c) restriction of output, (d) Industrial sabotage, (e) insubordination and physical attack, (f) absenteeism, (g) personal turnover, (h) ban on overtime, (i) strikes and (j) lockout.

Strike action also called 'labour strike' or simply 'strike' is work stoppage caused by mass refusal of employees to work and it usually takes place in response to employee grievances. Strike became significant during the Industrial Revolution when mass labour became important in factories and mines and became partially legalised by most Western countries in the late 19th or early 20th centuries. (Wikipedia)

Industrial Act 1947 defines strike as cessation of work by a body of persons employed in an industry, acting in combination or a concerted refusal of any number of persons who are or have been so employed to continue to work or to accept, or a refusal under a common understanding of any number of such persons to continue to work or accept employment. This definition throws light on a few aspects of strike. Firstly, a strike is referred to as a stoppage of work by a group of workers employed in a particular industry; secondly, it also includes the refusal of a number of employees to continue to work under their employer.

According to the resolution on statistics of strikes, lockout and other actions due to labour disputes, adopted at the 12th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (Geneva, 1993), "A strike is a temporary work stoppage effected by one or more groups of workers

with a view to enforcing or resisting demands or expressing grievances, or supporting other workers in their demands or grievances".ILO (1998:443) categorises demand in strike actions into "Occupational" which seeks to guarantee or improve workers working and living conditions, "Trade-union related" which has to do with attempts to seek recognition rights for trade unions and "Strikes staged against public policy" which is inimical to workers interests (political strikes).

The significance and meaning of strike vary from place to place. Dunlop (1979) asserts: strike may be used as an organising device, a means of general protest, as a political demonstration or as an integral part of the collective bargaining process to induce agreement) cited in Ross (1954). Dzimbiri (2008) opines: Business unions, he argues, would see the strike as a weapon to be used within the collective bargaining and profit system of the capitalist economy. Shorter and Tilly (1974) portray strike as an instrument of political action, a means of putting pressure on the political centre when the industrial working class, as a contender for power, has not yet been admitted into the polity and does not participate in the government process. In this sense, the strike becomes a means of involving workers in politics itself.

Strikes can also occur because of the following: Dissatisfaction with company policy; salary and incentive problems; increment not up to mark; wrongful discharge or dismissal of workers; hours of work and rest intervals; leaves with wages and holidays; bonus, profit sharing, provident fund and gratuity; retrenchment of workmen and closure of establishment; dispute connected with minimum wage and physical working environment.Shorey (1977) and Anannaba (1969) also observe that inflation plays a significant part in the decision to strike. This is because the cost of living increases and the wage differential effects of inflationary periods will mean more stoppages

as both sides of the industry try to adjust to rapidly changing economic conditions.

Although strikes are usually the most visible and conspicuous expression of industrial conflict, they are not the only medium through which conflicts of interests and values can be expressed. Strike is usually reserved as a threat of last resort during negotiations between the organisation and the Union and may be specific to a particular workplace, employer or unit within a workplace or they may encompass an entire industry, or every worker within a city or industry. When workers cease to work in a particular industry, they are said to be on strike.

Causes of conflict explain those conditions that may warrant conflict to germinate and become issues of conflict. This is because conflict at its source may not necessarily become issues of controversy, confrontation and concerns of all but conflict which is caused (either intentionally or not) will no doubt bring about controversies and confrontations which may not necessarily result in conflict at its source, The causes of industrial conflicts can be broadly categorised into two, namely economic and noneconomic causes. The economic causes will include issues relating to compensation like wages, bonus, allowances, and conditions of work, working hours, leaves and holidays without pay, unjust layoff and retrenchment. The non economic factors will include victimization of workers, ill-treatment by staff by staff members, sympathetic strikes, political factors, indiscipline and so on.

Aderinto (1986) revealed that the largest proportions of disputes declared and those resulting in industrial conflict involved wages – demand for wages, method of payment or irregularity of payment. In times of inflationary pressures, employees are likely to seek wage increases to maintain their standards of living. Refusal by the

management to grant request for allowances and bonuses can also lead to industrial conflict. Fasoyin (1980), Nyong (1998) and Saka (2004) found that apart from wages and salaries , inflation, unemployment , the type of government in power , the activities of the wage commission and frequency of price increase of petroleum products are the factors affecting trade dispute in Nigeria.

Disputes related to conditions of service include demand for improved physical condition of work, safety and health, better treatment on the job, holiday with pay, retirement salaries and medical facilities, length of working days, the interval and frequency of labour and the physical working environment. Disputes can also arise as a result of alleged or actual violation of condition of work. The conflicts that involve discipline have to do with suspension, interdiction, termination, dismissal, retirement, redundancy, transfers and shifts. They may have to do with actions taken of the fairness of such actions.

Application of provision of collective agreement may be the source of conflict in an organisation. In certain cases, an agreement may be silent on an issue thereby giving room for different interpretation by each party. It may also be such that certain sections of the agreement are in conflict or a section is ambiguous, each party may therefore, point to the sections that favour it or may interpret the ambiguity in its own favour. Also one party may violate an agreement in the form of non- implementation or non-adherence to the terms of the agreement. This has always been the bone of contention between the Federal Government and ASUU in respect of FGN- ASUU agreement of 1992 when the Federal Government violated the agreement with ASUU over salary increment .This eventually led to the declaration of another strike in1996. The non- implementation of FGN- ASUU agreement also led to ASUU calling its members out on strike in December 2011 till February 2012 and in July 2013.

Non Recognition of Unions and Anti- Union Activities is also source of conflict**.** Until 1973, when the trade union Act empowered the then Minister of labour to compel an employer to recognise a union, non – recognition and refusal to bargain were important sources of industrial conflict in Nigeria. However, workers still complain of victimization or anti- union activities. Anti- Union activities may also involve the victimization of union members and officials, intervention in the union affairs, non–cooperation in the union's operation check-off system and failure to negotiate.

Management change in policies on leave entitlements such as sick leave, holiday leave, promotion and redundancy without adequate consultation which creates a change to custom and practice could lead to conflict. Political and social issues involving wider issues (environmental and political) where employees take action to support a cause can be issues on conflict. Examples were nationwide strike on the removal of fuel subsidies, the demand for the release of union leaders arrested by the government and the issue related to politics. .

