

Journal of Communication Development and Media Research

Volume 1 No, 1 January 2019

EDITORIAL BOARD

Godwin Ehiarekhian Oboh, Ph.D., Professor - Editor-in-Chief

Alex Eloho Umuerrri, Ph.D - Managing Editor

Chamberlain Chinsom Egbulefu, Ph.D - Member

Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene, Ph.D - Member

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

Augustine Ufua Enahoro, Ph.D., Professor, Department of
Mass Communication University of
Jos, Jos Nigeria.

Ayobami Ojebode, Ph.D., Professor, Department of
Communication and Language Arts,
University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria

Balarabe Maikaba, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Mass
Communication Bayero University
Kano, Nigeria.

Christy, Best, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Mass
Communication, University of Jos, Jos
Nigeria

Ebenezer Oludayo Soola, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Communication and Language Arts, University of Ibadan, Ibadan Nigeria.

Eserinune McCarty Mojaye, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Mass Communication, Kwara State University, Malete, Kwara State Nigeria.

Ike Udolo, Ph.D Professor, Department of Mass Communication, Enugu State University of Science and Technology Enugu, Nigeria.

Nnoyelugo Okoro, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Mass Communication, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria.

Stella Chinyere Okunna, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Mass Communication Nnamdi Azikiwe University Awka, Awka. Nigeria

Umaru Pate, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Mass Communication, Bayero University Kano, kano, Nigeria.

Published By:

Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin Nigeria, 2019.

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED BY THE COPYRIGHT OWNERS, THE DEPARTMENT OF MASS COMMUNICATION BENSON IDAHOSA UNIVERSITY, BENIN, NIGERIA. ISSN: 2682-5805

CONTENTS

1. Representation of Biafra in the Print Media: A Content Analysis of Three Selected Nigerian Newspapers 9
Francis Amenaghawon.

2. Cultural Elements in a Selected Reality Television Programme in Nigeria 33
Alex Eloho Umuerrri.

3. Community Radio Theory and Praxis: An Analysis of Categorisation of Campus Radio As Community Radio By National Broadcasting Commission NBC 62
Idris Mohammed and Agbo Patrick Monday

4. Influence of Local Language Advertisement on Lassa Fever Prevention in Ebonyi State 83
Anthony C. Ekwueme, and Ogodo Monday Ogodo

5. The Need for Corporate Sponsorship on Organisational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South South Nigeria 111
Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor.

6. Transformation of The Media, Trust and Public Sphere 147
Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene, and Ignatius Achilike Njoku.

7. The Advent of Private Broadcasting in Nigeria: A critical Appraisal 178
Ignatius Achilike Njoku and Tunde Ebozaje.
8. Media, Oil multinationals and Climate Change in Nigeria 205
Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene, and Josephine Osatohanmwene Adeyeye.
9. Public Relations Research: An imperative for Public Relations Practitioners 238
Chamberlain Chinsom Egbulefu, and Mercy Tarsea-Anshase.
10. Organisational Communication and Performance in Three Companies in Benin City, Nigeria 254
Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi
11. Journalists' Evaluation of the Transition From Analogue to Digital Broadcasting in Port-Harcourt, Rivers State 283
Ireju Peace Amannah.

CONTRIBUTORS

1. Francis Amenaghawon, Ph.D is a Lecturer at the Department of Communication and Language Arts, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.
2. Alex Eloho Umuerrri, Ph.D is a senior Lecturer and Acting Head, Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University Benin.
3. Idris Mohammed, Lectures at the Department of Mass Communication Federal Polytechnic Bida, Niger State.
4. Monday Patrick Agbo is a Lecturer at the Department of Mass Communication, Federal Polytechnic, Bida, Niger State.
5. Anthony C. Ekwueme, Ph.D Lectures in the Department of Mass Communication University of Nigeria Nsukka.
6. Ogodo Monday Ogodo is of the Department of Mass Communication University of Nigeria Nsukka.
7. Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor, is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication Benson Idahosa University, Benin.
8. Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene, Ph.D lectures in the Department of Mass Communication Benson Idahosa University, Benin.
9. Ignatius Achilike Njoku Lectures in the Department of Mass Communication Benon Idahosa University, Benin.
10. Tunde Ebozoje is a lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin.
11. Josephine Osatohanmwun Adeyeye is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin.

12. Chamberlain Chinsom Egbulefu, Ph.D is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin.
13. Mercy Tarsea-Anshase Ph.D is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Bingham University, New Karu Nasarawa State.
14. Obakpolor Jennifer Adah is of the Department of Business Administration, Benson Idahosa University, Benin.
15. Adedoyin Samuel Adeyemi is a Lecturer in the Department of Business Administration Benson Idahosa University, Benin.
16. Ireju Peace Amannah Lectures in the Department of Mass Communication Rivers State University, Nkpolu-Oroworukwo ,Port Harcourt.

About JCDMR

The journal of Communication Development and Media Research (JCDMR) is a publication of the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University Benin City Edo State Nigeria.

Scope/Editorial Policy

The journal is a forum for the presentation and discussion of research findings aimed at promoting a cross fertilization of scholarly ideas in the field of communication and media studies with particular emphasis on print journalism, broadcasting, inter-personal communication, information communication technologies, indigenous communication etcetera.

Well researched articles employing quantitative and qualitative research methods are welcome by contributors of articles. These methods include but not limited to Content Analysis, Surveys, Interviews, Focus Groups Discussions, Observation, etcetera.

The aim of the Journal is to contribute to the discourse on the possibilities of strengthening the mass media, and promoting discourses on several issues relating to the media and related researches with a view to adding to the body of knowledge for use by practitioners in the media, educational institutions and academic community, government and non-government organisations in the Nigerian, African and global environment

Article Submission Guidelines

Well researched articles/papers sent in for possible publication consideration should follow the guidelines below:

1. Manuscripts should not exceed 15 pages and typed in A-4 double-spaced using Times New Roman 12 font size. Papers must have abstract not more than 250 words and at least four key words.
2. The title and authors name, institution, department, position/title, telephone number, and email address should be on the title page.
3. References should be prepared in accordance with the 6th edition of the American psychological Association Publication Manual.
4. Articles will undergo plagiarism check.
5. Articles will be subjected to review by experienced academics, specifically professors in the field of communication/Mass Communication.

Authors should send articles as an attachment in MS Word to the journal's email address: Jcdmr@yahoo.com (copy: alexungng@yahoo.com)

Representation of Biafra in the Print Media: A Content Analysis of Three Selected Nigerian Newspapers.

FRANCIS AMENAGHAWON,

Abstract

One issue that continues to face the Nigerian Federation is growing quest for re-emergence of Biafra. This has gained prominence through demonstrations, market boycott and closures, lectures, Radio Biafra as well as coverage by the mass media. This study focuses on how neo-Biafra agitations are represented in the print media, what are the sources of reports, prominence and frame types used in the coverage by the print media. This study was anchored on the framing theory, and based on content analysis of three Nigerian newspapers: *Guardian*, *Punch* and *Tribune*. Ninety six editions, were selected over a period of two months using purposive sampling technique as only dates that had stories on Biafra were picked. The two months periods witnessed a lot of activities by groups calling for rebirth of Biafra. Findings show episodic frames were preferred to thematic frames and the newspapers were largely neutral in representation of Biafra as a self –determination agenda. Most stories were placed on the inside pages and news reports were preferred to other informants, thus attention was on information function. Media organizations should strive to set agenda for conflict prevention, aside only providing information. Journalists should be trained on conflict reportage, especially provision of early warning signs of conflict.

Keywords; media, frames, framing, conflict, Biafra.

Introduction

Dissatisfaction with occurrences in the post-war Nigeria has brought about resurgence in the quest for the Biafra in the last decade. This is heralded by the emergence of groups such as the Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB) spearheaded by Ralph Uwazurike and the Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) led by the Nnamdi Kanu who to many has become the face of emerging agitations in the region. Similarly, there is the Biafra Zionist Movement (BZM) which was founded by Benjamin Onwuka. According to Uwazigo (2017), the group had on 6th August 2012 sent an application to have an observer status at the United Nations Assembly for the Republic of Biafra.

Asika (1968), Ekpebu (1967), Njoku (1987), as well as Chima (1968), agree that some of the issues that resulted in the civil war include contention of the 1963 Census, 1966 Coup, 1966 Pogrom, imbalance in the Federal Structure and the Armed Forces, gradual incursion of politics into the military, as well as tribalism and religious stereotyping. Observers of the Federal structure argue that the present system where resources are allocated based on population, and the domination of Federal appointment by a section of the country have further brought about stronger regional affinity among many citizens.

During the war, the Nigerian Government Media also contributed to the escalation of the conflict by producing content that was not balanced. Similarly, in the reemergence of

Biafra agitations government and privately owned mass media organizations are replete with reports on sit-ins, market closures, demonstrations, riots and other confrontations between military agents of the Nigerian Government and pro-Biafra groups, mainly supporting the side that the media owner tilts towards.

There were other interest groups who played active roles in the attempted secession. According to Ekpebu (1967) officers of Igbo extraction in the army who faced backlash of the January 1966 and July 1966 coup became increasingly uncomfortable and unsafe in the barracks. The options they saw was resignation from the army or a separate army in Biafra. The second group were ex-politicians and civil servants who were culpable in corruption based on findings of commissions of enquiry set up by the Ironsi and Gowon regimes. They saw Biafra as a veritable path to escape the sledge hammer of the law.

The third sub-sect that pushed for Biafra were university dons who saw in the Biafra nation an avenue for ambassadorial and other lofty positions. According to Ekpebu (1967) most of these pro-Biafra dons who were based in the south of the country away from the pogrom in the north used the media apparatus in the then Eastern region to promote the secessionist agenda.

Njoku (1967) explains that efforts at keeping Nigeria one and preventing a civil war were led by Britain, the Organization of African Unity (OAU) and the Arab Block led by Egypt. More visible and of more historical significance is the then Head of State of Ghana General Joseph Ankara, whose subtle diplomacy anchored by Brigadier Albert Kwesi Ocran

birthed the meeting of Military leaders of Nigeria held at PaduaseLodge, Aburi Ghana between 4th and 5th January 1967

The immediate cause of the war were the “adulteration of the Aburi Accord and the delay in the promulgation of Decree No.8”. Clearly, the Nigerian Government led by Gowon had a different interpretation of the Aburi accord or decided to take a different course of action. There was no agreement between the Federal and Eastern governments and on 30 May, Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu, the South Eastern Region’s military governor, announced the Republic of Biafra, citing the Easterners killed in the post-coup violence. Some have argued and rightly so, that the seed of the Nigerian Civil war sometimes called the Biafra war was a product of the military coup of 1966 and the counter coup that followed. Others are of the view that the pogrom which resulted in the massacre of thousands of Nigerians of Igbo extraction in the North of the country was the direct cause of the Biafra war. In addition, other factors responsible for the reemergence of the quest for secession of Biafra after over forty years of the end of the civil war that claimed millions of lives are myriad.

The very basis of the Federal system of Government was undermined. The rights of freedom of movement, to seek employment, to set up home or business anywhere in the Federation were curtailed for the majority of the Easterners. The scars of these days are, and will remain for many years to come, fresh on the memories of the Eastern people, and it is obvious that any form of political association for the future between the peoples of Nigeria will have to accommodate and make allowances for these realities. As was eventually determined, over 30,000 Easterners lost their lives in the pogrom of May, July, September, and October of 1966.

Hardly an Eastern family did not suffer. Over 1,800,000 refugees flooded the East, from the north and southern part of Nigeria, creating intolerable economic and social strains on that region-the East was stunned, frightened and suspicious. Neo-Biafran agitators, including Indigenous Peoples of Biafra (IPOB), Movement for the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB) use rallies, market boycott and engagement with the diaspora Igbo community and others to promote the independence of Biafra. This resurgence reached some form of prominence in the mass media with the arrest of the Director of Radio Biafra, Nnamdi Kanu who was charged with criminal conspiracy and membership of an illegal organization..

The media remain a vital platform for the promotion or criticism of various ideologies as such secession. Therefore, since we live in the information age, our perception of conflicts, war and other social upheavals are influenced by media framing or portrayal.

In the representation of the Biafra agitations, newspapers in Nigeria provide avenue for readers to get information as well as shape the meaning that the readers give to the issues raised by various sides of the conflict.

Statement of Problem

The media are viewed as critical elements in conflict situations, because their contents can go a long way in influencing the outcome of conflicts (Vraneski& Richter, 2008). This simply shows that the media play vital roles in the construction of people's opinion on different issues, such as politics, economy, and conflicts. The presence, absence or the type of presence that the media display during a conflict as well as the pattern of reportage or framing go a long way in

influencing how the audience view an event. Invariably, how the media covers the recurrent secessionist agitations by different groups for Biafra can go a long way in shaping the outcome and the consequences on the country as well as the global community.

It is believed that the way the media frame issues determines the opinions, meanings or interpretation that the readers give to such content. In the coverage of increasing agitation for the rebirth of Biafra the mass media in Nigeria use diverse techniques, such as framing, priming as well as agenda setting to report the protests, market boycotts among others. This study focuses on representation of Biafra in selected Nigerian Newspapers and sought to investigate how the Nigerian newspapers framed the wave of protests, pronouncements, narratives and counter narratives on Biafra.

Research Questions

1. Which types of frames were used in the coverage of Biafran agitations in the selected newspapers ?
2. How prominent were the reports of Biafran agitations in the selected newspapers.
3. What were the sources of reports on Biafra in the selected newspapers?
4. Which editorial formats of reporting were used in the coverage of Biafran agitation?

Biafra: Was There A Country?

The Biafra episode is a feature that cannot be labeled as forgone, since the 1967-1970 Nigeria –Biafra Civil that claimed the lives of over three million Ibos from the eastern part of the country. This assertion is more pronounced with the resurgence in the quest for the actualization of Biafra. The

high point of the crisis seems to have been the civil war in the late 1960s, which followed shortly after independence in 1960. Nwankwo and Ifejika (1969) note that issues including tribalism, leadership question, the census crisis were part of the problems that confronted pre-independence Nigeria. Others include the 1966 pogrom which followed the January 1966 Coup. During the pogrom thousands of Ibos were killed in the north,. Biafra was a secessionist state from Nigeria that existed between 30 May 1967 and 1970. The name was from the Bight of Biafra which is off the southern coast “The inhabitants were mostly the Igbo people who led the secession due to economic, ethnic, cultural and religious tensions among the various peoples of Nigeria” (Ojarokutu, 2009). The land mass of Biafra was made up of over 29,848 square miles (77,310km) of land with terrestrial borders shared with Niger to the north and west .It was bordered to the east by Cameroon and the Gulf of Guinea in the south. According to Mok (1969), Asika (1968) and Ekpebu (1967) the region was populated by between 12 to 14 million people. Nwaku and Ifejika (1969) note that owing to myriad reasons such as the pogrom and other discriminatory acts against Ibos, the Advisory Committee of Chiefs and Elders and the Consultative Assembly of the Ibos met at Enugu on 27th May 1967 and mandated Lt.-Col. Chukwuemeka Odumegwu Ojukwu, then military governor of Eastern Nigeria to declare what it referred to as a “ free sovereign and independent state by the name and title of the **REPUBLIC OF BIAFRA**” .The proposed state was designed to have full and absolute powers of a sovereign state ,levy war ,conclude peace ,enter into diplomatic relations etc.

Many authors and schools of thought have adduced many reasons for the outbreak of the Nigerian Civil War. The creation of new state was among the causes of the Nigerian Civil War, also known as the Nigerian-Biafra War. Some note that it could be traced to the few years before independence in 1960 when leaders drawn from ethnic groups decided to postpone knotty constitutional issues rather than delay freedom. Some argue that the January 1966 coup where more than thirty political leaders of northern extraction were killed was a precursor of what has been described as a pogrom on the Igbos in the north and the bloody Nigerian civil war. The massive destruction of lives and property after the coup led by Nzegwu was seen as an assault on a minority ethnic group in the context of Igbos in the north. Uku, (1978) in identifying the origin of the Nigerian Civil War lists the underlying causes to include the existence of linguistic and cultural divisions reflected in the hundreds of languages and cultural groups in Nigeria and the effect of colonization that further accentuated ethno-religious differences in the country. Chima (1968) argues that the political, economic as well as social past of Nigeria can also be held responsible as a precursor of the conflict. This is so, because, there existed great divide, agitations and misgivings over the colonial government handling of the economy and perceived preferences of some majority ethnic group such as the Hausa –Fulani over other tribes

Uku in his opinion added that the January 1966 coup, killing of Igbos post the coup as well as the July 1966 coup and the non-implementation of the Aburi Accord also contributed to the outbreak of the civil war. Aburi is a town in Ghana where the Supreme Military Council of Nigeria met to try to resolve issues that were causing the conflict. In the January 1967 Aburi agreement senior military and Para-

military leaders of each region in Nigeria had agreed on a confederate system made up of regional governments, repeal of military decrees issued since January 1966, rehabilitation payment for military men stationed in their home region .According to Momoh (2000) after the failure to implement the Aburiaccord, Colonel Ojukwu declared Biafra a nation ultimately leading the Eastern part of the country to break away from Nigeria.

Reacting to this pronouncement, Momoh (2000:56) notes that after two-and-a-half years of war, three million civilians died in fighting and from starvation as well as economic blockade of the geographical location referred to as Biafra. The breakaway republic later surrendered to the Nigerian Federal Military Government (FMG), and Biafra was reintegrated into Nigeria Ukpabi Asika was then appointed as the Administrator of the East –Central State and encouraged to begin anew through reintegration into the federation called Nigeria.

Though the war ended in 1970 the aftermath of deep-seated bitterness and un-forgiveness reign in Nigeria, because through conversations from indigenes of the south-east and other regions, the episode of the Nigerian –Civil war looks like an unending film, little wonder the burst- up in the form emerging agitations in the South –East of Nigeria. Therefore ,it is important that stakeholders ,the academia ,the mass media study the growing pursuit of Biafra ,to understand the dynamics, causative factors as well as provide early warning signs of escalation. How is the mass media covering events, such as market boycott, protest, online broadcasting, pirate broadcast as well as well as other activities that signpost the emerging call for Biafra. This researcher provide elaborate discussion on the history of events that happened during the

Nigerian civil war, in order to allow an understanding of the past and present quest for Biafra.

Media Framing

Miller, (2002), notes that framing is a process where the media emphasize some aspects of reality and downplay other aspects. That is framing comes in when the mass media attach more meaning to some news stories and neglect some, in order to make people think that they are less important or serious than they really are.

Scheufele, (1999), refers to framing as the modes of presentation that journalists and other communicator use to present information in a way that resonates with existing underlying schemas among their audience. In other words, people are more likely to notice things that fit into their schemas, while re-interpreting contradictions to the schema as exceptions or distorting them to fit. Therefore, media representation of an event, determines to a very large extent the way the audience or readers will understand the manifest content. Oxford Advanced Dictionary of English, (2006), defines “*schema*” as an outline of a plan or theory. Iyengar, (1999) explains that schema describes an organized pattern of thought or behavior that organizes categories of information and the relationships among them. He concluded that it can also be described as a mental structure of preconceived ideas, a framework representing some aspect of the world, or a system of organizing and perceiving theory. What this means is that people are more likely to notice things that fit into their schema as exceptions or distorting them to fit. Framing denotes the words, images, phrases, and presentation styles that a speaker uses when relaying information about an issue or event to an audience. For instance, the recurrent agitations

in the southeastern region of Nigeria can be presented or framed in different ways by various interest groups in the conflict. These groups include the Federal Government, ethnic nationalities, political and religious as well as media institutions, that have one interest or the other in the issues ongoing in the region.

Luntz cited in Scheffele and Tewksbury (2007) argues that the political class have come to the realization that “it’s not what you say, present issues with words, phrases and frames that reverberates with key interpretative schemas among the audiences.