METHODOLOGY

Content analysis and in-depth interview research designs were employed and data collected through interview guides. The target population was the professional service providers within and around the students' Union building in the University of Ibadan. The study population comprises the total number of professional service providers in the University of Ibadan out of which 22 persons were purposively sampled. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics while qualitative data were textually analysed. The magnitude of lost income by professional service providers was evaluated from the responses given during the interview sessions. This was estimated as the difference between incomes realised when the

university was in session and there was no strike and when there was a strike action. This, multiplied by the number of days that the strike lasted constituted the economic cost of strike action.

DATA ANALYSIS

As shown in Table 1, the 2009 strike action lasted for eighty-nine (89) days while 2011/12 and 2013 strike actions lasted for forty-four (44)days and one hundred and twenty-one (121) days respectively. The total number of days lost to the three strike actions was two hundred and fifty-four days (254) days.

Table 1. . Number of days lost to strike actions

Strike Speriod	2009	2011/12	2013	Total
No of days	89	44	121	254

Source; Field Survey (Aiyelari,2017)

Analysis of estimated Economic Cost to Professional Service Providers

In order to have a deeper insight, the professional service providers are categorised into small and large shop owners and for the purpose of enquiry, a distinction is made in terms of incomes generated per day when there was no strike and during strike actions.

The professional service providers reported that 2009 was a better year than other years in terms of income generated. Evidence shows that specifically, the amount generated by each large shop owner in 2009 was a daily average of ₦9,000.00 while that of a small shop owner generated ₦3,750.00 when the academic session was normal and there was no strike. However, during the strike period, a

large shop owner's income fell to an average of ₦1,750.00 while that of a small shop owner declined to ₦300.00 (a decline of 69%), but comparatively, average daily income fell in subsequent years.

During the 2011/12 session, each large shop owner realised average daily income of ₦6,750.00 while each small shop owner realised average daily income of ₦1,750.00 when there was no strike action, and each large shop owner realised an average daily income of ₦1,350.00 and each small shop owner made an average daily income of ₦250.00 during the strike action. In 2013, average daily income of each large shop owner was ₦3,750.00 when there was no strike action and ₦1,000.00 during the strike action, while each small shop owner realised an average daily income of ₦1,750.00 when there was no strike action

Average daily income of each small shop owner during the 2013 strike action could not be estimated because the shops were closed and they made no sales. This could be interpreted as loss of the whole amount they could have made if there was no strike action. The large shop owners experienced the highest daily loss of income during the 2009 strike period while the small shop owners' highest daily loss was during the 2013 strike action when no income was realised. Even though the professional service providers maintained that 2009 was a better year, the impact of the strike action was more on them and the losses made during the year was much in terms of Naira and Kobo. As shown in Tables 12a and 12b, during the 2009 strike action, each large shop owner made a daily loss of 80.56% (₦7,250 .00) which amounted to ₦645,250.00 for the 89 days the strike action lasted while each small shop owner made a daily loss of ₦3,450.00 (69%) which amounted to ₦307,050.00 for the same period.

Percentage daily loss of income for each large shop owner during the 2011/12 strike period was 80% (₦5,400.00 per day) which

translated to ₦237,600.00 and 87.7% (₦1,500.00 per day) for each small shop owner and amounted to loss of ₦66, 600.00 for the 44days the strike action lasted. 2013 strike action led to a daily loss of ₦2,750.00 (73.33%) to each large shop owner, realisable income falling to ₦332, 750.00 for the 121 days of strike action while each small shop owner reported zero sales and lost everything that could have been made which amounted to a daily loss of ₦1750.00 and total loss of ₦211, 750.00 for the 121 days of the strike action since they stayed at home to reduce losses for the same period the strike action lasted as shown in tables 2 and 3.

The result is intriguing as loss of daily income (outcome) may not be entirely attributed to strike action. In 2009, many students did not have their gadgets such as computers and printers and so patronised them. Income generated when there was no strike was also highest because there were few professional service providers on the campus, but by 2011, several students had their computers and more shops were provided, thereby reducing the income realised per person, even though the number of students increased due to the introduction of the distance learning program, income generation in 2011 and 2013 decreased.

The Chairman of the professional service providers in Students Union Building (SUB) submits that "sales went down to minimal during the strike actions. The students are our customers and when they are not around there is no market" (IDI, September 2015).The 2013 strike actions according to the respondents actually led to the collapse of their businesses as the strike was declared to be total and indefinite. Many had to close shops when there were virtually no sales and people stayed at home to await the end of the strike action. The coping strategies employed by this group of stakeholders during the various strike periods included learning new trade such as binding, adding sale of other items such as stationeries and duplicating paper to

their wares. Some depended on assistance from siblings, spouses and friends while others relocated to some areas outside the campus, some survived on the little jobs brought by customers outside the campus while others maintained that they coped by the "grace of God".

Estimated cost of 2013 strike to 58 large shop owners is **₦19,299,500.00** while that of the 162 small shop owners is **₦34,303,500.00**. Total estimated economic cost of 2013 strike to professional service providers is **₦53,603,000.00**. It can therefore be concluded that shop owners (the professional service providers) within the University suffered more due to loss of income and were adversely affected by the strike actions of academic staff members.