One critical aspects of framing is that it encounters existing ideas, belief system, experiences and other attributes of the audience. Hwang, Gotlieb, Nah and Mcleod (2007:41) explain that “each person has unique and preexisting constellations of knowledge, beliefs and expectations”. Therefore, in covering the emerging conflict predicated on the backdrop of the quest for Biafra the mass media have used diverse frames to present issues related to Massob, Ipob, and other stakeholders such as government.

Empirical Studies

Agunbiade and Amenaghawon (2015) studied Pirate Radio, Propaganda and Consequence: A Discourse on Radio Biafra in Ekwensi’s *Survive the Peace*. They found that the media coverage that followed the arrest of the IPOB leader Nnamdi Kanu drew global attention to neo-Biafran agitations in Nigeria.

Olugbogi (2016) investigated the Framing of Neo-Biafra Agitations in Selected Nigerian Newspapers and found the sources used most by the media were media/Correspondents, who portrayed the neo-Biafra agitators negatively while mainly using the information function.

Ogundiran (2017) evaluated Framing of Hate Speech in Selected Broadcast of Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB) found that the main target of hate speech in the Biafran Broadcast are the Nigerian Government and other ethnic groups in the country. The study also found that the main motives of the broadcast were the establishment of the Biafran Nation and the division of Nigeria.

Uwazigo (2017) studied Print Media Coverage of Biafra Agitation and found that there was fairness by the newspapers in the coverage of the Biafran issues. In addition the newspapers did sensationalise news reports and gave prominence to the reports covered.

Methodology

This study focused on the representation of Biafra in selected Nigerian newspapers as such the population of the study are Nigerian newspapers. For this study three Nigerian newspapers; *Punch*, *Guardian*, and *Tribune* Newspapers were selected based on national outlook and rating as some of the newspapers with the highest circulation in Nigeria.

The sampling size for this study is 96 editions of the selected newspapers. The sampling technique that was used for this study is purposive sampling technique as it ensured the researcher picked only dates that had stories or reports on B. The coding sheet contained content analytical categories on the stated research questions and generated data to provide answers for the study.

The method of data analysis used for this study is simple percentages and frequency. This was found useful as it provided the basic data description patterns needed to answer the research questions.

Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

Research question 1: Which types of frame were used in the coverage of recurrent Biafra's agitations in the selected newspapers?

In frame analysis, thematic frame provides a lot of background information to the reported story by presenting historical angles, statistic, and expert analysis on the report, while episodic frame is mostly focused on immediacy of reports

Table 1: Types of frames used by the selected newspapers in the coverage of Biafran Agitations.

Variables	Guardian	%	Punch	%	Tribune	%	Total	%
Episodic	25	37.31	11	15.07	4	10.26	40	22.35
Thematic	42	62.69	62	84.93	35	89.74	139	77.65
Total	67	100	73	100	39	100	179	100

Table 1 showed that the selected newspapers made frequent use of thematic frames in providing information about the Biafra's agitations. *Punch* newspaper tops the list with 84.93%, while *Guardian* newspaper followed with 62.69%. With the overall result of the table, in which thematic frame took 77.65% out of the 100%. it is evident that the newspapers preferred thematic frames in their content. The implication of this preference is that the readers were provided with reports that allowed them understand the conflict beyond immediate events.

Table 2: Slant of coverage of Biafra by the Selected Newspapers.

Variables	Guardian		%	Punch		%	Tribune		%	Total		%
Neutral	2	2	32.35	3	7	52.11	2	5	53.19	8	4	45.16
Positive	8		11.77	3	4	47.89	-		-	4	2	22.58
Negative	3	8	55.88	-		-	2	2	46.81	6	0	32.26
T o t a l	6	8	100	7	1	100	4	7	100	18	6	100

The presentation of any issue by the media can have dire consequences on the perception that the audience would have on it, hence the need to provide empirical data on such reports. This to a large extent could serve as early Table 2 showed that the Biafra's agitators were portrayed negatively with 32.26% of the total stories in the selected newspapers, 45.16% of the stories were neutral, while they were portrayed positively with 22.58% of the stories.

Table 3 Framing of Biafra Agitators in the selected Newspapers

F r a m e	Guardian		%	Punch		%	Tribune		%	Total		%
Political frame	2	9	51.79	1	4	25.00	1	3	23.21	5	6	14.89
Marginalized	2	4	42.11	1	9	33.33	1	4	24.56	5	7	15.16
Corruption/Greed	2	0	44.44	1	6	35.56	9		20.00	4	5	11.97
Ethnicity	1	3	27.66	2	3	48.94	1	1	23.40	4	7	12.50
Self determination	2	1	20.79	3	3	32.67	4	7	46.54	10	1	26.86
Self pursuit	1	8	43.90	1	7	41.46	6		14.64	4	1	10.90
O t h e r s	2	7	93.10	2		6.90	-		-	2	9	7.71
T o t a l	15	2		12	4		100			37	6	100

The selected newspapers framed the Biafra issue mainly as political and also viewed the region as marginalized and also saw the events as clear indications of the pursuit of self

determination. Therefore it is evident that the newspaper presented the issues mainly as key actors in the agitation: IPOB, MASSOB etc are presenting it.

Research question 2: How prominent were the reports of Biafra in the selected newspapers?

Table 4: Story size used in the coverage of Biafra's agitators in the selected newspapers?

Page	Guardian	%	Punch	%	Tribune	%	Total	%
Full	6	85.71	-	-	1	14.29	7	8.86
Half	2	14.29	8	57.14	4	28.57	14	17.72
Quarter	5	26.32	7	36.84	7	36.84	19	24.05
Tiny	9	23.08	12	30.77	8	46.16	29	49.37
Total	22		27		30		79	100

The prominence that a story gets in a newspaper is used to gauge the importance that is attached to it. Therefore, stakeholders in different issues strive to ensure that their stories Table 4, shows that out of 79 news stories of Biafra, only 7 were placed on the full pages, 14 were on the half pages, 19 were on the quarter pages, 39 were on a tiny space in the selected newspapers.

Table 5: Positioning of content in the selected newspapers on the Biafra's agitation.

Position	Guardian	%	Punch	%	Tribune	%	Total	Percentage
Front page	1	12.5	2	25	5	62.5	8	10.96
Inside spread	3	23.64	2	40.00	0	36.36	5	75.34
Editorial page	3	60.00	1	20.00	1	20.00	5	68.5
Opinion page	2	40.00	1	20.00	2	40.00	5	68.5
Total	19	-	6	-	8	-	33	100

Nwosu, (1996), emphasized that the position in which a newspaper organization places a story indicates the kind of

emphasis and importance it places on that story and this helps in determining the amount of readership the story gets in response. In other words, the prominence the mass media give to a story is often determined by the personality involved in the story. A news story can either be on a front page, back page, inside spread, opinion page, or even at the editorial page of a newspaper organization.

Table 5, presents the findings on the positioning of content on the Biafra's agitations in the selected newspapers. A total number of 73 stories were placed on different positions in the newspaper, but only 8(10.96%) of the stories were reported on the front pages of the selected newspapers, while 55 (75.34%) stories on the inside spread. More stories were reported on the inside spread than the front page. With the data presented on this table it showed that the newspaper organizations reported the stories of the Biafra's agitation more on the inside spread of their newspaper than the front page.

Research question 3: What were the sources of reports on Biafra in the selected newspapers?

Table 6.Sources of frames in the selected newspapers.

S o u r c e	<i>Guardian</i>	%	<i>Tribune</i>	%	<i>Punch</i>	%	Total	%
Government	8	26.67	1	36.84	1	42.11	3	46.91
Anonymous	-	-	-	-	1	100	1	1.24
P u b l i c	2	20.00	4	40.00	4	40.00	1	12.35
Correspondents	9	35.71	7	29.17	8	33.33	2	29.63
Foreign news	-	-	3	75.00	1	25.00	4	4.94
A n a l y s t	3	75.00	-	-	1	25.00	4	4.94
T o t a l	2	2	2	8	3	1	8	100

Media scholars believe that in the mass media, when correspondents write news, or other forms of content, they are found framing stories based on the decisions made by the correspondents themselves or their editors, or even influences from other sources.

Table 6, reveals the dominant frame source used by the selected newspapers are mainly from the Nigerian government. The table shows that 29.63% of the news stories were reported by their correspondents, 46.91% of the news stories were provided by the government to the media organizations. Shoemaker & Reese (1999), cited by Adegunwa, (2015), explained that the first source of influence is journalist centred influences. In other words, journalists tend to give greater considerations to media owners and agencies before contributing their own quota to the national development. This however shows that the government has a greater influence on the media organizations operating under it. In addition, the media depend heavily on government sources for information, this to a large extent influences the reports that they present.

Research question 4: Which editorial formats of reporting were used in the coverage of Biafra agitation?

The focus of this research question is to find out the editorial formats mostly used in reporting by the selected newspapers in the framing of the unrest Biafra's agitation.

Table 7: Report Formats used in the Coverage of Biafra

Variables	<i>Guardian</i>	%	<i>Tribune</i>	%	<i>Punch</i>	%	Total	%
News report	1 5	23.08	2 6	40.00	2 4	36.92	6 5	84.42
Editorial	1	50.00	-	-	1	50.00	2	2.60
Interview	3	60.00	1	20.00	1	20.00	5	6.49
Features\ commentaries	-	-	-	-	1	100	1	1.30
Photographs/cartoon	-	-	1	100	-	-	1	1.29
Letter to the editor	1	33.33	1	33.33	1	33.33	3	3.90
T o t a l	2 0		2 9		2 8		7 7	100

Table 7 shows that the newspaper organizations preferred news stories to other formats of reporting with (84.42%). Therefore, the media focused more on informing the readers without a deeper agenda setting, surveillance or early warning sign of the conflict.

Table 8, Media functions used in the coverage of Biafra by the selected newspapers.

Variables	<i>Guardian</i>	%	<i>Punch</i>	%	<i>Tribune</i>	%	Total	%
Information	6 9	37.30	7 4	40.00	4 2	2 2 . 7 0	185	71.98
Education	2 5	58.14	1 0	23.26	8	1 8 . 6 0	4 3	16.73
Agenda setting	8	44.44	4	22.22	6	3 3 . 3 4	1 8	7.00
Interpretation	6	75.00	2	25.00	-	-	8	3.11
Surveillance	-		-	-	2	1 0 0	2	0.79
Others	1		-	-	-	1 0 0	1	0.39
Total	109		9 0	-	5 8		257	100

From table 8, the media tend to give more information than any other function. However, *Punch* newspaper was found performing the function more than *Guardian* newspaper and *Nigerian Tribune*. Education function had 16.73%. Obviously, the main function performed by the Nigerian newspapers is information function. The agenda setting function should in the view of this researcher had received more reports, because it would help in serving as early warning sign for the escalation of the conflict

Summary, Conclusions, And Recommendations

The study examined the representation of Biafra in selected Nigeria newspapers with focus on three newspapers from 1st September to 31st October, 2017.

The objective of this study was to do a qualitative analysis of *Guardian*, *Nigerian Tribune* and *Punch* newspapers. It was anchored on the framing theory. According to scholars, framing refers to what the media emphasizes or de-emphasizes in a story. McCombs & Shaw (1972), note that the amount of media attention, or the media salience, devoted to certain issues influences the degree of public concern for these issues. Meanwhile, this study sought to find out how the newspaper in Nigeria framed the Biafra's agitations between September and October 2017.

Samples for the content analysis were picked using purposive sampling. This is because the researcher focused on the newspaper editions that had content on the Biafra's agitations. Ninety six copies of the three newspapers were analyzed with thirty-two (32) copies from each, dated from 1st September to 31st October, 2017.

Findings

1. It is evident that the use of thematic frame was common in reporting Biafra.
2. The Biafra's agitators were portrayed negatively.
3. The agitations were reported more with tiny spaces in the newspapers pages.
4. The reports were often found on the inside spread of the newspapers than other pages of the newspapers.
5. The dominant frame sources were from the newspaper correspondents.
6. News formats were used more than other forms of reporting.
7. The main function performed by the Nigerian press was given information about the Biafra.

Conclusions

Drawing from the findings, the selected newspapers made use of thematic frames in the coverage of Biafra. Thematic frame often gives background information about the situation on specific issues, to enable the readers to have adequate information and know the exact issues that led to the present situation.

Apart from this, the Biafra's agitators were portrayed negatively by the Nigerian media. In other words, the press felt the Biafra's agitators were anti-government. It showed that the Nigerian press did not understand how to report issues related to conflict.

Also, researchers believe that the placement of a news story in a newspaper will determine its importance. That is why, important news stories are put at the front page of the newspapers and often given an appreciable space. Most of the

reports were placed in the inside-spread of the newspapers with tiny spaces allocated to it.

More so, it could be concluded that the dominant frame source used by the Nigerian media are from their own correspondents. Another point noted by this study was that the Nigerian media used news format in reporting Biafra.

Recommendations

It was clearly seen that the Nigerian media need to undergo training on how to report issues related to conflict. This needs to be done to discourage them from being biased in their reports. It is important that refresher courses be organized for journalists on emerging conflicts escalators such as fake news, news hatching and other unethical practices that could influence the objective reportage of conflict

Aside that, this study suggests that the media should give more prominence to reports on Biafra through setting agenda or amicable resolution of the agitation in a peacefully manner. Most importantly, there is need for the media to be very careful in reporting the Biafra's agitations by avoiding taking sides with either the government or the agitators.

The media should also serve as early warning signs of conflict by providing detailed information to aid stakeholders to finding lasting solution to any conflict.

References

- Adegunwa, (2015). *Framing of Speaker Aminu Tambuwal's Defection in selected Nigerian Newspaper*", Diss. Communication and Language Arts, Faculty of Arts. University of Ibadan.
- Asika, U. (1968). *No Victors, No Vanguished: Opinions 1967-1968*. East Central State Information Service: Apapa.

- Agbogun, J. List of Political Parties in Nigeria. Retrieved March 29, 2015 from www.the.nigeria.com.
- Agunbiade, O, and Amenaghawon ,A (2015).Pirate Radio, Propaganda and Consequences: A Discourse on Radio Biafra in Ekwensi's Survive the Peace. *Journal of Communicationand Language Arts*.Vol 6.1.
- Anliagan, I. (2008). *Fundamental of Newspaper Journalism*. Ibadan: Kraft Books Limited.
- Anyaele J. U, (1990). *Comprehensive Government*. Lagos: A. Johnson (Publishing) Enterprises.
- Ariyibi, O.M. (2008). *Editorial Framing of the Attempted Review of Nigeria's 1999 Constitution in some Selected Newspaper*. Diss. Communication and Language Arts, Faculty of Arts. University of Ibadan.
- Baran S, J .(1999). *Introduction to Mass Communication; Media Literacy and Culture*. California: Maryfield Publishing Company.
- Birch,G., and George,D.S.(1968). *Biafra: the Case for Independence*. London: Britain-Biafra Association
- Bittner, J.R. (1991). *Mass Communication: An Introduction*. 5th ed. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Chima,A.(1968).*Future Lies in a Progressive Biafra*. London:Citadel Press
- Chong, D., &Druckman, N.J.(2007). *A Theory of Framing and Opinion Formation in Competitive Elite Environment*.Journal of Communication. Pp 57, 99-118.
- Christian Concern in the Nigerian Civil War. (1969).“ An Appeal to the Nigerian Press”. Ibadan: Daystar Press
- Daramola, I .(2004). *Mass Media and Society*.Lagos; Rothan Press Limited.

- Daramola, I (2006). *History and Development of Mass Media in Nigeria*. Lagos: Rothan Press Limited.
- Edy, E.J., & Meirick, C.P (2007). Wanted dead or alive: Media Frames, Frames Adoption and Support for the War in Afghanistan. *Journal of Communication*,.Pp 57, 119, 141.
- Egi J. A .(1997). *The Mirror of Government*. Ibadan: Rasmed Publications.
- Ekpebu ,L.B .(1967).Nigeria Background to the Crisis. Lecture Delivered at Uppsala University Sweden
- Ekuma, T.C .(2007). *Press Framing of the 2006 Nigerian Constitution Amendment debate*.Diss. Communication and Language Arts, Faculty of Arts. University of Ibadan.
- Entman, R.M .(1993). *Framing-Toward clarification of a fractured, paradigm*.*Journal of communication*.
- Hiebert, B, Ungurait, C & Bohn, C, 1995.*Mass Media: An Introduction to Modern Communication*. United States of America; David McKay Company Inc. pp 3,6,11 & 78.
- Modigliani, P. A. (2009). *Media Framing and Analysis*. New Delhi: Vistar Publications.
- Mok , M (1969).Biafra Journal.TimeNew York: Life Books.
- Mujtaba, U. I.(2011). *Mass Media Messages for all*. London: Statisfor Publishers.Madiebo, A.A(1986).*The Nigerian Revolution and the Biafran War*.Rome: Linograf.
- Njoku ,H.M.(1987).*A Tragedy Without Heroes.The Nigerian – Biafra War* Enugu:.Fourth Dimension Publishing Co Ltd
- Nwankwo,A.A and Ifejika,S.U(1969).*The Making of a Nation:Biafra* London:.Hurst and Company

- Nwosu, I. E. (1996). *Mass Media and African Wars*. Enugu: Star Printing and Publishing.
- Ogundiran, A. A. (2017). Framing of Hate Speech in Selected Broadcast of Indigenous People of Biafra (IPOB). Unpublished B.A Project, University of Ibadan.
- Olapoju E., and Onalapo K. (1996). *Elements of Government*. Lagos: Popson Publishing.
- Olugbogi, O. E. (2016). Framing of Neo- Biafra Agitations in Selected Nigerian Newspapers. Unpublished. B.A. Dissertation, University of Ibadan.
- Scheufele, D. A. (1999). *Framing as a theory of media effects*. Journal of communication. 49:103, 133
- Segvic, I. (2005). The Framing of Politics: A Content Analysis of Three Coalition Newspapers. Retrieved Oct 10, 2014 from www.sagepub.com.
- Severin, W. J. & Tankard, J. W. (2001). *Communication Theories: Origins, Methods and uses, in the Mass Media*. 5th ed. New York: Longman Publishers.
- Vreese, H. D. (2005). "News Framing: Theory and Typology". Information Design Journal + Document Design 11, 13, 15, 16.
- Uku, S. R. (1978). *The Pan-African Movement and the Nigerian Civil War*. Vantage Press: New York.
- Uwazigo, M. N. (2017). Print Media Coverage of Neo-Biafra Agitations. Unpublished B.A Project, University of Ibadan, Nigerian.
- Kruick, G. (2018). ; What Causes Agitation? .Retrieved from <http://www.healthline.com>.
- Wimmer, R & Dominick, J. R. 2003. *Mass media research: an introduction*. 6th ed Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Cultural Elements in a Selected Reality Television Programme in Nigeria

ALEX ELOHO UMUERRI

Abstract

Reality television programmes vary in content, style and scope. One of such entertainment programmes selected for this study is Big Brother Nigeria (BBN) in which a group of people are brought together and isolated in a house, with the dictator “biggie” watching and presiding over their activities. In the reality television show, the contestants compete to avoid eviction in order to win the prize money. This article problematizes the meanings and uses of cultural elements in the entertainment genre to Nigerian audiences. Through quantitative and qualitative research methods of survey and focus group discussion\indepth interview of selected Nigerian students, the paper questions the use of some cultural elements in the show. It posits that the idealized notion of Nigeria’s culture as untainted, should guide the producers to deliberately make attempts to tinker with some of the alien cultural elements in order to suit local interest. Also there is need to ensure that subsequent editions, beginning with season four of the show, should reflect this new thinking.

Key Words: Reality Television, Programmes, Culture, Audiences, Elements

Introduction

In recent times, the contents of entertainment television programmes have taken the form of what is now commonly known as “reality television”. However, before the advent of this fad on screen, programmes were broadcast for entertainment, information and education, which were subsumed in live and recorded programmes, dramas, sporting events, cartoons, quiz, and political programmes amongst others. These broadcast programmes were generated from the various departments of news and current affairs, commercial, and in addition, other departments that ensured smooth running of television stations such as administration and engineering. The various departments have a number of staff who are charged with the responsibility of producing these programmes, for instance, the news and current affairs division has reporters, editors, newscasters, and commentators, just as the programmes division has producers, directors, designers, technical staff and members of cast and crew.

On a general note, programmes serve to attract both our eyes and ears, and enjoy characteristics of mobility, as entertaining outlet which offers dramatic impact. The resultant effect is that the broadcast of these programmes on television provided a platform to influence viewers. However, as time went on, producers in television stations began to think differently, particularly on how to reflect changes in the content of programmes that would interest and appeal to viewers.

This led to the new form of broadcasting referred to as reality television programme. This new genre is gradually becoming a household name in all parts of the world. It is a communication genre that has become the latest fan favorite as acknowledged by (Sack, 2003; Frisby, 2004; and Howley, 2004).

This genre of television broadcast though universal in appeal because of its entertainment, appealing and attractive value, is often associated with the people of a particular age group. The age group referred to here are the youths who are in the category of 18-25 years as alluded to by (Baumgardner, 2003; Chikafe and Mateveke, 2012; Brasch, 2003; Hiltbran, 2004). However, in this study we are interested in expanding the scope of age range of youths; this is because the definition of youths is not restricted to the above mentioned ages. A youth according to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2010, P.1730) "... is the time of life when a person is young, ... The quality or state of being young ... a young man ... young people considered as a group ... the youth of today. Borrowing from this definition, a youth for this study is one between the ages of 16-35 years. It is also important to assert that some participants in the reality television genre mostly (also) fall within the range mentioned above, for instance, this is evident in housemates of Big Brother Nigeria, seasons one, two and three and a major reason for this is because the fads are tailored towards entertaining those in the youth category. It has also been observed that adults do not watch reality television fad (although there are no empirical evidences to substantiate this claim) and a major reason for this is because the programmes are tailored towards entertaining those in the youth category.

Concepts of Reality Television Programme

There are a number of definitions of reality television programmes. Reality television programmes reflect true life situations/ living of persons/individuals on screen. Roscoe (2001) and Malekolf (2005) posit that reality television are programmes where real people are often placed in extraordinary situations where their every movement is recorded as they react to their surroundings, Laitto (2015) has noted that it is a genre of television programming that documents unscripted situations and actual occurrences, and often features a previously unknown cast. Reality television programmes highlights personal drama and conflict to a much greater extent than other unscripted television programmes. Also, reality television is the intentional design by producers to compel persons/participants to bring out their true characters. It is meant to portray the real identity of persons participating in the programme.

Arising from the above, it is obvious that this new fad is gradually permeating the society, and Nigeria is not excluded. There are a number of cultural elements in the selected reality television programme used for this study, which is Big Brother Nigeria. The reasons for the selection of this reality television programme over others are found in the section on methodology.

A lot has been said by scholars about the fact that reality television programmes portray gory scenes of sex, and culture that do not reflect the Nigerian/African identity (Ojoko, 2013; and Endong, 2018; and Busari, 2005). This study, however, set out to investigate the dimensions of cultural elements in a

selected reality television programme in Nigeria- Big Brother (Naija) Nigeria. For this study one seasons two and three which were broadcast in 2017 and 2018 and titled, Big Brother Naija were used. The following research questions were employed in this study:

1. What is the awareness and viewership of BBN?
2. What cultural elements does the reality television programme portray the most?

Historical Antecedent Of Reality Television And Big Brother

It was in 1948 that Alan Funt initiated reality show in the form of television series called ‘Candid Camera’ (Bressi 2005) This initial idea was launched as radio show. Later, Alan Funt came up with the first reality show which appeared on screen (ABC Channel) on August 10, 1948. The contents of the show had people in usual situations Peter Funt’s son became the producer and host of the show from 1998 to 2004.

Following these initial efforts, others tried similar approaches. For instance, Ted Mack’s Original Amateur Hour and Arthur Godfrey’s Talent Scouts, all in 1948. These signaled the ideas of “Talent Shows” with amateur contestants and it introduced the concept of “Audience Voting”. The 1950’s featured game shows, for example “Beat The Clock” and “Truth” which involved contestants in competitions and jokes. During 1950-1959, a new type of series “You Asked for it”, had some elements of a “Audience Participation” in serve that viewers were given certain freedom to see what they wished to see on television (Caryn, 2003).

However, modern reality shows were produced during the 1970's public broadcasting service (PBS) series "An American Family" which featured the daily times of the loud family, and then the "Reality Soap Genre" in which the story lines shaped the real-life subjects into reality-show characters.

In the 1990's reality shows which grouped strangers for a certain period of time in a certain environment and the drama that followed originated in the form of series "Number 28". It coived and on Dutch television in 1991. This show used computer based non-linear editing systems which enabled quick editing of hours of video footage into a usable form (Punathambakar, 2010).

The end of 90's and the advent of 2000, saw an unprecended popularity of the reality shows which are blunt, witty, serious, sensation, glamorous etc and skinned the emotions of viewers. Survivor became a show. It was originally named "Expedition Robinson" and appeared first on the Swedish public service network SVT in 1997. Then "Big Brother" first televised in the Netherlands during the 1999 on the Veronica T.V channel became a worldwide sensation.

Culture and Reality Television

An important aspect of this study is to identify the gap of knowledge in the area of culture in reality television. First, we need to understand what culture is as there are a number of definitions of culture. Culture is a way of life of a people living in a geographical entity. Culture refers to the total way of life of people and societies which guides their social interactions. It is perceived as consisting of a system of knowledge, beliefs,

values, customs, behaviors and artifacts that were acquired, shared and used by members of a society in their daily living (Gamble and Gamble, 2002). Culture is acquired through the process of socialization. It is not genetically transmitted (Okumagba and Ogege, 2009; Acholonu, 2010). Other scholars, Pearson, Nelson, Titsworth, and Harter (2013) have said that, culture is a system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and rituals that the members of a society use to cope with one another and with their world.

Culture is manifested in music, literature, painting and sculpture, theatre and film and other things. Although some people identify culture in terms of consumption and consumer goods (as in high culture, low culture, folk culture and popular culture) (Forsberg, 2006).

1. Language: There are different definitions of language. It is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols “(Edward Sapir 1921,P8) Okolo and Ezikeojiaku, (1999,P 14) citing Ladd (1957) says “Language is primarily an instrument of communication among human beings in a community, while the same authors citing MClintosh and Stevens 1964 says, “Language is regarded as a form of activity. Specifically, it is a form of activity of human beings in societies”. Okolo and Ezikeojiaku (1999, P 9) posit that language is used in modern times not only for natural languages like Igbo, Yoruba, Hausa, Edo, English, or French, but also for a variety of other systems of communication, notation, or calculation such as computer language and other artificial languages that are constructed to meet

particular needs”. On his part, Masagbor, (2012, P.5) claims that language, a major purveyor of culture is a marker of variety of culture.

However, spoken language can be used for negative purpose to abuse, insult and terrorise an individual or people. But it can be used positively to praise, and say generally good things that are pleasant to the ear. Language therefore has a number of characteristics, according to Okolo and Ezikeojiaku (1999, P.73) and these are: Duality; productivity; arbitrariness; discreteness; and prevarication. Therefore, the gap in knowledge in this study is to identify the languages used in the reality television programme BBN, in order to find out whether the languages were used positively or negatively and if to suit the average Nigerian viewer.

2. Dress/Attires: Dress according to *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* (1999, P. 446) “are clothes for either men or women to wear, casual/formal dress”. As a culture, wearing of clothes can be viewed from two perspectives. It is said that a dress worn by someone is good when it properly covers all areas of the body and thus confers on the person respect and dignity from onlookers. Such dressing can be seen on people who attend conferences, workshops, those in offices, meetings etc. On the other hand, dressing is seen as bad by the onlooker when the vital parts of the body ie breast, and buttocks are exposed. Dresses of this nature are usually worn by the youths and young persons and some of these dresses can be offensive to the elderly people who frown at such dresses, for instance, girls

who dress and expose parts of their breasts and other vital parts.

Therefore, how has the reality television show BBN portrayed clothes worn by housemates to the outside world as it relates to the Nigerian Culture? What has been the level of involvement by the housemates and organisers of the programme in this regard?

3. Hardwork: This is a quality and virtue in human beings with universal appeal and acceptance in all cultures of the world. However, it is normal for people of certain cultures/races to be classified as hardworking, while some others are regarded as lazy. Hardwork begets glory, hence acceptance by people and society, and also progress in the life of the hardworker, this is possibly why sometimes striving for development and growth is often identified with hardwork and those who are hardworking. Conversely, it is the lazy person or those who do not believe that hardwork begets success who indulge in idleness and have a lackadaisical attitude to work. In what ways have the reality television programme highlighted the cultural element of hardwork in BBN?

4. Relationship/Sexual Appeal: An essential cultural element in BBN season three is relationship among the housemates. A relationship can be on a casual, and or intimate basis. When it is casual the individuals are on greetings terms but when it is on an intimate keel, the individuals are said to be very close. However, it is often said that close relationships with the opposite sex sooner or later develop into affairs that sometimes border on sexual appeal, therefore, how has this culture been expressed by

organisers of the programme in BBN reality television programme?

Media Theorising Big Brother Nigeria (Naija) Audiences

Various theories of mass communication have been found to be useful in discussing reality television programmes and in relation to cultural issues. There are two mass communication theories in this study to explain the cultural reality of BBN programme. The first is the Cultural Norms Theory which according to Folarin (2005, P. 97) is that, “through selective presentation and tendentious emphasis on certain themes the mass media created the impression among their audiences that such themes were part of the structure or clearly defined cultural norms of society. As a result, impressionable members of the public tend to pattern their own behavior along the lines of such media presentations. Furthermore, Baran and Davis (1995) cite Defleur as describing cultural norms thus: the mass media through selective presentations and the emphasis of certain themes, create impressions and their audiences that common cultural norms concerning the emphasized topics are structured or defined in some specific way. The theory is relevant to BBN reality television show as BBN broadcast items of culture ie language, dressing etc which members of the public or audience would tend to imitate.

The other media theory relevant to this discourse is the Commodification of Culture Theory. This is what happens when culture is mass produced and distributed in direct competition with locally based or community-based culture (Baran and Davis, 2003, P. 331). This theory posits that the mass media produce and distribute cultural items. Because the mass media and foreign countries/advanced world are

recognized and are technology-laden, they are able to displace the local producers of culture at the detriment of the people. Folarin (2005, P.184) has noted that the people are made to subsidize subversion of their own everyday culture. This is done through westernized and hybridized folk music, television programmes and movies.

The use and relevance of this theory to the study is that through “BBN” programme, which is a creation of foreign ideas, Nigerian youths may tend to imitate/copy situations depicted in the reality programme.

Methods of Research

This study employed the quantitative and qualitative research methods of Survey and Focus Group Discussion/Indepth interview. The study used two institutions in Uvwie Local Government Area of Delta State, Nigeria for the study, with a literate population of 140,872 (2006, National Population Census)

Survey, according to Wimmer and Dominick (2004) is flexible and popular among media researchers. The reason for choosing survey is that it is a research design used in eliciting data from large respondents. Babbie (2005), Mitchell and Jolly (2004), Baxter and Babbie (2004) and Ray (2003) say it is an excellent method used in a large population. In this study, the target group for the survey were students of Petroleum Training Institute (PTI) Effurun Warri, while the study population comprised young/ people students of the institution who are between the ages of 16 and 39 years. A total of 300 samples were drawn from the population. The purposive sampling technique was adopted and 245 respondents representing 81.66% were drawn as this number of

respondents returned their duly filled questionnaire. The respondents in P.T.I were used for a number of reasons. First, respondents have access to television; second, they are literate, and enlightened to make informed decision.

A reason for choosing P.T.I is that it is easily accessible and the sample size can be obtained from the population.

The Focus Group Discussion (FGD)/ Indepth interview method was adopted because it is “a tool for studying what underpins a decision reached, attitude and behavior and meaning people attach to an experience and circumstance (Ritchie, 2010). It is also a form of qualitative research design used in gathering information that explains how people in everyday natural setting create meanings and interpret events of their world (Berg 2006). It is an approach that is both complementary of conventional scientific findings (Pidgets, 2004). For this study 18 undergraduates of the Federal University of Petroleum Resources (FUPRE), Effurun, were purposively selected for the Focus Group Discussion/Indepth Interview, because of the special nature of criteria. These are: the participants are students, have access to television, have access to GoTv and DSTV and have knowledge of BBN or any reality television programme. The basis of selection of participants was because their age group watch the programme, they belonged to the class of educated and have intellectual potential.

Research Instruments

For the survey, questions in the questionnaire pertained to awareness, viewership and cultural elements in BBN. There were seven (7) questions in the questionnaire. The first section was on demographic data of respondents, the second was on

awareness and viewership of BBN by students while the third section pertained to the cultural elements of BBN. The questions in the questionnaire which were close-ended was administered to the students by a research assistant.

In another breath, the Focus Group Discussion (FGD)/indepth interview provided the platform for the researcher to have a deep insight and probe into the feelings of selected students of FuPre Effurun, on the cultural elements in BBN. This afforded the researcher the opportunity to compare the submissions of respondents in the survey and the feelings/motives of participants in the Focus Group Discussion/ Indepth Interview on the cultural elements.

The Focus Group Discussion (FGD)/indepth interview had two items. It started with warm up questions, which focused on the participants awareness of BBN generally and later concentrated on the subject-matter of cultural elements of BBN. Participants were informed of the four cultural elements for discussions in BBN Viz: Language; clothes worn/Dress/Dressing; sex appeal; and hardwork. Participants were therefore asked to comment freely on any one of their choice, either in positive or negative form, and whether they thought BBN promoted alien culture over Nigerian culture.

Method of Coding For FGD/Indepth Interview

This took the form of manual coding by way of categorizing them in order to sort out units of data with regards to pattern they have in common, (Lindlof and Taylor, 2011).

Frequency count and Simple percentage was used in analyzing data for the study.

The selection of Big Brother Naija was made from a handful of the following reality Television entertainment programmes, which are: Airtel's, "The Voice Nigeria", Mobile Telephone Network (MTN) "Project Fame", " Nigeria Got Talents", " The Gulder Ultimate Search", Glo Naija Sings", " Nigerian Idol", and " Who Wants to be a Millionaire". The reasons for the choice of BBN include the content, style and scope. On content, the entertainment genre combines and features all the elements of an entertainment programme viz: drama, conflict, songs, suspense, and above all, the real characters of the contestants. Secondly, the style of presentation is all embracing as the idea from the producers bring together authorities/experts in lighting, camera use and other technical crew to be able to beam signals twenty-four hours to the audiences as against the other programmes in which the technical crew are not engaged 24 hours endlessly for about three weeks. Third, the scope of the programme covers all forms of life as can be seen from the revelation of discussion by housemates ie politics, religion, commerce etc This is a departure from the other programmes which are limited in scope.

Reality of Audiences Views on Cultural Elements

First, the study sought to find out the awareness and perception of BBN. From the survey research carried out, results from Table 2 indicated a high awareness of Eighty-two percent (n=203) respondents sampled for the study, while thirteen percent (n=32) respondents affirmed that they were not aware of BBN, and four percent (n=10) respondents claimed they were not sure if they were aware of the programme or not. In Table 3, from the 203 respondents who claimed they were aware of BBN, ninety-eight percent (n=199) or (98.02%,

n=199) affirmed that they watched the programme, One percent (n=3) respondents said they did not watch the programme, while zero percent (n=1) respondent was not sure if he watched the BBN or not.

For the 199 respondents who watched BBN, a further enquiry was to find out why they did so. Results from Table 4 indicated that majority, eight-nine percent (n=178) respondents watched the programme for entertainment, five percent (n=10) respondents claimed they watched the programme to escape boredom, three percent (n=6) respondents said they watched the programme for relaxation, while two percent (n=5) respondents said they did so because it was educative.

Secondly, the study focused on cultural elements in BBN and investigated whether it promoted foreign culture over Nigerian culture. Findings from Table 5 showed that Sixty-five percent (n=130) respondents said BBN promoted foreign culture over Nigerian cultures, while twenty-five percent (n=50) respondents said BBN does not promote foreign culture over Nigerian culture. In addition, Nine percent (n=19) respondents said they were not sure if BBN promoted foreign culture over Nigerian culture.

Respondents further agreed that BBN promoted sex appeal fifty-three percent (n=106) over indecent dressing which was thirty-five percent (n=71) respondents, nine percent (n=19) or respondents for vulgar language, and one percent (n=3) for hardwork.

Indications from the result presented the fact that there was a high awareness of BBN, this is in tandem with the fact that the programme is entertaining. Also, the high percentage of respondents who watched the programme is a testimony of

its popularity amongst students in Uvwie Local Government area of Delta State, Nigeria.

From the results, majority of the respondents watched the genre for entertainment, this affirms the view that it has entertainment value. This result is in conformity with the findings of Chikafa and Mateveke (2012, P.47) who affirmed in their study that majority 66.60% respondents watched Big Brother Africa for entertainment reason.

On the cultural elements of the reality television show, it was not surprising to observe that respondents confirmed the often held view that BBN promotes foreign culture over Nigerian culture. To further buttress this claim respondents agreed that sex appeal was promoted the most in the programme. This cultural element, for example, in seasons three and four housemates were expected to have a good relationship amongst themselves, but surprisingly some of these housemates in no time developed relationships that led to sexual appeal in the full glare of viewers. Strangely enough, some of these relationships blossomed to the extent that these housemates were thus portraying their true/real characters, thus promoting sexual appeal. Some of the gory scenes have been prolonged kissing, and sleeping together on the same bed for weeks. In fact, in BBN season three the eventual winner, Miracle, slept on the same bed with one of the three favourites, Nina, for weeks, fuelling speculations that they were mating in “biggies” house. In fact, Lolu, one of the housemates was heard telling the lovers that very soon, the result of their love making/relationship will come to fruition with a baby.

Summary Of Participants Positions In The Focus Group Discussion/Indepth-Interview On The Cultural Elements

The FGD/Indepth-Interview was conducted at the Federal University of Petroleum Resources Effurun (FUPRE) with 18 participants and the primary objective was to find out/ascertain their position on the cultural elements in BBN Nigeria, and if these views correlate or differ with the views of respondents in the survey aspect of the study.

All the participants attested to the fact that they watch BBN from the answers they gave. Participants were informed of the four choices of cultural elements and were freely asked to speak on any of their choice. The views were transcribed by the researcher.

Of the 18 participants who took part in the FGD/Indepth interview, they presented divergent views, however, these were presented in order to decipher the various cultural leanings of the participants pertaining to BBN. From the views of participants, four zones of cultural leanings were visible. These are: Views on dress worn; sex appeal; Language; and hardwork. The session took place with the researcher moderating, and there was a notetaker.

1 Views About the Culture of Dresses worn: The primary objective was to find out how participants felt about the dresses worn by housemates in BBN and if the programme promoted foreign culture over Nigerian culture. The highest percentage of twenty seven percent (n=5) participants on indecent dressing was recorded as cultural elements in BBN. These views below were represented by the following five participants on the culture of dressing in BBN. The results of the analysis hereunder can be found in Table 7:

Participant 4: The clothes worn by housemates can be offensive to the eyes. This is not our culture.

Participant 10: Those who created this programme did not take into consideration that the typical Nigerian lady dresses decently, instead of deliberately exposing parts of the body. From my answer you will agree with me that the programme promotes foreign culture over Nigerian culture in the aspect of dressing.

Participant 11: Generally, the bad dressing we see on BBN is what the producers want audiences to imitate. This is not our dressing culture.

Participant 1: Sometimes, housemates are dressed fairly decently, but for most of the time, the dresses worn by housemates were not good, especially the ladies who open their breasts and move about in the house almost naked. I think the originators of this programme are intentionally polluting our culture.

Participant 15: I do not think the creators of this programme mean well for Nigerian youths. If they do, they will reconsider the kinds of dresses they allow the housemates to wear on set. A show that celebrates indecent dressing will not help Nigerians, especially the youths.