Table 2: Economic losses of Professional Service Providers at SUB

	2009	2011/12	2013	Total
Large shop owner	NA	NA	58	
Average income per day (no strike)	₦9,000.00	₦6,750.00	₦3,750.00	
Average income (strike period)	₦1,750.00	₦1350.00	₦1,000	
Loss/gain per day	-₦7,250.00	-₦5,400.00	-₦2,750.00	
Loss per owner	-₦645,250.00	-₦237,600.00	-₦332,750.00	
Total Loss			₦19,299,500.00	
% daily loss	80.56%	80%	73.33%	

Table 3: Economic losses of Professional Service Providers at SUB

	2009	2011/12	2013	Total
Small shop owner	NA	NA	162	
Average income per day (no strike)	₦3,750.00	₦1,750.00	₦1,750.00	
Average income (strike)	₦300.00	₦250.00	Nil	
Loss/gain per day	-₦3,450.00	-₦1,500.00	-₦1,750.00	
Loss per owner	₦307,050.00	₦66,000.00	₦211,750.00	
Total Loss			₦ 34,303,500.00	
% daily loss	69%	87.7%	100%	

Source: Field Survey

Non-Economic Costs

All of them unanimously agreed that strike actions by academic staff members had adverse effect on their businesses as there were little or no sales, and patronage was very low. This was because the student body that forms a larger proportion of their customers were not on ground. This position was summarised by the chairman of professional service providers in Students Union Building (SUB) thus: "strike actions have adverse effects on all categories of professional service providers on the campus and there is no way out as nobody buys from or patronises us. No student, no campus" (IDI, September 2015).During the strike actions, business was so bad that majority of professional service providers closed their shops and stayed at home because getting transport fare and feeding became difficult and as one of them said, "it was so bad that at times we don't make a kobo in a week and eventually we had to lock up our shops." (IDI, September 2015).

On 2013 strike actions, the service providers had this to say:

> The 2013 strike action was so bad because it lasted for six months. Its effects were drastic as we hardly made sales, students were not around and all academic activities were paralysed. Although we made some money from few people coming outside but not our major customers (IDI, September 2015)

Many incurred a lot of debts; some on microfinance loans given to augment their businesses and payable on weekly basis, could not meet up and so incurred a lot of debts. The strike actions had many social implications on performance of their responsibilities as breadwinners and parents in the homes. They were unable to provide food allowances for their wives, adequate feeding of the children and wards became difficult and thus some engaged in buying food on credit from their customers in the market. They were unable to pay school fees, houseand shop rentsand neighbourhood/community dues by owner-occupiers, daily contributions and thrifts, which were major means of sustaining business were suspended. Employees were sentaway due to inability to pay salaries while some shared the little they made with their employees, some resorted to having trainees in place of paid employees. These effects are generally the same for the various strike periods.

Income generated decreased consistently from 2009 to 2013. This was due to the fact that the students started having their computers and other gadgets to do their work themselves; also the number of professional service providers increased. Even with increased student population due to the Distance Learning Programmes, income generation decreased. The Chairman of the Professional service providers in SUB submits that "sales went down to minimal; the

students are our customers, when they are not around, there is no market". (IDI, September 2015)

The 2013 strike actions according to the respondents actually led to the collapse of the businesses as the strike was declared to be total and indefinite. Many had to close shops when there were virtually no sales and people stayed at home to await the end of the strike action. In 2013, the respondents with large shops lost ₦2,750 per day, representing 73.33% per day which amounted to ₦332, 750 per person for the days the strike action lasted. The small shop owners in 2013 made an average of ₦1,750 per day in 2013 when the school was in session. They made nothing during the strike. They decided to stay at home since there was no sale and coming to shop was a waste of time, the little money they had was spent on transportation. Some could not even afford money to transport themselves to their shops. This was a 100% loss.

The various strike actions had adverse effects on their social life**,** state of mind and health**.** They submitted that they were unhappy, depressed and some became sick and were under tension as there was nothing to do. Their social life came down to zero and as one of them said **"**There is no social life when there is no money" (IDI, September 2015).

CONCLUSION

The conclusion is that strike actions by academic staff union hampered businesses on the campus. This conclusion is consistent with previous studies by Wokoma, (2011), Saka (2004) and Ibrahim (2001), which stated that industrial unrest in Nigeria adversely affected output and profits due to reduction in revenue. It is also concluded that the various strike actions led to disruption in plans and made planning impossible of all stakeholders. This is in consonance

with the findings of Igbaji (2004), Beach (1975) Flippo (1980), and Umokoro (2013), Okotoni & Okotoni (2003).

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The professional service providers should think retrospectively of other ways of making ends meet and not rely on income from businesses on the campus alone for the fear of strikes by the university workers.

2. Rather than managing or resolving incessant strike actions there should be a more positive, creative, constructive and imaginative way of preventing it, by ethics of the "art of thinking together" which goes by the name collective bargaining.

3. More attention should also be paid to collaborative problem solving that is in harmony with university values of coexistence.

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COMBATING FAKE NEWS AND SOCIAL MEDIA INFLUENCE ON VOTING BEHAVIOUR OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS IN SELECT UNIVERSITIES IN EDO STATE NIGERIA.

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Abstract

Modern political processes require the use of emergent information and communication technologies like social media to reach out to the populace, especially the youth to participate in the democratic conversation. Hence, social media have become global phenomenon and their impact as means of communicating political messages cannot be ignored. However, this is not without the attendant challenges associated with social media, which includes fake news. On the other hand, this has created an impact in the political system and

the voting behaviour of citizens particularly the youths who are the major audience of the social media. A survey of literature in this study shows that despite the avalanche of fake news in social media, its influence on voting behaviour among university students has not been adequately researched by scholars. There are plethora's of studies on fake news on social media by scholars, however, there is a dearth of literature on their influence on the voting behaviour of University undergraduate students. The study seeks to find out how often university students receive political news on social media and whether the political news they receive on social media influence their perception of candidates and voting behavior. Igbinedion University Okada and University of Benin Students constitute the population for this study. The study is anchored on Medium theory of communication. The survey method and focus Group Discussion method were adopted using the questionnaire and the Focus Group Discussion Schedule as instrument for data collection. The work concludes that fake news in social media has a little influence on the voting behaviour of a large number of university students. The study also reveals that majority of the university students receive political news on social media daily. The paper recommends that the federal government particularly the Ministry of Information and Communication should make policies that promotes media literacy and shuns fake news especially in the political realm. Since most of the students are internet savvy, the federal government should provide free or subsidized internet service charges.

Key Words: Influence, fake news, Social Media, Voting behaviour, University Students, internet.

INTRODUCTION

The New Media has drastically increased and has provided various opportunities for members of the public to have direct access to information without the interference of gate keepers. Social media, for instance, has a way of making its users assume them as models par excellence and this is what the society refers to as being digitally literate especially in an era of platform politics. (Cable News, 2018)

Until fairly recently, Social media were concentrated in the hands of a few organizations, but now it is all around us. In addition to this, there are now many online blogs, podcasts and videos from a wide variety of providers from all walks of life, as well as in social media platforms where anyone can be a "citizen journalist." While this has created a vibrant and dynamic array of information sources, Gallagher & Magid (2018), feel it has also made it more difficult to know which sources can be trusted. This has led to drastic increase in fake news all over the world.

Social media on the other hand refers to "a broad and growing portion of the internet that is designed as a platform which allows users, and groups of users, to create and exchange content, often in an interactive or collaborative fashion" (Gainous & Wagner 2014, p.2). Social media for news consumption is a double-edged sword due to its low cost, easy access, and rapid dissemination of information which has lead people to seek out and consume news (Shu & Sliva, et al., 2016).

The increase in spread of fake news during elections in countries has been an issue of concern. Gelfert (2018) and Shu et al. (2018) explained that "fake news", is widely believed to have played a significant role in shaping the outcome of political contests and can break the authenticity balance of the news ecosystem. In the last decade, it has become a common and trending term all over the world.

It is seen as a present phenomenon that derives its significance from the real-world effects of the proliferation of news content both as a means of giving misleading reports and as a rhetorical device for shutting down critical reporting.

The history of Fake news could be traced to the year 1439, when the first printing press was invented and news began to circulate widely. However, there is no agreed definition of the term "fake news". A narrow definition of fake news is news articles that are intentionally and verifiably false and could mislead readers (Shu & Silva et al., 2016). They further explained that fake news includes false information that can be verified as such and is created with dishonest intention to mislead consumers. Fake news is a news article that is intentionally and verifiably false (Barner 2010). fake news is usually free and this means that people who cannot afford to pay for quality journalism, or who lack access to independent public service news media, are especially vulnerable to both disinformation and misinformation (UNESCO 2018)

Pangrazio (2017) disclosed that fake news has served as a source of revenue to cities like Veles which is the city that now hosts over 100 US political websites; the city has started trading in a new industry - fake news and it is the digitally savvy teenagers of the city who are reaping the rewards. Fake news is specifically related to digital platforms and social media (rather than traditional broadcast). It is the term used to refer to phenomena as different as satire, parody, fabrication, manipulation, native advertising, and propaganda (Venturini 2018).

In November 2018, The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) research team discovered that Nigerians are one of the major preys of fake news due to the fact that they are concerned about not

falling behind the news and this has led to increase in fake news in the country.

Studies that do examine voting have found some positive relationships between online or social media news consumption and voter's turnout.

The relatively new nature of social media as a tool could account for some of the differences. As it ages, (Curry 2018) notes that more and more people are adopting it as a source of information, in particular younger generations. Musa (2015) discovered that the majority of the students of mass communication in Nigeria use social media for communication, collaboration, news sharing, research, expression of opinion, maintaining a connection, and making friends from other countries.

The relationship between fake news consumption and political participation is unclear. Results of initial studies during the past ten years suggest that in some instances there is a positive relationship between fake news and political participation. Others suggest little to no relationship (Curry 2018). Political advertising has become a tool of political communication which also interacts with democracy (Lahi 2015). Politicians as a whole have begun using the internet more and more for campaigning.

During 2015 elections in Nigeria, politicians, including Ex-President Good luck Jonathan, Used the social media bandwagon for political purposes. He made aggressive use of social media to connect with millions of electorates on both Facebook and Twitter. In 2011, Ex-president Jonathan declared his intention to run for the 2015 presidential election on facebook three days before formally announcing at a rally.
He has about 590, 190 followers on Facebook as at 14th of July. He also tweet updates and reactions on his Twitter profile---

JGoodLucktweets---to his 16,486 followers as at 14th of July. Ex-President Jonathan's utilization of social media proved to be a hit with youths in particular, and the populace in general. (Ajibola 2015).

A most recent example of how social media can be utilized to skewer elections in Nigeria is the Anambra governorship elections of November 2017; Where the Independent People of Biafra (IPOB), almost thwarted the Anambra 2017 governorship elections when it peddled highly emotive and divisive content with the aim of a creative fake narrative designed to deceive the populace. Reliance on social media for news and political information could cause people to digest and act upon information from unreliable sources (Curry 2018).
Today, many Nigerian universities are now equipped with Wi-Fi which is available to students at little or no costs. Many students now own laptops/net books and other mobile devices like ipads, blackberries, iphones and other smart phones through which they access social media sites like facebook, twitter, Youtube, Hi5, 2go etc on the internet. The Nigerian youth make up a substantial part of the Nigerian populace as well as eligible voters (Ajibola 2015).

It is against this background that this study is aimed at examining the collision between political news and youth political participation vis-a-avis the debacle of fake news on social media and its influence on youths voting behaviour.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Social media platforms have afforded majority of people to communicate effortlessly with wider audience. It has given room for express expression of views. However, recent developments around the world have proved that social media has assumed a destructive dimension and threatening the very humanity it came to improve. The unending controversies surrounding the U.S election that ushered in

Donald Trump as president have actually unraveled the ugliest side (disinformation) of social media.

In Nigeria, the proliferation of fake news on social media has reached an unprecedented level, putting the country in a precarious situation (Cable News, 2018). As the 2019 general elections in Nigeria was just concluded, Youths were recruited, equipped with internet devices to syndicate trolls and fake news on social media (Cable News, 2018).

Fake news is predominant on social media. However, Social media enhance the social capital and political participation of the youths, particularly during the period of national election (Mustapha et al., 2016). This suggests that it is important to examine its influence on youths voting choices and political participation. If this is not investigated, the knowledge of the magnitude of the influence will not be ascertained.

Therefore, this study is aimed at examining the collision between political news and youth political participation and the role of fake news on social media in shaping youth voting behaviour.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study has the following objectives:

1. To find out how often students received political news on social media
2. To determine the influence of the political news received from the social media on the students' perception of political candidate
3. To ascertain the influence on their voting behaviour.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is predicated on the medium theory of communication.

Medium Theory

The theory originated from Marshal McLuhan's 'the medium is the message' postulation. McLuhan (1964) in his work, he challenged conventional definitions when he claimed that the medium is the message. The Medium Theory focuses on the characteristics of each medium (or of each type of medium) that make it physically, socially, and psychologically different from other media. The theory also examines how communications through a particular medium or type of medium compare and contrast with face-to-face interaction. Medium theory analyzes differences among communication environments.