2 Views on Sex Appeal: An important aspect of this study was to find out participants views on the culture of sex appeal amongst housemates. Participants views represented twenty-seven percent ($n = 5$) who expressed disgusting views on the way the housemates carried on by expressing love scenes that portrayed sexual appeal. Here are the views of the participants:

Participant 6: If the plan to entertain youths is to allow housemates to mix freely especially with the opposite sex without any form of restriction, then I do not think I like it.

Participant 12: The way some of the housemates behaved especially with the opposite sex was not good, Some of the romantic scenes should not be shown on television as these can affect the lives of youths negatively.

Participant 14: Why won't the housemates engage in all sorts of sexual overtures when even 'Biggie' sometimes encourage kissing game in the show.

Participant 18: I do not think any one with fear of god will take part in this programme, because at the end of the day, a housemate is likely going to be involved in unnecessary romantic scenes as we often see in BBN.

Participant 8: Sometimes after watching the programme I feel like I am in the mood to do as they do. If you ask me I will say that some of the housemates are not acting but showing us their true characters, in other words, we are really watching what is real. But is it our culture for young male and female contestants/housemates to engage in offensive romantic attitude in the show without any form of restriction? This aspect of the programme should be looked into as it is obvious that our culture does not permit such attitude.

3 Views on languages: There was need to find out from participants if the languages used were representative of Nigeria's culture or were vulgar languages that were not good for the ear. A total of twenty-two percent (n = 4) participants said although housemates freely used different languages, the

percentage did not show any discernible pattern, although the languages were sometimes vulgar.

Participant 9: What I noticed is that housemates spoke a combination of different languages, from English to ‘pidgin’ English and native languages.

Participant 3: Sometimes the languages are not refined as housemates used vulgar languages.

Participant 7: The housemates spoke in languages that were sometimes not pleasing to the ear especially during their interactions. This was actually not good.

Participant 16: The use of languages were not well defined in this programme. The creators of this programme like it this way that is why housemates used different languages in communicating. I see it as part of the design by the producers to allow housemates to be themselves.

4 Views on Hardwork .The culture of hardwork is one that is acceptable by most societies in the world, including Nigeria. But how has it been portrayed in BBN from the lens of participants in the FGD/Indepth Interview session. From the submission, twenty-two percent ($n = 4$) participants presented their positions on hardwork.

Participant 2: The way I see it, I will say housemates were hardworking because each time they were given assignments they tried to finish it on time. Yes, the programme portrayed elements of hardwork as reflected in Nigerian culture, and to this extent I will not agree that the programme promoted foreign culture over Nigerian culture.

Participant 5: I will always refer to the different tasks given to housemates by 'Big Brother'. I noticed that each time, the housemates were always eager and carried out assignments with all seriousness. Infact, this is typical Nigerian culture.

Participant 17: The Friday Night 'Payporte Arena Challenge' is a good example that 'biggie' is promoting the culture of hardwork in Nigeria.

Participant 13: This is one good thing that the organisers of the programme have been able to show viewers, that housemates can be hardworking and therefore promoting the culture of hardwork.

Conclusion

It is obvious that the idea of globalization is gaining ground in all parts of the world. This is the reason why reality television programmes which debuted in the advanced world have found their way to Africa and Nigeria. The advent of BBN is a good example of the Nigerian experience.

While it is apparent that respondents in this study alluded to the fact that they were aware of the show, it clearly shows the high awareness and viewership of the programme. This study has further confirmed the entertainment reason for viewers interest in watching the programme, just as it has upheld the often held view that the genre promotes alien culture of sexual appeal and indecent dressing.

However, in the face of these onslaughts, there should be a silver lining in the horizon for the programme to be modified to suit local interests so that it's viewership will accommodate

not only the youths, but elders in the Nigerian sphere. To achieve this, the producers of BBN should first ensure that the fad is produced within the country and not outside, as it is presently done. Secondly, the issue of content should be revisited as it is obvious that some of the cultural elements in the television reality genre should be modified to suit local interests for adoption.

A: Survey Aspect of the study

Table 1: Demographic Data of Respondents Respondents Age

SN	Ages	Frequency	Percentage %
1	16-20	160	65.30%
2	21-25	75	30.61%
3	26-30	07	2.87%
4	31-35	3	1.22%
Total		245	100%

Table 2: Awareness Of BBN By Respondents

SN	Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	203	82.86%
2	No	32	13.06%
3	Not sure	10	4.08%
Total		245	100%

Table 3: Respondents Who Watched BBN

SN	Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	199	98.02%
2	No	3	1.48%
3	Not Sure	1	0.50%
Total		203	100%

Table 4: Why Respondents Watched BBN

SN	Reasons for Watching BBN	Total No Frequency	Percentage %
1	For Entertainment	178	89.44%
2	To Escape Boredom	10	5.02%
3	Relaxation	6	3.01%
4	Education	5	2.52%
Total		199	100%

Table 5: Whether BBN Promotes Foreign Culture Over Nigerian Culture

SN	Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
1	Yes	130	65.32%
2	No	50	25.12%
3	Not Sure	19	9.55%
4	None of the above	—	—
	TOTAL	199	100%

Table 6: Respondents Rating of Cultural Elements in BBN

SN	Cultural Elements	Frequency	Percentage
1	Sex Appeal	106	53.26%
2	Indecent Dressing	71	35.68%
3	Language	19	9.55%
4	Hardwork	3	1.51%
	Total	199	100%

B: Focus Group Discussion/ Interview Interview Aspect
Table 7: Participants Views on Cultural Elements in BBN

SN	Cultural Elements	Frequency	Percentage %	Dimensions of Context
1	Language	4	22.22	Negative
2	Sex Appeal	5	27.78	Negative
3	Dressing Clothes worn	5	27.77%	Negative
4	Hardwork	4	22.22%	Positive
Total Count		18	100	

References

- Acholonu, R (2010) "Cultural impact of Transnational Media Corporations on Developing Nations" In D.Wilson (Ed) *Perspectives on Communication and Culture*. Uyo: African Council for Communication Education, Pp. 399-414.
- Adler, R.B and Elmhorst, J.M (2008) *Communication at work: Principles and Practices for business and the professions* (9th ED) New York: McGraw Hill.

Alex Eloho Umuerr: Cultural Elements in a Selected Reality Television Programme in Nigeria.

Alsomby, A.S (2010) *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Babbie (2005) *The basics of Social Research* 3rd Edition. Berkshire: Thomson and Wadsworth.

Baran and Davies, P (2003) *Mass Communication Theories*.

Baran, S.J (2004) *Introduction to Mass Communication: Media Literacy and Culture* (3rd Ed). New York: McGraw Hill.

Baumgardner, IB (2003) *Reality game shows thrive*. November 10 from daily beacon.uk.edu/article.php/9243.

Baxter, L and Babbie, E (2004) *The Basics of Communication Research*. Belmont: Thomson and Wadsworth.

Chikafa, R and Mateveke, P (2012) The “Africa in Big Brother Africa Reality” Tv and African Identity in *Journal of Communication and Media Research* Vol. 4 No. 2 October Pp 43- 57

Folarin, B (2005) *Theories of Mass Communication: An Introductory Text* (3rd Ed) Lagos. Bankifol Publications.

Forsberg, A. (2006) Definition of Culture. CCSF Cultural Geography Notes Wikipedia.org Retrieved on March 15, 2011.

Frisby, C.M (2004) American's Top Model meets the bachelor on an unreal world: Examining Viewer fascinating with reality Tv. Paper presented at the association for education in Journalism and Mass Communication Convention. Toronto: Canada.

Gamble, T.K and Gamble, M (2002) *Communications Work* (7th Ed) New York: McGraw Hill.

Howley, K. (2004) Reading Survivor: A primer on media studies. Retrieved October 10 from <http://www.readandblack.com/vnews/display.v/ART/2003/02/28.3e5f8e32bc590?in-archive=1>.

Kelly, U (1997) "Theory building in qualitative research and computer programmes for the for the management of textual data" Sociological Research online 2 (2) Available from <http://www.socreonline.org.UKsocresonline/2/2/2htm>;

Ladd, R (1957) *Language Testing*. London: Longman.

Laitto (2015) *Influence of Reality TV show on Brand Image* (A case study of MTN Project Fame) Available at: <https://laittosproject.wordpress.com/2015/02/26/Influence-Reality-tv-show-on-brand-image-a-case-study-of-MTN-Project-Fame> (Accessed 5th March, 2018).

Lindlof, T.R and Taylor, B.C. (2011) *Qualitative Communication Research Methods*. Sage: Los Angeles.

- Masagbor, R.A (2012) “*Language, A Complementarity of being*” Being the 2nd Inaugural Lecture, Benson Idahosa University.
- Meyrowitz, J. (1985) *No sense of place: The Impact of Electronic Media on Social Behavior* New York: Oxford University Press.
- Mitchell, M.L, and Jolley, J.M (2004) *Research Design Explained*, 5th Edition. Belmont: Thomson and Wadsworth.
- Okolo, B.A and Eziekeojiaku (1999) *Introduction to Language and Linguistics*. Benin City: Mindex Publishing Company.
- Okumagba, O.P. and Ogege, S.O (2009). Culture Areas of Nigeria and Their Characteristics in J. Mokobia, and N. Ojie, (Eds.) *Readings in general studies: Nigeria Peoples, Culture and Entrepreneurial Skills*, 3. Abraka: General Studies Directorate. Delta State University Abraka PP. 50.
- Padgett, D.K (2004) “Introducing: Finding a Middle Ground on Qualitative Research” In Padgett, D.K (ed) *The Qualitative Research Experience*. Belmont: Thomson and Wadsworth.
- Panathambekar, A (2010) “Reality TV and Participatory Culture in India: *Popular Communication* 8:241-255

- Pearson, J. Nelson, P; Titsworth, S. and Harter, L. (2008). *Human Communication*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Ritchie, J (2010) “The Application of Qualitative Methods in Social Research” In Ritchie, J. and Lewis, J (eds) *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Student and Researchers* Los Angeles: sage.
- Roscoe, J (2001) “Big Brother Australia: Performing the ‘real’ Twenty-Four-Seven” *International Journal of Cultural Studies*, 4(4) PP433-488.
- Sack, N (2003) Reality Programmes Dominate TV Retrieved November 2003 from <http://www.redandblack.com/vnews/display.V/ART/2003/02/28.3ed5f8e32bc590?in-archice=1>.
- Sapir, E (1921) *Language*. Harcourt Bruce Jovanovich.
- Wimmer, D.R and Dominick, R.I (2003) *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth.

**Community Radio Theory and Praxis:
An Analysis of Categorisation of Campus Radio as
Community Radio By
National Broadcasting Commission (NBC)**

IDRIS MOHAMMED* AND AGBO PARTICK MONDAY**

Abstract

The notion that campus radio stations established and owned by the government-owned tertiary institutions in Nigeria are community radio ignited debate among media scholars. The Nigeria Broadcasting Code (The Code) has categorized campus radio as community media and as a result, on the one hand there are scholars who have accepted and conceptually adopted for their research the classification, and on the other hand are the scholars who have rejected and picked issues with it. This study examined the classification of campus radio stations in tertiary institutions in Nigeria within the context of principles of community media. Analysis of the The Code, specifically chapter 9, and relevant available literature that provide theoretical explanations and praxis on the nature and characteristics of community radio suggested classification of campus radio stations established and owned by government-owned tertiary institutions in Nigeria is in complete negation, and an aberration, of principles and philosophy of community radio. The study recognized that while there are many communities in the universities and polytechnics such as academic community or non-academic community, staff co-operatives, and students' unions, these communities do not own and control the campus radio stations currently operating on campuses. The study strongly

recommended amongst others, re-classification of campus radio stations owned and controlled by government-owned universities as among the first tier of radio regime of public service broadcasting by the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC).

Key words: Community Radio, Campus Radio, National Broadcasting Commission (NBC), The Code.

Introduction

Until the recent granting of licenses to twelve radio stations to establish and operate as community radio stations by National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) in 2015 (herein excluding campus radio which was classified as community radio by the same regulatory body), the story of community radio in Nigeria was purely academic: they were non-existent. This was the reality that Ojomo, Tejuoso, Olayinka, and Oluwashola (2015) found “very disheartening”. While other African countries have surged ahead with establishment of community radio stations, Nigeria with rich tradition of mainstream radio operations since 1930s remained stagnant in development of community media. However, the non-existence of community radio in Nigeria has not in any way deterred scholarly works on community media.

Nevertheless, there arose the debate about whether campus radio stations are community radio. Pate and Abubakar (2013: p10) observed that “it is important to emphasise that there are arguments on whether campus radio qualifies as community radio or not.”

*Idris Mohammed is a lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, The Federal Polytechnic, Bida, Niger State, Nigeria.

**Agbo Patrick Monday Lectures in the Department of Mass Communication, The Federal Polytechnic, Bida Niger State, Nigeria.

JCDMR Journal Of Communication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria

The notion that campus-based radio stations established by government-owned tertiary institutions are community radio has waxed stronger among some Nigerian scholars. In fact, indications are that contrary arguments to that claim are seen as intellectually jejune and an aside. Scholars like Dunu (2013) have accepted campus radio as community radio while Pate and Abubakar (2013) are on the other side of the spectrum. Ojebode (2009, p.9) averred that “we do not yet have ideal community radio stations but we have campus radio stations which are also like community radio stations.” How is campus radio like community radio? Or is campus radio community radio in the true context of principles of community media? For Pate and Abubakar (2013), nothing could be further from the truth.

Pate and Abubakar (2013, p.10) observed that:

The Code lists campus broadcasting as a form of community broadcasting, despite the fact that it clearly stipulates that it is principally to train students in broadcasting and other related fields and to provide opportunities for practical experience (p.100). It is important to emphasise that there are arguments on whether campus radio qualifies as community radio or not. It should also be clarified that, nowhere, was it pre-categorised under a community radio by the African Charter on Broadcasting, as well as other relevant global and African legal documents championing freedom of information and expression. Campus radio is already in operation in some Nigerian tertiary institutions, but that does not mean it professionally and sufficiently qualifies to be categorised as a form of community radio. There is therefore, the need to engage regulatory agencies to understand and clarify concepts to conform to

international applications. After all, the definition and application of community radio in Nigeria cannot deviate from global concepts and application.

This, paper critically analysed categorisation of campus radio in government-owned tertiary institutions as community radio by NBC.

Study Objectives

- i. To ascertain the appropriateness of NBC Code's categorization of campus broadcasting as community broadcasting as stated in the chapter 9 of the Code.
- ii. To find out the plausibility of existence of community radio on campus that agrees with the relatively generally accepted principles of community broadcasting.
- iii. To find out if a campus radio which is established, owned and funded by a state-owned tertiary institution can be categorised as a community media.

Review of Literature

We must first situate community radio within the larger context of community media and community broadcasting and specifically how the broadcast regulatory agency provided the conceptual framework.

Jankowski (2003, p. 6) viewed community media as "broad" phenomena which refer to a "diverse range of mediated forms of communication: electronic media such as radio and television, print media such as newspapers and magazines, and electronic network initiatives which embrace characteristics of both traditional print and electronic media. Thus, we can have community newspaper, community magazine, community networks (on the internet), community

television, and community radio. For Anaeto and Solo-Anaeto (2010) these are rural community radios, rural community newspapers, including community-viewing centres forms of community media, thus they placed more emphasis on the rural location of the media.

Research into community media has been problematic for scholars owing to questions regarding their identity. Howley (2002) quoted in Howley (2010, p. 2) viewed the term community media as a “notoriously vague construct”. In 2003, Jankowski identified inadequate number of theories and models as one of the impediments to community media research; this eliminates the possibility of linking research questions to theoretical frameworks or models. Howley (2013) attributed the problems regarding the identity of community media and dearth of theories in community media research to absence of clear, definitive conception of the term community media as they share meaning with other terms such as ‘participatory media’, ‘alternative media’, and ‘citizens’ media’. This ambiguity is further expanded when you consider other forms of alternative and community-based media such as “free radio, participatory video, street newspapers, computer networking” (Howley, 2013, p. 2). As a result of multitude of competing identities, theory development in community media research gets enmeshed in complications and “confounded” (Howley, 2013).

For Carpentier, Lie and Saevaes (2003), attempts to carve a niche for community media as alternative to private and state mainstream media, and as a democratic media space characterized by active and participatory audience, led to split, multiple identities of community media, and they pronounced that “the concept of community media has shown to be, in its long theoretical and empirical tradition, to be highly elusive” p: 51. They theorized that the use of mono-theoretical

approaches were inadequate in situating proper definition of community media. The inability of the mono-theoretical approaches to embed the various core components of community media and in order to construct the identity, and capture the ‘specificity’ and ‘diversity’, of community media Carpentier et al. (2003) proposed combining four theoretical approaches. The first approach view community media as ‘serving the community’; the second approach is ‘community media as an alternative to mainstream media’; the third approach is ‘linking community media to civil society’; and the fourth approach sees ‘community media as rhizome’. In the case of the fourth approach, as rhizome, community media are seen as part of civil society which is not completely independent of state and the market. Thus, community media must somewhat, for survival purpose, maintain relationship with the state and the market. Carpentier et al. (2003) touted the rhizome approach with capacity to provide a wider vista into the specificity and diversity of community media.

In his argument about typology of community media as alternative to mainstream media, Musa (2003) argued that community media must also be seen in the context of alternative ownership to corporate ownership and control, which are not directed by capital interest. The alternative to mainstream media and alternative to corporate ownership are central to the identity of community media as this enable them to engage in “philosophy of resistance to mainstream ideology and commitment to social change could clearly be identified as ‘alternative’” (Musa, 2003, p. 70).

Community Radio

According to chapter nine: section 9.0 of the Nigeria Broadcasting Code (the Code, 5th and 6th editions, 2012 and

2016 respectively) citing African Charter on broadcasting, community broadcasting is a third tier of broadcasting, the other two tiers being public service and commercial/private broadcasting. It defined community broadcasting thus, “It is a non-profit, grassroots public broadcast service medium through which community members are able to contribute and foster civic responsibilities and integration” (NBC, 2012, P65; 2016, p78). The African Charter on Broadcasting defines community radio as the “broadcasting which is for, by and about the community, whose ownership and management is representative of the community, which pursues a social development agenda, and which is non-profit” (portal.unesco.org). And Pate and Abubakar (2013, p. 4) defined community radio as “the radio established and operated by the people of a specific community to advance, promote and protect the community’s common interest and objectives.” According to Ojebode (2009, p. 9) “a community radio station is a station owned, staffed and managed by and for members of a community, a non-profit station that pursues a development agenda.”

A key concept in these definitions of community radio is ‘community’. NBC Code (2012, 2016, p.65, p.78) defined community as:

group of people residing in a particular geographical location or sharing a strong interest which the community desires to develop through broadcasting. Such communities include: a. a local, non-profit organization, b. an educational institution (campus), c. a cultural association, d. a co-

operative society, and e. a
partnership of associations.

While providing, that community could be viewed from a territorial or social interests (cultural, political, economic, professional, etc.) perspective, Pate and Abubakar (2013, p. 4) emphasised that community is of “people who share common interests, values, characteristics and goals” who may or may not share geographical contiguity. The identity of the community radio is tied to its “community,” be it geographical or interest. Hence, Oyeboode (2009, p. 10) reiterated that community radio station “is established by the community and for the community.” Opubor (2012) stressed the importance of the community term in the concept of community media, urging caution so as not to “marginalise” community for the media.

Principles of Community Media

Many scholars including Johnson and Menichelli (2007), Lush and Uργοiti (2012), Fairbairn (2009) are in agreement that there are four core principles common to community media. According to Fairbairn (2009, p. 7), “in general, there is agreement on four principles that are seen as pillars of community broadcasting”. While the phrasing of these characteristics might have differed, the substance of their content basically is the same. In Fairbairn (2009), the principles are community ownership and control, community service, community participation, and a non-profit business model; in Johnson and Menichelli (2007) we have the principles as localism, diverse participation, storytelling and deliberation, and empowerment; meanwhile, Girard (2007) provided five characteristics: community based, independent,

not-for-profit, pro-community, and participatory. It must be noted that the core principles of ‘access’ and ‘participation’ were earlier emphasized by Berrigan in 1979. This study, like Lush and Urgoiti (2012) adopted Fairbairn’s (2009) core principles to explain the identity of community broadcasting.