With this claim, he stressed how channels differ, not only in terms of their content, but also in regard to how they awaken and alter thoughts and senses. He distinguished media by the cognitive processes each required. Furthermore, the theory claims that channels of communication are primary causes of cultural change. According to him, Family life, the workplace, schools, health care, friendship, religion, recreation, politics are all touched by communication technology.

McLuhan viewed every new form of media innovation to be an extension of some human faculty. He argued that the media are not simply channels for transmitting information between two or more environments, but are themselves distinct social-psychological settings or environments that encourage certain types of interaction and discourage others (Ellis, 2009). It emphasizes that a particular channel can influence human thinking and social organization. Here the channel is seen as key in understanding how mass communication influences at both the individual, social, and cultural levels.

On the social level, medium theories note how changing patterns of social interaction attributable to medium differences (e.g., Internet, cell phones, Blackberries) change social structure in general. Thus, the Internet has altered the speed, storage, and availability of information and created an information class including changed patterns of reading. Social media has influenced social capital, or the resources accumulated through the relationships among people, and allows for the formation of new social networks.

METHODOLOGY

This study used the Focus Group Discussion and Survey research design. According to Kumar (2011: 124), Focus Group Discussion is a form of strategy in qualitative research in which attitudes, opinions or perceptions towards an issue, product, service or programme are explored through a free and open discussion between members of a group and the researcher. The issues discussed in focus groups are more specific and focused. In this case, the method becomes appropriate as it avails the opportunity to have discussion with youths on the subject of fake news on social media and how it affects their political participation.

Meanwhile, the survey research is one which a group of people or item is studied by collecting and analysing data from only a few people or items considered to be a representative of the entire group. According to McBurney (1994), Survey is defined as accessing public opinion or individual characteristics by the use of questionnaire and sampling methods.

The population of this study consisted of all students in Nigeria's tertiary institution. According to JAMB (2012), there are 284 tertiary institutions in Nigeria which can be said to have increase in recent times. A Multi stage sampling technique was used in the sampling of the institutions for the study. At the first stage, the

institutions were grouped into six regions including the north central, north west, north east, south west, south east and south-south and the south-south region was selected using the simple random technique. At the second stage, the institutions were grouped into two sets of private and public institutions and one group was selected comprising of Igbinedion University and University of Benin, in Edo state also using the simple random technique.

Due to the large population of students in the University of Benin, the institution was selected for the survey research while Igbinedion University was used for the focus group discussion research. A total of 200 students were surveyed using thes simple random sampling technique while 12 students were involved in the focus group discussion session bringing the sample size to 212. For the focus group discussion, there were two groups comprising of male and female with each group having six males and six females with the use of the purposive sampling technique. This technique provides that the characteristics or features of a subject grant him the qualification to be included in the sample. It ensures that only those elements that are relevant to the research are selected.

The questionnaire was administered on 200 students in the University of Benin. It had a total of 17 questions which were divided into two segments; the demographic and the psychographic data. The focus discussion schedule was also administered on the discussants who were 12 in number. The questions were three with follow ups as the discussion unfolds. The focus group discussion schedule had three questions that covered the objectives of the study. For the purpose of clarity, descriptive statistics like percentages, frequencies and charts were used to analyze and present the findings for the survey method and the thematic analysis technique was used in analyzing the Focus Group data.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

1. **To ascertain how often university students receive political news on social media**

CHART 1: Respondent Accessibility to Political News on Social Media

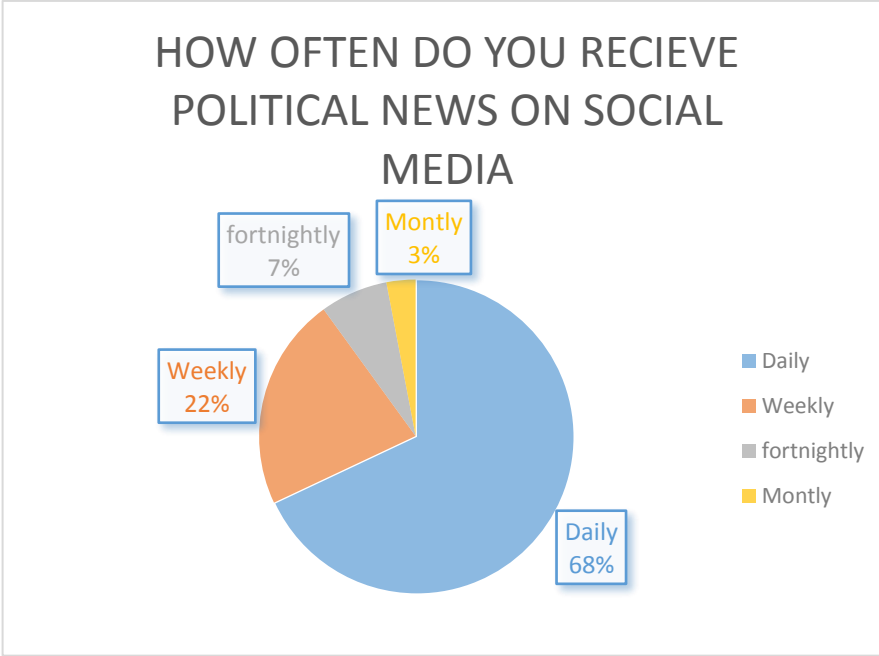


Chart 1 indicates that 68% of the respondents receive political news on social media daily. 22% receives weekly, 7% fortnightly while 3% receives Monthly. It shows that majority of the respondents receive political news on social media daily.

Chart 1 of the survey research show that students of University of Benin use social media as their best medium of political news and they

receive political news from social media daily. This indicates that university students use social media for political purposes. This finding agrees with Shamsu, Murtala, Alamai and Bello (2018) position that 'the use of social media has grown in recent elections particularly among youth. Of significance for this age group is the rise in the use of social media and mobile devices for obtaining political information, creating user generated political content, and expressing political views and opinions.