- i. Community ownership and control: This principle is a given; community media are owned and controlled by the members of the community where they are located. The community media owners in this regard could be NGOs, religious institutions, cultural associations, municipalities, or universities, a cooperative, a not-for-profit group, (Fairbairn, 2009, p. 8; Girard, 2007, p. 4). Johnson and Menichelli (2007, p. 3) refer to this community ownership and control as ‘localism’ which they described as “geographic place” and “online virtual community”. In terms of control, this is where Girard (2007)’s characteristics of independence becomes pertinent which means community control of the radio station, without control or influence from the government, donors, advertisers and other institutions in making editorial and operational decisions. According to Coyer (2009) once any community media allowed itself to be dominated and controlled by either government or local elites, and thereby compromised its independence, it forfeited its credibility.
- ii. Community service: community media exist to serve the social, economic and cultural interests of the target community (Girard, 2007). These are communities of the poor, the marginalized, the exploited and the oppressed. As such, community services by community media aimed for social benefits, community empowerment, community communications and

development. Fairbairn (2009, p. 9) enumerated the following as some of the community services to be rendered by the community media:

- (a) Validates and strengthens communities
- (b) Covers topics that are relevant to the community
- (c) Encourages community discussion and debate
- (d) Facilitates community participation in production and dissemination of content
- (e) Ensures that voices of marginalized, stigmatized, and repressed sectors of communities are heard
- (f) Provides spaces for perspectives and views that are alternative to those originating from mainstream media

- iii. Community Participation: Berrigan (1979, p.8) explained that participation requires that members of the community "participates, as planners, producers, performers" in media content productions, programming and administration. Participation essentially draws on the involvement of non-professional ordinary people in positions of decision making and actions to actualize the editorial, programming and administrative, and management mandate of the community media. Theoretically, in participation principle we find the dismantling of the dichotomy of sender and receiver which characterized the mainstream media. In community media sender and receiver are morphed into one. General participation also includes financial backing by the community (Girard, 2007).

Participation is the key defining feature of community media; it is what places community media outside of traditional media models, in

which audiences are passive receivers of messages. In the community media model, senders and receivers together create messages and meaning through participatory processes. (Fairbairn, 2009, p.9).

iv. A non-profit business model: in theory, community media are not commercial set ups whose major objective is amassing profit because such notions are antithetical to historical foundations of community media in challenging political hegemony, as alternative to mainstream media, and giving voice to the voiceless. However, important as this principle is in distinguishing media from the mainstream media, the challenges of sustainability and survival have compelled some community media to be run as businesses. Ntshangase (2009) found over-reliance of most community radio stations in South Africa on advertising and programme sponsorship. The ideal sources of funding for community media include funding by the community, donations from international agencies, etc. In making the case for funding from advertisement, Girard (2007: p4) averred that "to say that a community radio station is not-for-profit does not mean that it cannot carry advertising or that it has to be poor. It merely means that any surplus it makes is reinvested in the station and the community." Oso (2003) was emphatic in rejecting commercialisation of community radio: "a privately owned commercial radio cannot claim to be community radio. It is not" (Oso, 2003, p. 41).

"All community media embrace some or all of these principles, and apply them in different ways and degrees, depending on their local and national contexts." (Fairbairn, 2009, p. 7).

Theoretical Framework

The theory found most suitable for this study is the Democratic Participant Media theory of Mass Communication which was proposed by Denis McQuail emerged in the 1960s in response to perceived shortcomings of existing normative theories of the Press. Anaeto and Solo-Amaeto (2010) explained that the theory calls for easy access to the media by everyone. That is, the media should be pluralistic and decentralized in a manner that political as well as legal restrictions are erased so that everyone can participate in the media (businessstopia.net, 2018). Ojobor (as cited in Anaeto, Onabajo and Osifeso, 2008, p. 61) outlines the theory's principles thus:

- (i) Individual citizens and minority groups have rights of access to media and right to be served by the media according to their own need;
- (ii) Organization and content of media should be not subjected to centralized political or state bureaucratic control;
- (iii) Media should exist primarily for the audiences and not for media organizations, professionals or clients of the media;
- (iv) Groups, organizations and local communities should own their own media; and
- (v) Small-scale, interactive and participative media forms are better than large scale, one-way, professional media.

From the aforementioned principles, the relevance of the theory to this study becomes clear. The theory advocates for a user-friendly and community based media in order to facilitate rural development which is the basic objective of establishing community and even campus radio stations. Although community media may lack professionalism and skills, the fact

that this theory enables different communities, groups and organizations operate their own media brings inclusion and equality which makes it an ideal model for developing countries like Nigeria.

Methodology

The method for engaging in this discourse and analysis is the examination of extant regulations, specifically the NBC Code, and relevant available literature that provide theoretical explanations and praxis on the nature and characteristics of community radio. Implicitly, section 9.5 of the NBC Code titled 'Campus broadcasting' was subjected to the scrutiny of the principles of community broadcasting. The provisions of the NBC Code (2012 and 2016) which defined campus broadcasting and its purposes were juxtaposed with principles of community radio to identify the possible contradictions in the categorisation of campus radio as community broadcasting. Key characteristics of community broadcasting, specifically ownership and control; and participation were used to locate campus radio within the theoretical community media matrix.

Analysis of application of principles of community broadcasting to campus broadcasting

i. One of the main principles of community broadcasting is ownership and control of community radio resting solely with the community. This might not be the case of campus broadcasting given that the Code clearly and specifically stipulates that only educational institutions that offer Mass communication as a course and in addition to offering a minimum of any two of (a) theatre Arts/Creative Arts/Media Arts; (b) Information Communication Technology; (c) Electrical/Electronics shall be granted Campus broadcast license. Implicit here is the fact that campus broadcast stations

in Nigeria are established, owned and controlled by the university authorities and not by any other bodies such as Staff cooperatives, or staff unions or students' unions. The logical question arising from this is: Does campus radio station established, owned and controlled by a university qualify to be categorised as community radio? The answer to this is no because to respond in the affirmative completely negates the very important principle of community ownership and control of the community radio. The university authority does not qualify to be called a community as it is an extension of the larger government funded by tax payers' money. This is what obtains virtually in all campus radio stations across all federal and state owned tertiary institutions in Nigeria.

ii. The NBC Code provision for establishing campus radio also negates the principle of community participation for community broadcasting. Paragraph 9.12.1 of the Code states that:

in considering an application for the grant of campus broadcast licence, the Commission shall be satisfied that the institution offers Mass Communication, (*with Nigeria Broadcasting Code as a Unit Course*) and a minimum combination of any two of the following:

- a. Theatre Arts/Creative Arts/Media Arts
- b. ICT
- c. Electrical/Electronics (the Code, 2016, p. 80).

This provision largely delimits the scope of universities that can establish and operate campus radio stations regardless of if they have the financial power to do so because paragraph 9.11.1 of the Code provided that the principal reason for licensing campus broadcast is to train students in broadcasting

and other related fields like engineering, information technology, creative arts, use of English, drama etc. (the Code, 2016: p80). Consequently, universities that do not offer the aforementioned accredited courses are rule out from participating in campus broadcasting which is contrary to community participation requirement for community broadcasting.

iii. Paragraphs 9.14 and 9.15 of the Code on operation and funding respectively of campus radio agree with characteristics of community radio providing community service and being non-profit service. According to paragraph 9.15.1:

Funding of the operations of the Campus broadcaster shall among others include: a. Subvention; b. Spot announcements from within the Campus community; (Not exceeding 9 minutes in every 1 hour broadcast) c. Donations or grants; d. events coverage within the Campus community; e. sale of station's memorabilia; f. staff/student membership fee (p. 82).

However, in practice, this is not the case in campus radio stations in tertiary institutions in Nigeria. What obtains is that virtually everything, from building of the structures to housing the station, purchase of broadcast equipment and forms, to payment of licensing fees were funded by the university or polytechnic as the case may be, using their Internally Generated Revenue (IGR) and subventions from the federal or state government (that is tax payer's money).

Conclusion

The classification of campus radio as community radio by the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) is seen here as an anomaly both in theory and practice. The principles and philosophy of community media in general and community broadcast in particular postulate community radio as an alternative to mainstream media in ownership, control, participation, and purpose. Community radio is a radical ideological departure from capital and commercial driven private and state-controlled media as community and its interests and aspirations assumed central positions. Unlike community radio which found fulcrum on grassroots struggle for emancipation from political marginalization, economic deprivation and exploitation, and general alienation, campus radio operates more or less like conventional, mainstream stations to entrench the status quo. By the guidelines of the NBC, campus radio stations in Nigeria are not truly community radio but are, in the words of Opubor “instructional radio” for educational purposes. The code only acknowledged campus broadcasting mainly for training of students. These are the key points researchers who have accepted and adopted for their studies the NBC Code classification of campus radio as community radio must begin to consider.

Recommendations

- i. Re-classification of campus radio owned and controlled by government-owned universities (which is, indirectly owned by either state or federal government) as among the first tier of radio regime of public service broadcasting by the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC). This will go a long way to eliminate the current confusion generated by the NBC Code.

- ii. Or alternatively, create another tier to be known as campus broadcasting which should absorb the current campus radio stations across the tertiary institutions in Nigeria which are not community media but instructional stations for teaching.
- iii. Logically, and related to the first recommendation above, classify campus radio owned by communities such as academic and non-academic unions, students' unions, staff cooperatives, and associations as community radio provided they meet the NBC requirements and guidelines for establishment of community radio because the code only acknowledged campus broadcasting mainly for training of students.
- iv. Relaxing regulation requirements, especially the licensing fees for establishment of community radio on campus by different university communities such as academic unions, staff cooperatives, etc. The current regime of licensing fees might not appeal to sub-communities in tertiary institutions to pull resources together to establish community radio given that the exorbitant costs of broadcast equipment is enough disincentive to communities like academic and non-academic unions, student unions, associations, and staff cooperatives.
- v. There is need for scholars to educate the NBC on the contradictions inherent in classifying campus radio stations so that proper regulatory framework can be fashioned out with the least confusion on this issue.

Idris Mohammed and Agbo Patrick Monday: Community Radio Theory and Praxis: An analysis of Categorisation of Campus Radio as Community Radio By National Broadcasting Commission (NBC)

References:

Anaeto, S. G., Onabajo, O. S. & Osifeso, J. B. (2008). *Models and theories of communication*. Bowie: African Renaissance Books Incorporated.

Anaeto, S. G. & Solo-Anaeto, M. (2010). *Development communication: Principles and practice*. Ibadan: Stirling-Horden Publishers Ltd.

Anaeto, G. S & Solo-Amaeto, M. (2010). *Rural community newspaper: Principles and practice* (2nd ed.). Ibadan: Stirling-Horden Publishers Ltd.

Berrigan, J. F. (1979). *Community communications: The role of community media in development*. France: UNESCO.

Businesstopia.net (2018). Democratic-participant theory of mass communication. Retrieved from www.Businesstopia.net

Carpentier, N., Lie, R. & Servaes, J. (2003). Community media: Muting the democratic media discourse? Continuum. *Journal of Media & Cultural Studies*. (17)1.

Coyer, K. (2009). The need for an enabling environment. In Fairbairn, J. *Community Media Sustainability Guide*. USA: Internews Network.

- Dunu, I. V. (2015). Women participation in community radio in Nigeria: Towards marginalization or exclusion? Analysis of selected campus community radio stations. *European Scientific Journal*. 11(20)
- Fairbairn, J. (2009). *Community media sustainability guide: The business of changing of lives*. USA: Internews Network.
- Fairchild, C. (2010). Social solidarity and constituency relationships in community radio. In Howley, K. *Understanding Community Radio*. California: Sage Publications Inc.
- Girard, B. (2007). *Empowering radio. Good practices in development & operation of community radio: Issues important to its effectiveness*. World Bank Institute: Program on Civic Engagement, Empowerment & Respect for Diversity.
- Howley, K. (Ed). (2010). *Understanding community radio*. California: Sage Publications Inc.
- Jankowski, N. W. (2003). Community media research: A quest for theoretically-grounded models. *The Publics*. 10.
- Johnson, F. & Menichelli, K. (2007). *What is going on in community media*. Washington, DC: Benton Foundation.
- License community media stations now 17, NBC says. (2015, May 24). *Sunday Trust*, P. 38.

Idris Mohammed and Agbo Patrick Monday: Community Radio Theory and Praxis: An analysis of Categorisation of Campus Radio as Community Radio By National Broadcasting Commission (NBC)

Lush, D. & Urgoiti, G. (2012). *Participation pays: The sustainability of community broadcasting in perspective*. Windhoek, Namibia: Fesmedia Africa, Friedrich-Ebert-Stiftung.

Musa, M. (2003). Globalisation and community media. In Oso, L. (Ed). *Community Media: Voices from Challenge and Resistance from Below*. Lagos: Jedididah Publishers.

Ntshangase, J. (2009). **Soweto's "number one" station**. In Fairbairn, J. (ed) *Community Media Sustainability Guide*. USA: Internews Network.

Odunlami, A. T. (2016). Community radio and sustainable development in Nigeria: An assessment of unilag radio and diamond FM. *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development*.

Ojebode, A. (2009). *Doing community radio: A toolkit for Nigerian communities*. Lagos: Nigeria Community Radio Coalition.

Ojomo, W., Tejuoso, W., Olayinka, A. P. & Oluwashola, I. T. (2015). Making a case for community radio in Nigeria. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science* 5(8).

Opubor, A. E. (2012). *Truth in search of a voice*. Ibadan: University of Ibadan.

Oso, L. (2003). Community media: Voices from challenge and resistance from below. In Oso, L. (Ed). *Community*

Media: Voices from Challenge and Resistance from Below. Lagos: Jedididah Publishers.

Pate, U. A. & Abubakar, A. A. (2013). The struggle for community broadcasting in Nigeria. *Malaysian Journal of Media Studies*.

www.worldbank.org (2016). Making history: Nigeria's first community radio station hits the airwaves. Retrieved from www.worldbank.org

Influence of Local Language Advertisements on Lassa Fever Prevention in Ebonyi State

**ANTHONY C. EKWUEME*, AND OGODO MONDAY
OGODO****

Abstract

This study “Influence of local language advertisements on Lassa fever prevention in Ebonyi State” among others things examined the level of Lassa fever awareness created by local language advertisements and influence of choice of local language adverts on people’s behaviour towards Lassa fever in Ebonyi state. The study was anchored on social marketing theory. Survey method was applied, with mixed method approach. In all, 350 respondents were studied. Findings of the study indicated that local language advertisements have created high level of awareness among Ebonyians. Again, this high awareness created was found to have translated to high knowledge of the virus among residents of the state. The study therefore, recommended that Language factors such ‘meaning’, ‘understanding’, influence, effectiveness should be factored by advertising practitioners and other media organs to craft messages that can create significant impact on the target audience

Key words: *Local language, Advertisement, Lassa fever, Media influence*

Introduction

The outbreak of Lassa fever in Nigeria and Ebonyi State in particular is one of the many problems that government and individuals are battling to find lasting solution to. Lassa fever is an infectious disease known to be spread by rodents such as rats. The first serious incidences of the disease outbreak in Ebonyi State was reported in 2015, when the disease had been contacted by seven persons, two of who were medical doctors at the Federal Teaching Hospital, Abakaliki. The two doctors were confirmed death two days after, according to hospital management, while five of the victims were successfully managed and treated by the hospital. In the wake of 2017, other cases of the virus outbreak was reported by the Ebonyi state government through its ministry of health and environment, notify the public to be conscious to avoid contacting the disease while frantic efforts were put in place to manage the patients. In 2018, nine confirmed positive cases were reported, and three of the patients discharged after successful treatment. *Daily Trust* (2018) quoting minister of health, Prof Isaac Adewole gave hint that: “Ebonyi, Ondo, and Kogi were the three major states hit by Lassa fever virus since its outbreak in January”. Lassa fever according to NCDC (2018) is an acute viral haemorrhagic illness caused by Lassa virus, a member of the virus family “*Arenaviridae*.” Ogbu (2007), Yun (2012), Asogun & Olschlager, *et al* (2016), Uyigue & Oladapo, *et al* (2012) and Dongo & Kesieme *et al* (2013) agree that “Lassa fever is a zoonotic disease,” “meaning

*Dr. Anthony C. Ekwueme is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria.

**Ogodo Monday Ogodo is of the Department of Mass Communication University of Nigeria Nsukka, Nigeria.

JCDMR Journal Of Communication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

that humans become infected from contact with infected animals. The animal reservoir, or host, of Lassa virus is a rodent of the genus *Mastomys*, commonly known as the “multimammate rat.” The authors maintain that “*Mastomys* rats infected with Lassa virus do not become ill like commensals, but they can shed the virus in their urine and faeces.” The World Health Organisation, WHO (2018) concurs with the view that “Lassa fever is an acute viral haemorrhagic illness, transmitted to humans through contact with food or household items contaminated by infected rodents”. It noted that “Person-to-person transmission can also occur, particularly in hospital environment in the absence of adequate infection control measures. Health care workers in health facilities are particularly at risk of contracting the disease, especially where infection prevention and control procedures are not strictly adhered to. This view gave credence to why majority of the patients are Doctors working to rescue those infected with the virus

Scaling up response to the outbreak of Lassa fever in Nigeria, NCDC (2018) notes that “Since the beginning of 2018, a total number of 107 suspected Lassa fever cases have been recorded in ten States: Edo, Ondo, Bauchi, Nasarawa, Ebonyi, Anambra, Benue, Kogi, Imo and Lagos States. As at 21st January 2018, the total number of confirmed cases is 61, with 16 deaths recorded. Ten health care workers were infected in four States (Ebonyi -7, Nasarawa - 1, Kogi - 1 and Benue - 1) with three deaths in Ebonyi State. This shows a drastic decrease in the number of cases and deaths from its 2016

statistics, which showed that reported cases of the haemorrhagic disease confirmed and suspected stood at 175 with a total of 101 deaths.

By March 2018, report by WHO indicated “a total of 1121 suspected cases from 18 states have been detected in Nigeria, of which 353 have been laboratory confirmed. So far, 78 people are confirmed to have died from Lassa fever. Among those infected are 16 health workers in six states, four of whom died. Currently, 3126 contacts have been identified, and 1586 are being monitored. Three states are reporting 85% of all confirmed cases: Edo (44%), Ondo (25%) and Ebonyi (16%) states.”

However, the outbreak of the virus occurs in the rural communities where contact with the causative rodents is rampant. “Persons at greatest risk are those living in rural areas where *Mastomys* are usually found, especially in communities with poor sanitation or crowded living conditions. Health workers are at risk if caring for Lassa fever patients in the absence of proper barrier nursing and infection prevention and control practices.” Thus, this created the natural need to step up campaign to create awareness of the public about the causes, prevention and control of the virus by the government and concerned authorities.

The media generally “plays a role in information dissemination particularly in cases of infectious disease agents occurring at epidemic proportions (Love, Arnesen, & Phillips, 2015). Since 2015 when the outbreak of the disease became more perceptible, some advertisements have been packaged in Ebonyi local languages to dissuade people from behaviours that can cause the virus epidemic. Advertising is a communication message which seeks to create awareness, knowledge, idea and influence the behaviour of its target

audience about a particular issue, goods or services. Local language advertisements are advert messages designed and packaged in different native languages aimed at creating understanding and awareness of the native communities about contemporary social, economic, political and health issues affecting them. The litmus test of this paper is to understudy the influence of such advertisements designed in local languages, and channelled through radio and television in containing the spread of the Lassa fever virus.