From the Focus Group Discussion, in the two groups, it is seen that nine of the participants receive political news on social media on a daily basis. Only three of the twelve participants receive political news on social media weekly. Participant three from group one and Participant three from group two responded that they receive political news on social media *"almost every day"* and they subscribe to the internet every time. This goes in agreement with Ali et. al (2016) where they discovered that Students use social media daily for learning purpose, for entertainment, and for innovation.

2. **To examine whether the political news on social media influence students perception of political candidates**

CHART2: Perception of Respondents on Choice of Candidate

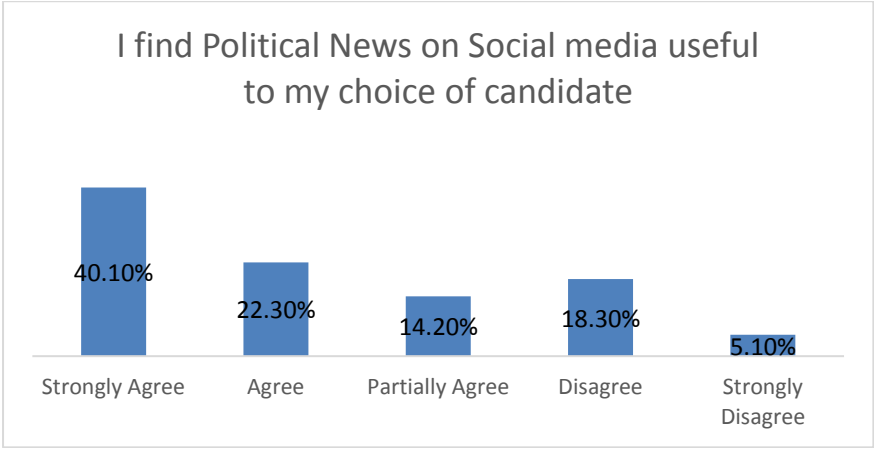


Chart 2 explains that 40.1% Strongly Agreed, 22.3% Agreed, 14.2% Partially Agreed, 18.3% disagreed while 5.1% strongly disagreed that they find political news on Social Media useful to their choice of candidate.

Chart 2 in the survey helps to show how respondents perceive political candidates after reading political news about them. The result indicates that political news about a candidate affects the respondents' perception of the candidates and that they find political news on social media important to their choice of candidate. This agrees with Kaplan and Haenlein (2010) postulations that the social dimension of Social Media and the concept of self-presentation states that in any type of social interaction people have, there is a desire to control the impressions of other people and this is done with the objective to influence others to gain rewards (e.g., make a positive impression on

your future in-laws); on the other hand, it is driven by a wish to create an image that is consistent with one's personal identity.

The third question asked in the focus Group Discussion answers this. Participants one, three and five in group one and Participant six in group two agrees that the messages they receive about a candidate does not change their perception of political candidates. Participant six in group two explains that *"I do not really think political news about a candidate affects my perception of the candidate because when it comes to politics, it is like a game. Everyone wants to win by all means this will now create avenue for 'cunny' information in order to tarnish the image of their fellow political counter parts. To me if I receive news about a candidate, I tend to make further investigation to know if it is true or not. Political news does not affect my perception of a candidate unless I confirm it personally by research and investigation".* This claim aligns with Odoemelam and Odoemelam (2018) *where they found that unverified information on social media is a factor to be concerned with but the discussants are not bothered about it because their prior knowledge of fake news on social media serves as a gate-keeper.*

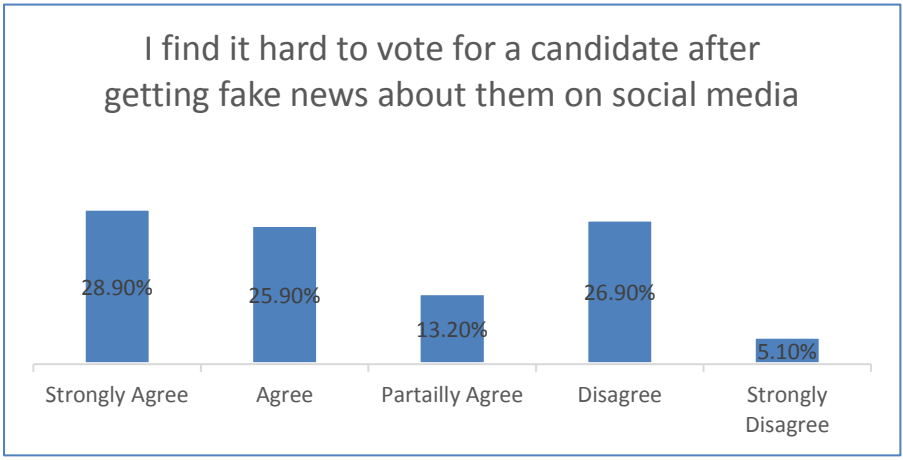
In an opposition to this, Participants one, two, three, four and five in group two explains that political news on social media changes their perception of political candidates. Participant four in group two points that *"information they say is power and these people we tend to vote for, we get to know them more through the social media. it has created a better publicity for them. Once I get any information about them. It instantly affects my perception of the candidate because the same social media that promotes them can also expose them".* Kaur (2015) explains that the emergence of social media has a bigger impact on the young people. He adds that It impacts upon young people who are growing up in an age where media is not about broadcast content from the TV, but is about interactivity, multimedia and multi-tasking

as well as upon organizations who need to remain pertinent to a new generation, and who find their own work and structures being changed by changing communication tools and patterns of communications. Many have grown up with the online world available as a constant, convenient source of information, but they may not necessarily possess the knowledge and skills needed to assess the reliability of what they find there. At the same time, rapid developments in the online news ecosystem, such as the increasing role of advertising and algorithms in determining news feeds and search results, can be difficult even for adult news consumers to comprehend (National Literacy Trust, 2017).

Participants two, four and six in group one explains that their perception on political candidates varies. Participant six in group one discussed that "*It Depends on the magnitude of the news as well as the consistency of the news".* Participant four in group one explains that" *is simply because political news thrives more when elections are close and I have learnt that they are fake news that spreads about such candidate in order to discredit him/ her in the minds of the voters. Even when elections are not close, I find it hard to change my perception on the candidates of my choice*.