Statement of the Problem

“The high number of Lassa fever cases is concerning” (NCDE, 2017). The overall case-fatality rate is 1%. Observed case-fatality rate among patients hospitalized with severe cases of Lassa fever is 15%, (WHO, 2018). The World Health organisation’s report points that:

The current Lassa fever outbreak in Nigeria shows an increasing trend in the number of cases and deaths in recent weeks with 317 confirmed cases reported in 2018 so far. This is the largest outbreak of Lassa fever ever reported in Nigeria. The infection of 14 health care workers that were not working in Lassa fever case management centres highlights the urgent need to strengthen infection prevention and control practices in all health care setting for all patients, regardless of their presumed diagnosis. Given the high number of states affected, the clinical management will likely happen in health centres that are not appropriately prepared to care for patients

affected by Lassa fever and the risk of infection in health care workers will increase.

Reports and studies (NCDE, 2016; WHO, 2018; Nwonwu & Alo *et al* (2018); Folaranmi & Afolabi (2017) indicate that Ebonyi state is among the states where prevalent rate of the Lassa fever virus is higher. “Lassa fever is commonly found in rural communities, where over 70% of the population resides.” (Kelly Barrie *et al*, 2003). Although “Lassa fever has been reported to be primarily spread by contact with the faeces or urine of rodents” (McCormick, 1987), yet parts of Abakaliki rural communities still eat rodents such as rats. Apart from the natural difficulty in reaching out to all the rural communities; the choice of language to apply in messages targeted at them poses another problem. This is because majority of the rural population are not learned in the lingua-franca. Thus, government, non-governmental organisations, world health bodies and concerned individuals are anxious to find permanent preventive measures and cure for the epidemics. Studies on Lassa fever abound. However, many of such studies on the influence of advertising on Lassa fever prevention have identified that advertisement is an effective means of reaching out and educating the public on the dangers, preventive measures and treatment for the disease, but none of the research efforts has identified why such advertisements were successful in convincing the people.

Therefore, this study was poised to assess the influence of local language advertisement in prevention of Lassa fever in Ebonyi state.

Objectives of the study

The study strived to explore the following objectives:

1. To find out level of Lassa fever awareness created by local language advertisements
2. To examine the influence of choice of local language advert on people's behaviour towards Lassa fever in Ebonyi state
3. To identify the bait(s) used in local language advertisements to influence people's behaviour towards actions that encourage spread of Lassa fever.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. What influence does the choice of local language in advertisement on Lassa fever prevention have on the behaviour of people towards the virus?
2. What level of awareness has local language advertisements created about Lassa fever among the people?
3. What are the baits used in local language advertisements to influence people's behaviour towards actions that encourage spread of Lassa fever

Conceptual clarifications***The concept of local language***

Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols. Words, texts and sentences are attributes of a language capable of changing the meaning as well as the mood of advertising messages. In human communication, language is one of the major tools of thought. The words of a language or the units of meaning can be

combined into a stupendous number of sentences to represent the relationship between objects or events in the world around (Kenechukwu, 2012).

Local language is the mother tongue which a child is brought up with and which s/he identifies himself with as a member of a particular group, community, or a state. It is the first language a child is exposed to at the instance of birth before his interactions and relationship with the wider society, which will lead to learning other languages or the ‘second language’. According to UNESCO (2003), local language or first language or mother tongue is defined as the language that an individual uses for the very first time in life, that he/she uses the most in daily activities, in which he/she is well versed and identifies himself/ herself as belonging to a specific linguistic community and then to the wider society. Preeya (2015, p.27) citing Skutnabb-Kangas (1981, p.18) emphasised that local language is "the language one thinks, dreams and counts in" Chumbow (1990) underscores the psychological importance of the local language as “the language that is primarily learnt by a child and without which we cannot normally think and conceptualise things around us.” It also helps to develop and shape the thinking skills of young learners to become confident and competent enough to use it as a supportive medium to build up new languages and concepts at schools (Preeya, 2015, p.27). Apart from language, the style, mode, techniques and strategies of communication all combine to determine the extent of success of any communication objective, according to Aliede (2017) and Aliede and Ogod (2018).

Habits, conducts, values, virtues, customs and beliefs are all encapsulated in the mother tongue and it also defines an individual's cultural identity. This informs why Van Bakel

(2001) maintained advertisements...“should reflect the dominant tone of a culture.” An individual can have one or several first languages. In line with this, Akinnaso (1993) and Salami (2008) are of the view that children need to learn in the Mother tongue until the age of 12 before switching to a second language education because at 12 they have sufficiently mastered concepts in the local language and acquired mother tongue awareness and consciousness that make them apt enough to transfer knowledge into other languages.

The use of local language in advertising is unique. It gives the message the status credibility and the feeling that the issue/event, goods or services being advertised is a local one, more than those in the foreign languages. Noreiga & Blair (2008), point to this when they assert that “an advertisement in a consumer’s native language is more likely to elicit self-referent thoughts about family, friends, home or homeland, which in turn may lead to more positive attitude measures and behavioural intentions”. Furthermore, these effects are moderated by the consumption context presented in the advertisement.

Due to our socialization, Irene (2013, p.29) noted it is easier to understand and memorize messages in our vernacular languages, and thus be able to see the value proposition in an advertisement. This is further confirmed by his study that information contained in an advert is better understood if presented in the audiences’ local language.

Advertising, language and public service

The term 'advertising' derived from the Medieval Latin verb 'advertere' which means 'to direct one's attention to.' It is any type or form of public announcement intended to direct people's attention to the availability, qualities, and/or cost of specific commodities, services or events. On the other hand,

advertisement can be designed to change attitude, persuade target to accept or reject a course, idea or change from old way of things to new ones; ‘inform’ or ‘educate’ and conscientise its target audience of inherent dangers or benefits of new things in the society.

Advertising is a form of communication through media about products, services or ideas paid for by an identified sponsor. (APCON code of Advertising Practice 1993) Okoro (2005) cited Advertising Age 1932, to give credence to the definition of advertising as “any printed, written, spoken or pictured representation of a person, product, service or movement, openly sponsored by the advertiser and at his expense for the purpose of influencing sales, use, votes or endorsement.” The American Marketing Association (AMA, 1992) defines advertising as the non-personal communication of information usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature about products, services or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media.

Advertising as a persuasive communication employs persuasive techniques to catch consumer’s interests. Writing about the impact of advertisement in helping consumers’ choice, Kenechukwu & Asemah *et al* (2013) argue that People react to the same advertisement differently and make decisions on how to spend their available resources on consumption related items. To decide on the above variables, the prospective consumer is forced to choose a particular product due to the persuasive language behind the advertisement.

Advertising and marketing communication messages, (Harris and Heldon, 2002) aver “are usually targeted at a consumer with a view to generating interest in a product or service and ultimately causing action of purchase or elicit behavioural

change.” The duo contend that “the process of developing advertising messages, therefore, involves a close understanding of different forms of linguistic typologies with a view to deploy the right language for the specified purpose.”

Language is one of the most important and characteristic forms of human behaviour. Sociolinguists believe that 'speaking' is almost always a social act. Language is defined as a rule-governed system of symbols that allows the users to generate meaning and in the process, to define reality (Dada, 2004). This implies that language is made up of sound, grammar, semantics and social context. Language is the major means by which human being communicates. In communication, language is used to reveal the self, to express feelings and values, and to convey meaningful message (Dada, 2004). Language, when used effectively, can hold peoples interest. It can also persuade people to act (Arokoyo, 2011). Successful advertisements must therefore make a useful and lasting impression through language. The language of advertisement, is generally laudatory, positive, unreserved and emphasizing the uniqueness of a product (Arokoyo, 2011). According to Cappellini (2005) cited by Irene (2013), language has at least five functions in the society:

These functions are expressive, phatic, informational, aesthetic and directive. The expressive function of language expresses the speaker's or writer's feelings and attitudes. The phatic function is used to keep communication lines open and also to maintain social relationships by fostering cohesion within social groups. Language performs informational function to convey information. The directive function of

language aims at directing or influencing the behaviour or attitudes of others. Language performing aesthetic function is designed to please the senses through actual or imagined sounds and through metaphor

Where media studies are concerned, (Kodak, *et al* 2013) writes that the “term ‘language’ is often used to refer to more than just verbal language.” Language, therefore, involves all ways in which human beings communicate including flags, smoke signals, religious ceremonies and images. Language is an important component in advertising as it acts as a carrier of the advertisement message. It gives meaning and context to the advertising message. In line with this view, Ebert (2010) cited in Irene (2013, p.2) counsels that “advertisers must ensure consistency in their messaging. Consistency in messaging enhances consumers’ trust in the advertiser’s message. Advertisers must therefore make an informed decision on the language in which to deliver the message in order to engender those feelings of trust. According to Barthel (2003), language choice matters a lot in advertising in creating a relationship between the product and the meaning or the value it brings to its buyer.

Irene (2013, p. 28) in his study of the perceived relationship between language choice and advertising effectiveness among advertising agencies in Kenya, revealed a great correlation between choice of language and the impact an advertisement has on the audience. The study indicated that “products cannot survive competition without intensive advertisement and that advertisers must consider choice of language before embarking on an advertisement.” These confirm the perception that advertising language affects a

consumer's recall of the message. Thus, effective communication even in other spheres of life requires that one can recall messages in order to apply their meaning.

Theoretical anchorage

There are a number of frameworks media influence can be based on. In the present study, theories like the agenda setting, social responsibility, and value change theory among others can be used to explain media influence on the behaviour and attitude of the society towards certain issues of interest. The mass media by their reports set agenda for public discourse, make some issues more relevant than others. Referring to the agenda philosophy, Lang and Lang (1959) agree that not only do people acquire factual information about public affairs from the media, readers and viewers also learn how much importance to attach to a topic on the basis of the emphasis placed on it in the news. The mass media in the social responsibility initiative have the duty to provide information on the daily happenings in the society and enlightening the public so as to make it capable of self-government.

However, this study is anchored on social marketing theory. Social marketing theory was developed in the early 1970s, as a legacy from product marketing to mass communication scholarship. It has close affinity to and may indeed be regarded as an extension of the persuasion theories on the one hand, and the diffusion theories on the other (Folarin 2013, p 141). Social marketing theory is concerned with promotion of socially valuable information. It is a "working theory" in the area of information campaign design and evaluation. The theory according to Folarin (2013) advertisers should go beyond the search for the best methods of designing messages that work, to anticipate social and psychological barriers to the effectiveness of mass-mediated

information and formulate strategies to overcome them. These strategies may simply amount to brazen saturation advertising in the final analysis. Baran and Davis (2003, p.303) give some of the tenets of theory as noting that:

It has clearly designed methods for inducing audience awareness of the subject of the information campaign, e.g. a health campaign such as malaria roll-back, HIV/AIDS preventions; pressure group mobilisation; or a presidential candidate; works out reinforcement techniques as an essential component of the information design; projects techniques for leading the targeted audience from interest and information seeking to decision making.

The social marketing theory is suitable to this work because application of its tenets in planning and packaging mass media messages will lead producers to select languages and techniques that will appeal to the target audience to change or reinforce their attitudes and behaviour or shape their views and opinions on issues of interest to them.

Methodology

This paper adopted survey research method. The appropriateness of this method is informed by the fact that it allows for the study of people's views and opinion on issues of public interest. "It is a method in which group of things are studied by collecting and analysing data from only a few people who are representative of the entire population/group". (Akuezuilo cited in Izuogu, 2015, p.8). The reference

population of this study comprises the thirteen local government areas of Ebonyi state. According to Bureau of National Statistics (2017), Ebonyi state has an estimated population of 1.7 million people. Accordingly, the study adopted survey research method, wherein questionnaire was used as instrument of data collection, to study segments of the population, since it is practically impossible for any researcher to realistically study all the elements in the entire population of this magnitude.

The study applied mixed method approach. In the first place, Ebonyi State was stratified into three, in line with the already existing senatorial zones of Ebonyi North, Ebonyi South and Ebonyi Central. From each of these zones, the researchers randomly selected two (2) local government areas (Izzi and Ohaukwu L.G. As from the North, Afikpo South and Onicha L.G.

As from the South; and Ezza North and Ikwo L.G.As from the Central). This sums up to six (6) local government areas studied. The choice of these local governments was informed by strategic use of their local languages in packaging some adverts on radio and televisions in Ebonyi state about Lassa fever and their accessibility to the researcher amongst other factors. Again, using Nwana's (1981) method of sample size selection, which approves 5% for population of several thousands, the sample size of this study was put at 350 respondents evenly distributed crosswise all ages, qualification and occupations.

Data Presentation and Analysis

The data collected from the field for this study are presented in 5-point Likert scale format. The point of decision (acceptance or rejection) is 3 or 3.0. This implies that where the response rate is equal or greater than 3.0, it will be accepted; while it is

rejected if it is less than 3 or 3.0. This point of decision is represented with X on the data tables.

Out of the 350 questionnaire distributed to the respondents across the six council areas selected, 344 were successfully filled and returned. This represents 98.3 % of the total sample size, while 6 of questionnaire which is equivalent to 1.7 % was lost in voyage. Thus, the return rate of 98.3 % is appropriate enough to represent the views and opinions of the entire population understudy. Therefore, conclusions regarding the influence of local language on Lassa fever prevention were drawn based on the responses and opinions of the 344 respondents here presented:

Table 1: level of Lassa fever awareness created by local language advertisements

S/N	Questions	Options						Decision
		SA	A	D	SD	U	X	
1	I have heard/read about Lassa fever on radio, television, Newspaper, magazine, social media (Facebook, WhatsApp, twitter), internet	152	117	25	29	21	4.0	Accepted
2	I heard about Lassa fever as an advertisement	133	106	45	42	18	3.9	Accepted

	on radio and television.							
3	I understand what Lassa fever is all about from the media message	102	111	78	53	-	3.8	Accepted
4	I understand from the radio/television advertisement on Lassa fever that it is transmitted mainly by contact with urine and faeces of rodents, contact with infected person, unhygienic environments.	125	144	46	29		4.1	Accepted
5	From the advert message, I learnt that the main symptoms of Lassa fever are fever, general weakness, malaise,	142	146	33	21	2	4.1	Accepted

	headache, sore throat, muscle pain, chest pain, nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, cough, and abdominal pain, facial swelling, fluid in the lung cavity, bleeding from the mouth, nose, vagina							
6	From the advertisement, I learnt that Lassa fever is preventable through proper covering of food, proper disposal of refuse, regular hand washing, clearing of bushes around houses.	101	114	67	56	6	3.7	Accepted

Table one above presented data generated to examine level of Lassa fever awareness created by local language adverts. Data on the table indicates that respondents to the questionnaire learnt about the virus through the mass media as revealed by

item one on the table. Similarly, item two on the table with mean score of 3.9 shows that majority of the respondents heard about Lassa on radio/television as an advertisement. Items 3, 4, 5 and 6 which elicited responses on the proper knowledge of the virus, mode of transmission, symptoms, and prevention of the disease recorded mean scores higher above 3.0, and were accepted.

Table 2:Influence of choice of local language advert on people's behaviour towards Lassa fever in Ebonyi state

S/N	Questions	Options						Decision
		SA	A	D	SD	U	X	
1	The advert created fear about rats consumption	102	109	62	69	2	3.6	Accepted
2	I have stopped eating rats	98	121	41	59	25	3.5	Accepted
3	Cover food materials properly to prevent rat infiltration.	141	157	31	15	-	4.2	Accepted
4	The advert message made me conscious of handshake with people during Lassa fever outbreak	89	111	59	68	17	3.3	Accepted

5	I keep the surrounds clean to avoid rats after listening to the advert	108	113	70	53	0	3.8	
---	--	-----	-----	----	----	---	-----	--

Table 2 above presents respondents views and opinion to research question 3 which focused on the influence of local language advertisement on the attitude and behaviour of people towards Lassa fever. Data on the table showed that the advertisement created fear in the audience about consumption of rats. Item 1 which pointed this scored a mean of 3.6. Items 2, 3 and 4 in the table also gained mean scores above 3.0, and were accepted. This gave impetus to the view that good number of the population of Ebonyi state stopped eating rats as a causative agent of Lassa virus; cover their food materials properly to prevent rat incursion; avoid handshakes at the time of the virus outbreak and keep their surrounds clean.

Table 3: Baits used in local language advertisements to influence people's behaviour towards actions that encourage spread of Lassa fever.

S/N	Questions	Options						Decision
		SA	A	D	SD	U	X	
1	It was possible to understand much about lass fever because of the language used in the advertisement	87	163	29	44	21	3.7	Accepted
2	I understood much about	113	104	45	67	15	3.6	Accepted

	the virus because of the use of my local dialect in the advertisement							
3	I could easily recall the advert because of its use of incisive local drama	94	153	53	54	0	3.9	Accepted
4	The advert drew my attention because of personalities used	107	110	70	44	11	3.7	Accepted

The items on Table 3 above addressed research question 3, which concerns the baits used in local language advertisement to influence attitude and behaviour of people about Lassa fever. Data on the table showed that all the items has mean scores above 3.0 and they consequently accepted. This means that the advert on Lassa fever studied achieved high level of influence on the people because it was packaged in their local dialect, integration of incisive local drama and endorsement by local authorities. This gave the advert message powerful local appeal, such that issues raised about the virus in the advertisement are used to crack jokes among the people.

Discussion

In the study, the data analysis clearly showed that majority of the respondents got knowledge of Lassa fever on the media, while greater number of the respondents heard about the virus

as advertisements. Nwonu and Alo *et al* (2018) gave credence to this finding, when they declared that the “major source of information on Lassa fever was the electronic media mainly radio. They revealed that respondents’ commonest source of information on Lassa fever was radio (61.3%). Only about 15% of them had heard about Lassa fever from health workers. Less than 10% got the information from television and newspaper/magazine. Such advertisements were influential enough to create awareness about Lassa virus as a result of the choice of the people’s language. Findings indicated that respondents learnt from the advertisement that Lassa fever is transmitted mainly by contact with urine and faeces of rodents, contact with infected person, unhygienic environments. This finding is in tandem with Irene (2013) which revealed that there is a great correlation between choice of language and the impact an advertisement has on the audience. This confirms the perception that advertising language affects a consumer’s recall of the message and determines how they respond to the message

The findings also revealed that high level of Lassa fever awareness has been created among residents of Ebonyi state by local language advertisement. Statistics evidence portrays that residents of the state now take various precautionary measures to avoid outbreak and spread of the epidemic. Nwonu and Alo *et al* (2018) had indicated that awareness of Lassa fever was high, at 79.4% among traders in Ebonyi state. The implications of this as shown in the study is that majority of the respondents who have knowledge of Lassa fever virus maintained they avoid consumption of rats and other behaviours and attitudes that can lead to its outbreak. Data collected in respect of rat consumption rate among the people as causative factor of Lassa virus scored mean value

higher above 3.0, meaning that they avoid rat consumption. However, the findings of Adefisan (2014), which studied 'awareness of rat as a vector of Lassa fever among rural populace of Ijebu people' which concluded that both literate and illiterate rural dwellers irrespective of gender had no knowledge of rat as being a vector of Lassa fever' is quite at variances with this study. The time and place of Adefisan's study may be regarded as the cause of this difference in findings. While Ogun state has less reported cases of Lassa fever, the outbreak of the virus became a serious challenge to Ebonyi state government and individuals from 2016, hence campaigns were stepped up to suppress the virus. And such campaigns may have led to high awareness and corresponding high knowledge of Lassa fever, its causes and prevention among residents of Ebonyi state.

This study also identified baits Local language advertisement applies to wield influence on people to include: appeal to sense of belonging of the target audience in the message, use of respected local authorities/personalities to give credibility to the message. These combine to enhance easy recall of the advert message, and consequently lead to actions on the received message.

Conclusion

From the findings, this study concluded that the mass media in general are veritable instruments for fighting epidemic diseases in the society. By their power, position and influence, the mass media point the direction for the masses and by so doing educate and inform them about current issues and challenges and the way out especially on health issues.