3. **To identify how fake news influence students voting behaviour.**

CHART 3: Respondents' disposition after reading fake news about a candidate



This chart indicates that 28.9% of respondent strongly agreed that they find it hard to vote for a candidate after getting fake news about them, 25.9% agreed to this claim, 13.3% Partially Agreed, 26.9% disagree while 5.1% strongly disagreed

Chart 3 in the survey shows that political news on social media determines the choice of respondents' candidate. Most of the respondents find it difficult to vote for a candidate after reading fake news about them and the negative news they get about a candidate affects their choice of candidate. This agrees with Asemah (2009), who opines that "The media, whether electronic, print or new media often set agenda for the public to follow; they monitor trends and events in our society and raised their agenda based on what they have

monitored and whatever issue the media raised becomes an issue of public concern.

Similarly, in the Focus Group Discussion, questions four and five were asked to identify how fake news in social media influenced the students voting behavior. Participants one, three and six in group one agrees that fake news affected their vote for a particular candidate. Participant 6 in group responded that *Yes, it affects because it is hard to disbelieve it due to the way it spreads. It is later that one finds out that it is fake and by then elections are over.* Lahi (2015) found out that during electoral campaigns, citizens' perception is analyzed, and the new message is shaped often based on political marketing tools creating this way, a circle of information from politics to voters and via verse.

In an opposition to this, more than half of the participants disclose that fake news does not affect their vote for a particular candidate. It is important to note that all the participants in group two which is the female group points that fake news did not affect their vote for a candidate. According to participant five in group two, she explained that*" No it does not because I am a lawyer in training, I always practice my profession regarding this. I also dig deep for facts. Fake news is not a factor at all".* In the same vein, participant three in group two shared her personal experience that*" Sometimes, it might even be a candidate you know so I do not have to believe the fake news. for example, there was a certificate scandal about a political aspirant but this aspirant is my mother's mate and friend in secondary school and my mother confirmed to me that he was an outstanding student in their secondary school days and he also passed his West African Examination with excellent. Having this firsthand experience, I do allow fake news to affect my vote for a candidate".* Participant six in group two discloses that she takes her*" time to do some sort of*

investigation whenever I get the news. I do not just accept anyhow information from social media".

Interestingly, Odoemelam and Odoemelam (2018) explained that discussants do not believe everything they read, hear or see on social media. Perhaps it might be the case that the discussants level of media literacy moderated their experience. This is more so since audience level of education is associated with their uses of and gratification from media items including news.

Furthermore, the fifth question was for the participants to explain how fake news on social media affects their choice of candidate during the 2019 general elections. It is important note that all the participants in group two and Participant two, four and five in group one pointed that fake news on social media dis not affect their choice of candidate during the 2019 general elections while participant one, three, six *disclosed* that fake news on social media has an effect on their choice of candidate during the 2019 elections. Participant one in group one discloses that "*it affected me because I voted here in Okada and I was supporting the All Progressive Congress candidate representing the consistency at the house of assembly before I heard he was a drug baron so I changed my mind and voted for the opposition party but he won. It was later that I found out that the ruling honourable's supporters initiated the news to discredit the candidate in the minds of voters".* Curran (2005) states that the media assist voters to make knowledgeable choice at election time. This is done in form of social media campaigns, paid political advertisements, commentaries and news stories.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The adoption of the new media especially the social media as a vehicle of rapid dissemination of information particularly among the voters cannot be over emphasized while the social media keeps thriving, fake news spreads in a similar magnitude. This study has shown that the social media is a major tool in the spread of fake news especially in the political space. It is important to note that the university students are aware of the spread of fake news on social media. Despite the fact that most of the university students can differentiate between fake news and political advertising in the social media, political news on social media still affects their perception of candidates. However, this in turn influenced their voting behavior.

Based on the findings, the study therefore recommends thus: the federal Government of Nigeria should provide more internet services such as free wifi, subsided cost of data bills since the university students are internet savvy. e.t.c. This will create an easy access for the youths for expressing themselves, be part of the development of the country and as well enhance democracy at all level; while the National Orientation Agency (NOA), Independent Electoral Commission (INEC), political parties/candidates, civil societies/Groups, NGOs etc all need to constantly upgrade their internet platforms, using the social media more often and creating avenues for social media interactions. This will lead to increase in political participation and involvement among university students.

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A REVIEW OF THE BOOK: *THE THREE MUSKETEERS*

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Author: Agboola Sanni
Title of book: The Three Musketeers
Reviewer: Professor Adeolu Akande
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Year of Publication: 2017
Number of Pages: 192

The Three Musketeers is a biographical sketch of the professional careers of three of Nigeria's most successful journalists since the advent of print journalism in Nigeria 159 years ago, counting from the establishment of **Iwe Iroyin Fun ara Egbaati Yoruba** in Abeokuta in 1859.

The book is set in the political history of Nigeria from the first republic through the trajectory of civilian and military rule until the passing of one of the subjects of the book in 2009.

The author, **Agboola Sanni** was a journalist with the **Nigerian Tribune and Punch newspapers**, who rose to be Chairman of the Political Bureau of the Nigerian Tribune in the 1970s, undoubtedly the leading political newspaper of the time. The author is therefore eminently qualified to tell the story of the subjects of the book, because he sat at the ringside of history and watched as the story of the Three Musketeers unfolded.

The sobriquet "The Three Musketeers", in the words of the author, is a "clear allusion to the famous historical French romantic novel by Alexander Dumas in which three French musketeers were joined by a young hot-headed would-be musketeer on a mission to defend the honour of their king and country".

The Three Musketeers in the book are Olusegun Osoba, Felix Adenaike and the late Peter Ajayi; three eminent journalists who dominated the Nigerian media industry in the 1970s and 1980s. The sobriquet, **The Three Musketeers**, was given to them by the late Chief Olabisi Onabanjo, a journalist of note and former governor of Ogun State, who had a reputation for coining many of the famous sobriquets in the Nigerian intellectual space. Onabanjo, it was who named General Ibrahim Babangida the "Maradona", an enduring sobriquet coined to describe the deft political moves of the former Nigerian Military President in his heydays in power.