Recommendations

Following the findings of this paper, the following recommendations were advanced:

1. Language factors such ‘meaning’, ‘understanding’, influence, effectiveness should be factored by advertising practitioners and other media organs to craft messages that can create significant impact on the target audience. This is achievable through audience analysis to find out what interests them and other makeups. This will help to reduce language barriers and create more meanings and effects into advertisements.
2. The Government, world health agencies and concerned individuals should mount and sponsor vigorous local language media campaigns on other number of epidemics such as Ebola virus, monkey purse, HIV/AIDS to scale down their spread.
3. Advertisers and advertising agencies should always do audience analysis to integrate appeals that will hold and sustain audience interest in the message.

References

- Adefisan, A. K. (2014). The level of awareness that rat is a vector of Lassa fever among the rural people in Ijebu-North Local Government, Ogun State, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5, 166 – 170.
- Akinnaso, F. N. (1993). Policy and experiment in mother tongue literacy in Nigeria. *International review of Education*, 39: 255-285.

- Aliede, J. E. (2017). Exploration of the synergy between Nigeria's environmental statutory provisions public relations and mass media in attaining environmental sustainability. *Journal of Social Sciences (JSS)*, National Open University of Nigeria, Vol. 1, No. 1, June. Pp. 177-201.
- Aliede, J. E. and Ogodo, M. O. (2018). Social media as revolutionary instruments for transformational governance: a reflection on the Arab Spring and its implication for democratic dispensation in Africa. *Novena Journal of Communication*, Vol. 7, Pp.194-206.
- Asogun, D. A.; Adomeh, D. I.; Ehimuan, J.; Odia, I.; Hass, M.; Gabriel, M.; Olschläger, S.; Becker-Ziaja, B.; Folarin, O.; Phelan, E.; Ehiane, P. E.; Ifeh. (2016). Accessibility to laboratory diagnosis of Lassa fever in Nigeria: a possible threat to the control of infectious diseases. *International Journal of Current Medical and Pharmaceutical Research*. Available Online at <http://www.journalcmpr.com> DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.24327/23956429.ijcmpr20170165>
- Baran, S. & Davis, D. K. (2003). *Mass communication theories*. New York: McGraw Hills.
- Barthel, D. (1988). Putting on appearances gender and advertising. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Chumbow, B. (1990). The place of the mother tongue in the national policy on education. In E.N. Emenanjo (ED.). *Multilingualism, Minority Languages and Language Policy in Nigeria* (Pp. 61-72). Agbor, Nigeria: Central Books Limited and Linguistic Association of Nigeria.

- Daily Trust* (Januray, 27, 2018). FG admits failure over Lassa fever outbreak in Ebonyi State.
- Irene, M. W. (2013). *Perceived Relationship between Language Choice and Advertisement Effectiveness among Advertising Agencies in Kenya*. A research project: Business Administration, School of Business, University of Nairobi.
- Kelly, J. D., Barrie, M. B, Ross, R.A, Temple, B. A. Moses, L. M. Bausch, B. D. (2003) Housing equity for health equity: A rights Leone, approach to the control of Lassa fever in post war Sierra. *BMC International Health and Human Rights*; 13:698-712.
- Kenechukwu, S. A. (2012). The psycho-social nature of language in human communication. *Review of Behavioural Sciences* 3(2): 24-29.
- Kenechukwu, S. A. Asemah, E. S. & Edegoh, L. O.N. (2013). Behind advertising: the language of persuasion. In *International Journal of Asian Social Science*: *Journal Homepage*: <http://www.aessweb.com/journal-detail.php?id=5007>
- Kodak, B., Matu M. Peter, Oketch, O. (2013). The manipulation of Kenyan television viewers through the modes of signification in television advertisements. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*. April 2013, Vol. 2, No. 2 ISSN: 2226-6348.
- Lang, K. & Lang, G. E. (1959). *Politics and television*. Chicago: Quadrant Books.
- Love, C. B., Arnesen, S. J. & Phillips, S. J. (2015). Ebola outbreak response: The role of information resources and the National Library of Medicine. *Disaster Medicine and Public Health Preparedness*, 9, 82- 85

- DOI: 10.1017/dmp.2014.NCDC (2018).Lassa Fever Outbreak Update.24 January 2018 | Abuja.
- Nwonwu E. U. , Alo, C. Una, A. F., Madubueze, U. C., Eze, I., Eze, N. C., Ogbonnaya, L. U. & Akamike, I. C. (2018). Knowledge of Lassa fever and its determinants among traders in Izzi community in South-East Nigeria.*Archives of Current Research International*13(4): 1-9, 2018; Article no.ACRI.39904ISSN: 2454-7077
- Ogbu, O. Ajuluchukwu, E. Uneke, C.J. (2007). Lassa fever in West African sub-region: an overview. *In Journal of Vector Borne Diseases*. 44 (1): 1-11. PMID 17378212. Lassa fever is endemic in West Africa
- Okoro, N· (2005).Career prospects in advertising.In Nwosu, I· E., Aliede, J· E. and Nsude, I, (EDs), *Mass Communication One Course, Many Professions*· Enugu: Prime Target· Pp·93-96.
- Salami, L. (2008). It is still ‘double take’: mother tongue education and bilingual classroom practice in Nigeria’. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 7(2): 91-112.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (1981). Bilingualism or not: The education of minorities. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Tobin, E. A., Asogun, D. A., Isah, E. C., Ugege, O. G. & Ebhodaghe, P. (2013). Assessment of knowledge and attitude towards Lassa fever among primary care providers in an endemic suburban community of Edo state: implications for control. *Journal of Medicine and Medical Sciences*, 4, 311 -318 DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14303/jmms.2013.095>.

UNESCO (2003). *Education in a multilingual world*. Education Position Paper, Paris: UNESCO Publishing. Available at:

<http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0012/001297/129728e.pdf>.

Uyigwe, V. E.; Oladapo, E. A.; Muoebonam, Y. T.; Osunde, E. B.; Dongo, O.; Okokhere A., Okogbenin, P. O.; Momoh, S. A.; Alikah, M.; Akhuemokhan, S. O.; Imomeh, O. C.; Odiike, P.; Gire, M. A.; Andersen, S.; Sabeti, K.; Happi, P. C.; Akpede, C. T.; Günther, G. O. (2012). Bausch, Daniel G, (EDs) *Molecular diagnostics for Lassa fever at Irrua Specialist Teaching Hospital, Nigeria: Lessons learnt from two years of laboratory operation*. PLoS Neglected Tropical Diseases. 6 (9): e1839. PMC 3459880.PMID 23029594. Doi: 10.1371/journal.pntd.0001839

WHO (2018). *Lassa fever fact sheet*. Available: <http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs179/en/> (Access Date 25/09/18)

Yun, N. E. & Walker, D. H. (2012). *Pathogenesis of Lassa fever Viruses*. 4 (12): 2031-2048. PMC 3497040.PMID 23202452. Doi: 10.3390/v4102031.

The Need for Corporate Sponsorship on Organisational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South-South Nigeria

BIBIAN NGOZI OKEIBUNOR.

Abstract

The study examined the need for Corporate Sponsorship (CS) on organisational image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company (FBN Life). Survey and interview research methods were employed in the study. A structured 21 items questionnaire was employed for data collection from respondents in South-South Geo-political Zone of Nigeria for the survey aspect, while interview guides were used for the interview aspect. The study found virtually non-involvement of FBN Life in Corporate Sponsorship programmes, low publics level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life and unquantifiable benefits, organisations stand to gain by involving in CS activities. It is on account of the aforementioned findings, that the study recommends that FBN Life needs to carve out a niche for itself by devoting part of its promotional budget to engage in CS programmes to establishing a unique corporate identity where distinct identity system elements like logos, signage, use of colours, uniform, posters, news releases, advertisements, et cetera, will be prominently displayed to create and increase publics' awareness of brands, and to relentlessly reinforce the publics' favourable feelings and loyalty towards towering corporate profile.

Keywords: Sponsorship, Corporate, Image, Organisational, Assuranc

Introduction

Background of the Study

First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company (FBN Life) was established on the 1st of September, 2010. It is a jointly owned company by the First Bank of Nigeria Holdings PLC; (FBN Plc) and a Sanlem Group in South Africa. FBN Plc has a sixty-five percent (65%) ownership of the company while Sanlem Group, which is one of the largest financial institutions in South Africa, has thirty-five percent (35%) ownership. However, it is a limited liability company licensed to transact insurance businesses in Nigeria. With the headquarters in Lagos, it has its branches in the 36 States of the country.

It is a truism that every organisation will leave no stone unturned to ensure that its organisational goals which are mainly to create and maintain the utmost positive organisational image are attained. The above as captured by Center, Jackson Smith and Stansberry (2008) is a function of good public relations. According to them the achievements of organisations goals are through the practice of public relations roles, without which the goals become impossible and which in turn will be the implications for non practice of public relations roles. These go to prove as Turney (2000) asserts that public relations is able to help people or organisation project good images, as well as help them receive favourable public responses whether they deserve them or not.

According to Houseful (2013, p.2) ‘Public relations is the management function that identifies, establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationship between an organisation and

the various publics on whom its success or failure depends' While Nwosu and Uffoh (2005, p.14) see public relations as the Art and Science of building and sustaining a credible reputation for an organisation'. Ajala (2001, p.14) in the same view, acknowledges public relations as: 'The totality of an organisation or individual performance aimed at earning public favourability which results in continued growth, mutually beneficial to the organisation and the society which it operates'. The above given definitions basically captured how public relations fosters the improvement of public relationship through strategic activities and policies. It then becomes evident that the whole essence of public relations activities as captured by the aforementioned scholars depicts the overall goals of every organisation.

That is why scholars believe that aggressive programmes of actions must seriously be adhered to for the goal of achieving positive corporate image to be a reality given the high competitive environment and market that organisations are faced with (Manns, 2018 and Moore, 2008 Dumais, 2017). It is to this that Manns (2018) and Mackiewicz in Moore (2008) confirm the vital asset of growing head and shoulders above competition and making strong corporate image in the present day of borderless competition with publics reacting to their experiences and perceptions.

No wonder Oliver (2008) observes that companies do spend much time and money to see that their corporate image including low and high profile are maintained. It then becomes obvious that organisations engage in strategic activities that will attract and retain their relevant publics' attention away from existing competitive environment where winning a client depends so much on the goodwill and good relationship, an

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

organisation is able to muster. (Wiki, 2017, Manns, 2018 and Moore, 2008).

However, the strategic programmes of actions are within the confines of corporate social responsibility (CSR) which also comprises CS. In the words of Le Jeune (2008, p.159) CSR “is the umbrella term for a positive relationship between an organisation ... and the societies or stakeholder communities in which it operates”. While CSR in the account of Taylor (2015) and Carrol and Buchholtz, (2003) is when businesses or organisations engage and participate in the economic, legal, ethical and discretionary practices / initiatives that benefits society. They include: production of quality and reasonable good pricing products, fair and ethical treatment of employees, giving donations to charities, bettering the physical environment and sponsoring local community programmes.

As acknowledged by different scholars and researchers, CS from the multitudes of CSR, is the one that can create the needed awareness and exposure an organisation needed to shoot to the peak of corporate success required. This is ascertained by Manns (2018) and Moore (2008). To Manns, (2018), sponsorship is one of the few that have the potential for huge reward among the many marketing strategies that a company can use to promote its products and services. While Moore (2008, p.142) posits that “For many brands, sponsorship can deliver high degrees of brand awareness and exposure more quickly than mere traditional marketing communications activities, such as advertising”.

However, several studies have acknowledged an increase in the organisations’ involvement in the activities of CS worldwide due to the undeniable significance. These studies

have shown that it is the developed world that has witnessed this increase in CS. The rapid growths recorded in the recent years have been attested to be faster than that of the overall corporate advertising in the late 1990s. Buttressing the above, Hartland in Encyclopedia (2015) states that the world sponsorship has climbed to \$26.2 billion in 2003. For Manns, (2018), sponsors have spent over \$60 billion worldwide from 2007 to 2017.

The paper therefore focuses on the need for CS on the organisational image of FBN Life.

Statement of the Problem

Given the competitive environment and the importance of corporate image to companies, the researcher wonders why such an insurance company as FBN Life is virtually not visible as it ought to, considering the visibility of some big names in the insurance businesses.

Moreso, given the fact that making a strong corporate image so much depends on winning a client's or customer's goodwill and for good relationship that come from publicity or creation of awareness that emanates from CS, the researcher therefore sees the need for FBN Life to strive and carve out a niche for itself by realizing the benefits of allocating part of its promotions budget to CS. Essentially, it is the low profile of FBN Life as compared to the high profile of some bigger insurance companies that informed the study.

Research Objectives

The main purpose of this study is to examine the need for CS on organisational image of FBN Life. Specifically, the study to determined the following:

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

1. To ascertain the level of CS involvement of FBN Life in CS programmes.
2. To establish the significance of CS on corporate image of FBN Life.
3. To ascertain the public's level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life.

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study.

1. What is the level of FBN Life involvement in CS programmes?
2. What are the significance of CS on the corporate image of FBN Life?
3. What is the public's level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life?

Significance of the Study

The study will give both government and non government institutions and social organisations a comprehensive understanding of the economic and social imperativeness of engaging in quality CSs.

Policy makers will understand the multifaceted nature and role of CS and the need to integrate it in national policies as a CSR law governing competition in the marketplace.

The study will serve as a research document to students and teachers and other researchers who may embark on similar study in future. It will add to the existing body of knowledge.

Operational Definitions of Terms

The followings are the definition of the key and related words that bothered on the topic of the study:

Central Business District (CBD):

This is the focal point of a city. It is the commercial, office, retail and cultural centre of a city and usually the centre for transportation networks

Corporate:

That which is related to a business, a corporation, a company or an organisation.

Corporate Identity:

A distinct way a company deliberately projects its identity or individual characteristics to its various publics through identity system elements. By implication, this is the way FBN Life projects its personality through the organisational name (FBN Life), the logo (a big picture of an elephant) and the colour (Blue coloured words) and many others, to various publics.

Corporate /Organisational Image:

This is how an organisation consciously projects itself to its various publics and how the different publics who are exposed to the (projected) image positively or negatively perceive the organisation in accordance to the projected image. By implication it is the mental picture of what FBN Life, its messages and activities stand for in the minds of various publics.

Corporate Sponsorship:

This is when an organisation provides a monetary or in-kind services to support a public-interest event, programme or

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

project which can be an entertainment programme, a festival, a sports event or a cause-related or educational programme, in order to elicit recognition and preference of the company's products, logos or image from wider publics. By implication, it is the financial support of events that FBN Life might be involved in, in creating awareness of its brand image. In the study it is shorten to CS.

First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company:

It is a limited liability company licensed to transact insurance business in Nigeria. In this study, it is shorten to FBN Life.

Identity System:

This is an enforcement of an organisation's identity. It is an organised and constant use of identity elements or tools like advertisement, interviews, signage, uniform, logos, news releases, telephone answering, use of colours, etc by organisation to enforce its corporate identity.

Image:

This is a mental picture or an idea of a person, a group or an organisation, created from the positive or negative publicities of the group or organisation and perceived by the publics.

Logos:

This is known as an organisation's seal or symbol that is represented by a graphic element and a word or words. By implication it is the elephant picture with the words: FBN Life that constitute the Insurance Company's logo.

Sponsorship (s):

This involves the financial assistance of different public-interest events rendered by an organisation to create a positive image.

Literature Review

The review focuses on conceptual clarifications of the topic of the study while it also examines empirical studies that are related to and as well borders on the topic. The conceptual clarifications are grouped into- CS and organisational image.

Conceptual Clarification:**Corporate Sponsorship:**

CS is a form of marketing in which an organisation pays for all or some of the costs associated with a project or a programme in exchange for recognition. (Gresham, 2018, Encyclopedia, 2015 and Kapoor, 2010). It also means the financial backing of a public – interest project or programme by an establishment, as a means of enhancing its corporate image (Business Dictionary, 2015)

In the sponsorship, organisations will display their logos and brand names alongside the organisation that is undertaking the programme or project while emphasizing the funding by the corporations. (Kapoor 2010)

CS indeed differ in nature and in size depending on the organisation and the size of their budget allotted to pay for, sponsor or support activities or programmes that will improve people's quality of life. They include among others: community projects, construction projects, children's activities, festivals, social and educational programmes,

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

scholarship programmes, performing arts programmes, sports sponsorship, broadcast sponsorship, urban, local or national project or programmes. (Taylor, 2015, Thornton, 2018, Carrol and Buchholtz, 2003, Moore, 2008 and Encyclopedia, 2015).

In portraying the benefits or importance of involvement and non-involvement of corporations in CS programmes Moore, (2008, p.142) pertinently portends,

Brands that omit to clearly demonstrate why they have a place in people's lives are likely to be rejected outright. To avoid filtering or rejection, brands should look to create positive experiences for their customers to make their brand stand out from the crowd. Sponsorship can do this.

Similarly Dumais (2017) acknowledges that involvement of organisation in social responsibility stands to benefit the organisation while non involvement is detrimental to the company.

Further demonstrating the benefits associated with CS, Mayer in Encyclopedia (2015) and Kapoor (2010) posit that an organisation can benefit in numerous dimensions from involving in sponsorship. Manns (2018) and Thornton (2018), in affirmation aver that CS promotes publicity and media coverage; increases brand awareness, increases the image and reputation of the sponsor company, reaches a wider demographic and enhances customer experience.

Corporate / Organisational Image

Organisational image according to Smith (2011) is a general and short term evaluation of an organisation's message.

While in the opinion of Kapoor,(2010), corporate image is said to be a mental picture that forms in a person's mind at a mere mention of an organisation's name. It is rather a public perception of a corporation than a reflection of its real position or state. However, the mental picture can change easily from positive to negative or to neutral and from person to person and from time to time depending on the prevailing condition of a company in terms of its performance, pronouncements, media coverage and so on (Kapoor 2010 and Business Dictionary 2015).

But to Boorstin in Turney (2000) an image is an artificial creation, deliberately constructed to make an impression. He avers that something can be done to an image to make it less or more successfully created, manipulated, repaired and improved upon. He further posits that some organisations like appearing in the public without any artifice while others project their images carefully and consciously.

By emphasis therefore, it is about the organisations receiving favourable response from their various publics as regards their portrayed images (Turney, 2000). By extension, an organisation that is approved or liked by the publics is said to have a good image and vice versa.

According to Smith (2011) every corporation has image, reputation, position identity and other related concepts attributes, which require lots of organisational resources to be created, managed, rebuilt and maintained.

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Empirical Review of Related Literatures

This aspect of the study reviewed empirical Literature that is related to this study.

Review of Global Report on CS of some Industries

Guinness' sponsorship of the Rugby World Cup is an example of an extremely successful sponsorship. Guinness paid £16 million in total for the sponsorship (including broadcast sponsorship and advertising). As a result, in the UK, sales of Guinness increased by 17% while Guinness Draught in cans saw a 16% increase.

Levis and Bacardi in the UK created brand experiences through music sponsorship and have witnessed resurgence amongst marketing – literate, image – conscious young people. The sponsorship was successful in doing this and as part of the integrated marketing campaign, led to a massive sales increase of Bacardi. Bacardi's sponsorship of music festivals created an experience which young people were able to relate to.

(Moore's Report, 2008, P. 147-148).

Review of CS of Events or Programmes by Sponsored Companies in Nigeria

Sponsor company	Forms of sponsorships or events sponsored	Geographic Coverage
MTN Nigeria	Entertainment Sponsorship – Nigerian Project Fame, Nigerian Idol, Who Wants to Be a Millionaire, Broadcast Sponsorship - Channels Business News	National
Globacom	Sports Sponsorship -	National

	Nigerian League now Globacom League. Entertainment Sponsorship – Music Concert (Dance with Peters) Nija Signs, Face of Edo	Local
First Bank of Nigeria Holdings Plc	Festival Sponsorship- Igue Festival and Calabar Carnival Broadcast Sponsorship – Channels News	Local National
Nigerian Bottling Company{NB C} – Cocacola	Festival Sponsorship – Igue Festival Entertainment Sponsorship – Face of Edo	Local
Airtel Nigeria	Entertainment Sponsorship – Nigeria Gots Talent	National
Reckit Benckiser Nigeria Limited – Dettol	Health Sponsorship – Health Talks and Awareness programmes	National
Promasidor Nigeria Limited – Cowbell, Chococowbell	Cause Related or Education Sponsorship- National Mathematics Competition	National

SOURCE: Researcher's Field Survey 2017

Another study on 'Limited Liability Companies' Involvement in, an Influential Factor to Sports Sponsorship in Rivers State' by Elendu and Harry (2017) found that few companies are involved in sponsoring athletes' development (2.42%), sports equipment (9.04%), sports facility (5.88%),

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

sports competition organisation (36.97%) and sports personnel development (0.84%).