The book is set in the trajectory of Nigerian politics. The careers of the Three Musketeers blossomed as Nigerian politics took its bends between civilian and military rule with the musketeers, as leading journalists playing the traditional role of the watchdog. It is not surprising that their paths crossed that of the late sage, Chief Obafemi Awolowo. This apparently accounts for the copious reference to Chief Awolowo in the book. Indeed, although it was Chief Onabanjo who coined "***The Three Musketeers***," it was its adoption by Chief Awolowo to so refer to the trio of Osoba, Adenaike and Ajayi that popularised the sobriquet. Awolowo's adoption of the sobriquet made it a sort of badge of honour for the musketeers.

The story of The **Musketeers** is told in 192 pages over 20 chapters that cover the beginning of the friendship of the trio through their different career journeys and the crisis-crossing of their career paths. It dwells extensively on the political occurrences of the first republic all through the years of military interregnum and ultimately

the return to democracy. The book is also a running commentary on the Nigerian nation. Although the beginning of the book dates back to the first republic, the contentious issues of nation-building that run through it remain virtually the same as the issues the Nigerian nation contends with today.

The first three chapters tell the fascinating story of the beginning of the friendship of the musketeers. Chapters 4 to 7 discuss the political crisis in the western part of the country and the central role the media played in it. In the four chapters that follow, the book discusses the military interregnum in the nation's history and its impact on the practice of journalism. Chapters 12 to 14 dwell on how the Three Musketeers operated individually and as a group, socially and professionally and how their conduct impacted on the history of journalism in Nigeria. Chapter 15 discusses the emergence of Ajayi as Chairman of Owena Bank while Chapters 17 to 19 highlight the perception of the Musketeers by some key people who knew them very well.In Chapter 20, the book discusses the demise of Peter Ajayi, the oldest of the three, who went the way of all mortals on September 27, 2009. May his soul rest in peace. I review the book thematically by looking at the beginning of the friendship, its consolidation and its trials.

In Chapter 2, Adenaike tells the story of the beginning of the phenomenon that came to be known as The Three Musketeers: "I knew Peter Ajayi way back in 1966 when I was a reporter in Ibadan. Ajayi was News Editor of the Sketch group". Ajayi, explaining the Osoba angle, explained in the same chapter; "We were together working ... at Sketch Press Limited until he left for the Daily Times as Managing Director in 1984".The three friends took turns to preside over the affairs of Sketch Newspaper. Adenaike had been invited home from his beat at the **West Africa magazine** in London to become the Chief Executive of Sketch in 1976. He left in 1978 to become Editor in Chief

of the Tribune Newspapers and he was succeeded by Osoba in 1979, after an interregnum of one year. When Osoba left in 1984 to become the Managing Director of Daily Times, the most successful newspaper in the annals of Nigerian journalism, he was succeeded by Peter Ajayi.The Sketch was therefore the theatre where the three Musketeers was midwifed. It grew in leaps over the decades that followed. The Three Musketeers is the story of a friendship that defies the common saying that ***OgunOmode o le sere fun OgunOdun*** (Twenty children cannot be play mates for 20 years). It is a friendship that has endured for over 50 years and counting.

The book chronicles how the love of journalism consolidated the friendship of the Musketeers. It identifies devotion to truth, probity and love of the nation as the glue that made them inseparable. As frontline journalists, they had extensive contacts with the ruling class in Nigeria but none of them has been indicted of the common disease of the Nigerian elite which is the exploitation of public office for personal gains.

What they lost in material gains, they gained in public respect. In Chapter 13, the author chronicles how the military government of General Sani Abacha had put Chief Osoba, whose tenure as governor of Ogun State had just been truncated in the aftermath of the June 12, 1993 crisis under surveillance and when the government could not get hold of him went for the remaining two Musketeers. Adenaike got wind of his arrest shortly before the arrival of the goons and slipped out of town. Ajayi was not so lucky and was arrested and taken to the Force CID, Alagbon for interrogation. However, he was warmly received by Mr Archibong Nkana, the Assistant Inspector of Police and who had previously served as Commissioner of Police in Oyo State at a time Ajayi and Adenaike served as Chief Executives of the Sketch and Tribune newspapers respectively. He doubted the allegations levelled against them and let him off the hook to return to

Ibadan without any conditionality. By the way, Adenaike had arrived Abuja where his extensive contacts in the security agencies had confirmed that the government had problem with Osoba as a former governor and with him, Adenaike and Ajayi, for being Osoba's friends.

Adenaike also gave himself up at the Force CID, Alagbon on the invitation of Deputy Inspector General of Police Ugboajah. The police chief was also surprised that Adenaike and Ajayi that he knew could be accused of arson. He allowed him to return to Ibadan.

The Three Musketeers stock of social capital was so immense that they dared to walk where angels feared to tread. That was the case when Osoba, as Managing Director of Daily Times contested the post of National President of the Newspaper Proprietors of Nigeria (NPAN) against the publisher of National Concord, Chief M.K.O. Abiola. It was a fight between David and Goliath. Osoba won, to the chagrin of everybody and henceforth, the Three Musketeers became the magic hand sought by everyone who sought the influential offices of the Newspaper Proprietors Association of Nigeria.

The book admitted that the friendship of the musketeers was not without its trials. The greatest, perhaps,is professional rivalry among the newspapers they presided over at different times. In the book, the author tells the story of how in the Second Republic, the Sketch and Tribune shared stories. But he also recalls that the workers in Sketch "had a way of clearing their tables of vital information/scoop once they heard the voice of Felix (Adenaike) in their premises. It was the same in the Tribune as Adenaike in the words of the author "had a way of sending eye signal" to caution any of his editors who was coming to him to discuss exclusive stories whenever his friend, Ajayi, was around!

The book is a major contribution to the literature on the politics and history of the media in Nigeria. It is a compendium of stories and experiences those students of Nigerian history, politics and media will have invaluable in their understanding of Nigeria.

It however leaves the reader unsatiated. The author tries to compress the voluminous life histories of the three subjects into one book. The consequence is that stories are told in bits, leaving the reader wishing for more. Many encounters of the three subjects as chronicled in the book deserve to be told in greater detail. It is hoped that the author will consider a follow to this book.

EDITORIAL POLICY

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