Pappu and Cornwell (2014) in a research work on ‘CS as An Image Platform; Understanding the Roles of Relationship Fit and Sponsor – Sponsee Similarity’ found that the fit between a sponsoring brand and the event sponsored influences outcome such as brand awareness and image.

Another study by Mahammadian and Rahimipour (2012) investigated the effects of sponsorship on customers’ brand image of the sponsor company. Data generated revealed a highly attached fans that are more likely to develop positive image about the sponsor and also involvement.

Summarily, it is evident that existing studies, especially foreign ones have been able to establish the relationship that exist between importance of engaging in CS activities and the intent goals of organisation in expanding their market frontiers, but there is dearth of scholarly works from the Nigerian angle as none has been able to cover the area of involvement of insurance companies of banks in employing CS as effective tool of creating and building high corporate profile among wider publics. The study therefore becomes relevant to filling this gap.

Theoretical Framework

The work is anchored on the social exchange theory as propounded by Thibault and Kelly in 1952 in Anacto, Onabajo and Osifeso (2008, p.136). The theory has the following assumptions:

1. Every interaction involves an exchange-goods and service
2. People try to get from others as much as they have given to them.

The theory emphasis is on “the exchange of rewards and costs to quantify the value of outcomes from different situations for an individual” (Anacto et al; 2008, p.137). In commenting on the theory, Anaeto et al (2008 p. 137) posit that: “The viability of social exchange rests on the assumption that human beings recognize each other needs and in some ways are likely to engage in reciprocity-a condition in which a response is correlated to the worth of the original message “

The theory therefore depicts the whole essence of investing in a CS acts by organisation as a social exchange tool in providing the different needs of their publics that are reciprocated in an increased awareness, brand loyalty and corporate high profile.

Methodology

Research Design:

The study employed survey method of science inquiry. According to winner and Dominick (2000), it is an attempt to document correct conditions and attitudes. The choice was made based on the attributes of the research design that give room to varying views of people on issues.

Population of the Study:

The South-South Geo-Political Zone of Nigeria constituted the population. For this study, the South-South Geo-Political Zone

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

comprises the following States: Rivers, Edo, Delta, Akwa-Ibom, Bayelsa and Cross River.

The population figures (2006) of each State in the South-South Geo-Political Zone were obtained from the National Population Commission as follows:

Table 1

S/N	STATE	CAPITAL	POPULATION
1	EDO	BENIN	3, 218, 333
2	RIVERS	PORT-HARCOURT	5, 185, 400
3	DELTA	ASABA	4, 098, 391
4	AKWA-IBOM	UYO	3, 920, 208
5	CROSS RIVER	CALABAR	2, 888, 966
6	BAYELSA	YENOGUA	1, 703, 358
TOTAL			21, 014, 655

SOURCE: NATIONAL POPULATION COMMISSION, 2006

In order to obtain the present population of the study area, the National Population Commission projected figure of 3.2 was used to multiply the population figures of 2006 by the number of years which is eleven (11). The calculation is presented below:

- $$\frac{3.2 \times 3,218,333}{100}$$

$$= 102,986,656 \times 11$$

$$= 1,132,853.216 + 3,218,333$$

$$= 4,351,186.216$$
- $$\frac{3.2 \times 5,185,400}{100}$$

$$= 1,659,329 \times 11$$

$$= 1,825,260.8 + 5,185,400$$

$$= 7,010,660.8$$

$$3. \quad \frac{3.2 \times 4,098,391}{100}$$

$$100$$

$$= 131,148.512 \times 11$$

$$1,442,633.632 + 4,098,311$$

$$= 5,540,944.632$$

$$4. \quad \frac{3.2 \times 3,920,208}{100}$$

$$100$$

$$= 125,446.656 \times 11$$

$$= 1,379,913.216 + 3,920,208$$

$$= 5,300,121.216$$

$$5. \quad \frac{3.2 \times 2,888,966}{100}$$

$$100$$

$$92,446.912 \times 11$$

$$1,016,191.032 + 2,888,966$$

$$= 3,905,882.032$$

$$6. \quad \frac{3.2 \times 1,703,358}{100}$$

$$100$$

$$= 54,507,456 \times 11$$

$$= 599,582,016 + 1,703,358$$

$$= 2,302,940.016$$

To add up the individual population, the result is thus presented:

S/N	PROJECTED POPULATION FIGURE FOR 2017
1.	4,351,186.216
2.	7,010,660.8
3.	5,540,944.632
4.	5,300,121.216
5.	3,905,882.032
6.	2,302,940.016
	28,411,735

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Therefore, 28,411,735 becomes the total population of South-South Geo-Political Zone with the population figure of each state allotted as found below:

S/N	STATES IN THE ZONE	CAPITAL	PROJECTED POPULATION FIGURE FOR 2017
1.	EDO	BENIN	4,351, 186.216
2.	RIVERS	PORT-HARCOURT	7,010,660.8
3.	DELTA	ASABA	5, 540, 944. 632
4.	AKWA-IBOM	UYO	5, 300, 121. 216
5.	CROSS RIVER	CALABAR	3,905, 882.032
6.	BAYELSA	YANOGUA	2, 302, 940.016
TOTAL POPULATION			28,411,735

Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample size for this study was 385. It was calculated by the Australian Sample Size Calculator of the National Statistical Service (NSS). The calculation is presented below:

Determine Sample Size

Confidence Level: ☒ 95% ☐ 99%

Confidence Interval:

Population:

Sample size needed:

With the sample size determined, a multi-stage sampling technique was employed to achieve the objectives of the study. At the first stage, purposive sampling technique was used to choose the capitals of the six (6) states. The capitals were purposively chosen because the subjects possess the characteristics of interest of the study.

A proportionate simple sampling technique was used to select the number of the persons that possessed the psychographic and demographic characteristics (of interest) of the study. This was done using the following formula: The number of the projected population in each state divided by the total population in the Zone and multiplied by the sample size of the population. Below is the calculation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Edo (Benin)} &= \frac{4,351,186.216 \times 385}{28,411,735} \\
 &= 59 \text{ Respondents} \\
 \\
 \text{Rivers (Port – Harcourt)} &= \frac{7,010,660.8 \times 385}{28,411,735} \\
 &= 95 \text{ Respondents} \\
 \\
 \text{Delta (Asaba)} &= \frac{5,540,944.632 \times 385}{28,411,735} \\
 &= 75 \text{ Respondents} \\
 \text{Akwa – Ibom - (Uyo)} &= \frac{5,300,121.216 \times 385}{28,411,735} \\
 &= 72 \text{ Respondents} \\
 \text{Cross –River (Calabar)} &= \frac{3,905,882.032 \times 385}{28,411,735} \\
 &= 53 \text{ Respondents}
 \end{aligned}$$

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Bayelsa (Yenogua)} &= \frac{2,302,940.016 \times 385}{28,411,735} \\ &= 31 \text{ Respondents}\end{aligned}$$

While at the third stage, a simple random sampling technique was used to select one street each, from the Central Business District (CBD) of the state capitals (Gbakeji, 2014). The choice of these streets was because they possess the characteristics of interest of the study.

Systematic sampling technique with an interval of 5 was used at the fourth stage to select the houses/buildings where the copies of questionnaire were administered. While simple random sampling technique was used at the fifth stage to select the respondents who met the psychographic and demographic requirements of the study. By this, the researcher meant the respondents were all high ranked working class/business people (male and female), who are married and responsible, enlightened, well-to-do and above all, exposed to the mass media.

Instrument of Data Collection

The instrument for data collection was a questionnaire and interview. The copies of the questionnaire consisted of two sections: Section A and B. Section A consisted of items to obtain personal data from the respondents. Such information include: age, marital status, occupation and educational qualifications. While section B consisted of three clusters of 21 items. The three clusters used three-point scale of “Agreed”, “Disagreed” and “Undecided”. The respondents were to tick the accurate options as applicable to them in the sampled population.

Validation and Reliability of the Instrument

The instrument was validated by three experts from Mass Communication Department, Benson Idahosa University. Cronbach's Alpha using SPSS version 20 was employed to get the following figures: Cluster A = 0.74, Cluster B = 0.71, Cluster C = 0.59. The overall internal reliability coefficient = 0.82. Cronbach Alpha formula is

$$\alpha = \frac{N \cdot \bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N - 1) \cdot \bar{c}}$$

N is equal to the number of items, c-bar is the average inter-item covariance among the items and v-bar equals the average variance.

Method of Data Collection

The researcher administered the copies of the questionnaire personally and with the help of four (4) research assistants. The researcher personally conducted and supervised Benin City and Asaba on one on one basis but forwarded copies of the questionnaire to Port-Harcourt, Uyo, Calabar and Yenegua, where educated and mature research assistants were used to administer the copies of the questionnaire. They were informed on the purpose of the study and on what to do. The research assistants were used because of the sheer impracticability of the researcher to administer the instrument alone. At the end of the exercise, copies of the questionnaire administered by the researcher were completely returned while copies sent to the remaining four states capital had 93% rate of return. In all, a total of 359 out of 385 copies of the instrument were returned.

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Data Presentation And Analysis

Research Question 1: What is the level of FBN Life involvement in CS programme(s)?

Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to the level of involvement of FBN Life in CS programmes.

Cluster A	What is the level of FBN Life involvement in CS programme(s)?					
S/N	Items	AGREED	DISAGREED	UNDECIDED	FQ Y	%
1.	FBN Life has sponsored a sports programme.	2 (1%)	350 (97%)	7 (2%)	359	100
2.	FBN Life has sponsored an entertainment programme(s).	3(1%)	348 (97%)	8 (2%)	359	100
3	FBN Life has sponsored a cause-related or educational programme(s)	0(0%)	346(97%)	11(3%)	359	100
4.	FBN Life has sponsored a festival	9(3%)	345(96%)	5(1%)	359	100
5.	FBN Life has sponsored a broadcasting programme(s)	11(3%)	342(95%)	6(2%)	359	100
6.	FBN Life has sponsored a sports activity to a greater extent	2(1%)	338(94%)	19(5%)	359	100
7.	FBN Life has sponsored an entertainment	0(0%)	348(97%)	11(3%)	359	100

	programme(s) to a greater extent.					
8.	FBN Life has sponsored an educational programme(s) to a greater extent	0(0%)	333(93%)	26(7%)	359	100
9.	FBN Life has sponsored a local or national programme(s) to a greater extent	7(2%)	327(91%)	25(7%)	359	100
10.	FBN Life has sponsored a broadcasting programme(s) to a greater extent	11(3%) S	342(95%)	6(2%)	359	100

The above table 1, item 1 indicates that of the 359 respondents, 2 (1%) agreed that FBN Life has sponsored sports programme; 350 (97%) disagreed while 7 (2%) were undecided.

Item 2 of table 1 shows that 3 (1%) respondents out of 359 agreed that FBN Life has sponsored an entertainment programme, 348 (97%) disagreed while 8 (2%) were undecided.

Item 3 of table 1, indicates that none of the respondents answered in the affirmative that FBN Life has sponsored an educational programme, while 346 (98%) disagreed and 13 (4%) were undecided.

Item 4 of table 1, shows that 9 (3%) respondents agreed that FBN Life has sponsored a local or national festival, 345 (96%) disagreed and 5 (1%) undecided.

Item 5 of table 1, shows that 11(3%) respondents agreed that FBN Life has sponsored a broadcast programme, 342 (95%) disagreed while 6 (2%) were undecided.

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Item 6 of table 1, indicates that 2 (1%) respondents agreed that FBN Life has sponsored a sport programme to a greater extent, 338 (94%) disagreed while 19 (5%) were undecided.

Item 7 of table 1, shows 348 (97%) respondents disagreed that FBN Life sponsored an entertainment programme to a greater extent, 11 (3%) were undecided while none agreed.

Item 8 of table 1, shows that 333 (93%) respondents disagreed that FBN Life has sponsored an educational project to a greater extent, 26 (7%) were undecided while none agreed.

Item 9 of table 1, shows that 7 (2%) respondents agreed that FBN Life has sponsored a local/national festival to a greater extent, 327 (91%) disagreed while 25 (7%) were undecided.

Item 10 of table 1, indicates that 342 (95%) respondents disagreed that FBN Life has sponsored a broadcast programme to a greater extent, 11 (3%) agreed while 6 (2%) were undecided.

Research question 2: What is the significance of CS on corporate image of FBN Life?

Table2: Distribution of respondents according to the significance of CS on corporate image of FBN Life.

Cluster B	What are the significance of CS on corporate image of FBN Life?					
	S/N	Items	AGREED	DISAGREED	UNDECIDED	FQY
	11	Sponsoring a public interest project by FBN Life helps to increase the	315(88%)	3(1%)	41(11%)	359
						100

	reputation and image of the company.					
12	Sponsoring a public interest programme(s) by FBN Life helps to market and increase the products and services of the company	332(92%)	3(1%)	24(7%)	359	100
13	Sponsoring a public interest programme(s) FBN Life helps to increase publicity and media coverage of the company.	295(82%)	5(1%)	59(17%)	359	100
14	Sponsoring a public interest event helps to increase the visibility of the company.	327(91%)	0(%)	32(9%)	359	100
15	Sponsoring a public interest project by FBN Life helps to produce a close relationship of the company with its publics.	357(99%)	0(0%)	2(1%)	359	100
16	Sponsoring a public interest	312(87%)	4(1%)	43(12%)	359	100

	event by FBN Life helps to increase the loyalty of the organisation's publics.					
17	Sponsoring a public interest event by FBN Life helps to win new customers.	302(84%)	0(0%)	57(16%)	359	100
18	Sponsoring a public interest project by FBN Life produces a generational effect.	308(86%)	0(0%)	51(14%)	359	100
19	Sponsoring a public interest project by FBN Life helps to compete much favourably against bigger organisations with bigger advertising money.	303(84%)	0(0%)	56(16%)	359	100

In the above table 2, item 11 shows that 315 (88%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring an event will increase its image and reputation, 3 (1%) disagreed while 41 (11%) were undecided.

Item 12 in table 2 indicates 332 (92%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring an event will increase the marketing of

its products and services, 3 (1%) disagreed while 24 (7%) were undecided.

Item 13 in table 2, show that 295(82%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring a project will increase its publicity and media coverage, 5 (1%) disagreed and 59 (17%) were undecided.

Item 14 in table 2, shows 327 (91%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring a project will increase its visibility, 32 (9%) were undecided while none disagreed.

Item 15 in table 2, indicates that 357 (99%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring an event will produce a close tie with its publics, none disagreed while 2 (1%) were undecided.

Item 16 in table 2, shows that 312 (87%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring a project will increase the loyalty of its publics, 4 (1%) disagreed while 43 (12%) were undecided.

Item 17 in table 2, 302 (84%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring an event will win new customers, 57 (16%) were undecided while none disagreed.

Item 18 in table 2, shows that 308 (86%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring a project will produce a generational effect on a wider publics, 51 (14%) were undecided while none disagreed.

Item 19 in table 2, indicates that 303 (84%) respondents agreed that FBN Life sponsoring an event will compete much favourably against bigger organizations with bigger advertising money, 56 (16%) were undecided while none disagreed

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Research question3: What is the publics' level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life?

Table 3: Distribution of Respondents According to the publics' level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life.

Cluster C	What is the publics level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life?					
S/N	Items	AGREED	DISAGREED	UNDECIDED	FQY	%
20	I know FBN Life so much that it is an insurance company and the products it offers and I prefer it to other insurance companies.	3(1%)	304(85%)	52(14%)	359	100
21	I have seen or /and heard so much about FBN Life's sponsorship(s) especially in the media, people or other sources and that I can recognize its identity system displayed in its sponsorship(s).	38(11%)	312(87%)	9(2%)	359	100

In the above table 3, item 20 indicates that, only 3 (1%) respondents agreed that they know so much of FBN and its products and prefer it to other companies, 304 (85%) did not agree while 52 (14%) were undecided.

Item 21 in table 3 shows that 312 (87%) respondents disagreed that they have seen or / and heard so much about FBN Life that

they can recognize its identity system displayed in its sponsorship(s), 38 (11%) agreed while 9 (2%) were undecided.

An interview was also conducted with the Retail Sales Manager of FBN Life Benin City, Mr. Stanley Agonor on the activities of FBN Life.

On the issue of having a PR unit and allotted Budget for awareness creation, the manager answered in the affirmative while stating various activities the company does to make its products to different publics. According to him, apart from using individual marketers that go from one institution to another, the company equally operates 'Bacassurance' which in the words of the manager is 'selling of insurance product using the banking platform'. In the same vain, the company uses its marketers to distribute souvenirs to its customers during Christmas period while yearly retreat is also organized to give awards to deserving members of staff among other ways to create awareness.

On the issue of the programmes of action FBN Life is involved in, to ensure wider publics awareness of the corporate image of the company, the manager made mention of yearly donation of Dialysis equipment by FBN life to some hospitals in Lagos and Abuja. But on narrowing on the South-South Zone of Nigeria, the manager said that the company is coming up and is gradually shouldering its CSR activities which in his words: 'the company has succeeded in sinking borehole in Asaba, Delta State and building a block of classroom in Abraka' with emphasis on Benin as the centre of operation in South-South and has been given awards for excellence in the area of operation.

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Discussion of Findings

Research Questionnaire One: What is the level of FBN Life involvement in CS programmes?

The findings showed that majority of the respondents 350 (97%), 348 (97%), 346 (96%), 345 (96%), 342 (95%), and 338 (94%), 348 (97%), 333 (93%), 327 (91%), 342 (95%) who were not in the affirmative that FBN Life has sponsored any public -interest event or have done any to any extent showed a virtual non-involvement of FBN Life in giving its financial backings to create an indelible impression and experiences in people's lives. The result by implication ascertains lack of visibility of the company among publics that lack awareness not created by involvement of FBN Life in CS activities.

Research Question Two: What are the significance of CS on corporate image of FBN Life?

The results of the study showed that most of the respondents constituting 315 (88%), 332 (92%), 295 (82%), 327 (91%), 357 (99%), 312 (87%), 302 (84%), 308 (86%) and 303 (87%) answered in the affirmative that sponsoring a public interest event by FBN Life will ensure its unquantifiable benefits associated with CS involvement. By implication, the result establishes CS as a strategic and result oriented PR tool targeted at amassing innumerable benefits for an organisation among which is to cause the corporate identity of the sponsored company to stand out among competitors, non sponsor companies and before wider publics.

Research Question Three: What is the publics level of awareness of the existence of FBN Life?

The majority of the respondents comprising 304 (85%) and 312 (87%) who answered in the negative confirmed not

having an in-depth knowledge of FBN Life as an insurance company, the products it offers and not able to associate the company with any CS programme either from the mass media, people or from any source let alone knowing the company's identity system elements like company's name, logo, uniform, use of colour, etc. The result by implication ascertained lack of recognition and preference of the corporate identity of FBN Life by the publics due to the absence of publicity and media coverage that comes from involvement of a corporation in CS events.

Summary of Findings

The findings ascertained the a virtual non-involvement of FBN Life to sponsoring any public interest project / event like broadcast, sports, entertainment, educational or festival, etc

The findings established the significance of FBN Life in involving in a CS event to creating, building and sustaining awareness and strong corporate profile among wider publics.

The findings finally ascertained poor level of the publics awareness of the existence of FBN Life consequent on lack of projection of the company's identity and identity system elements through non involvement in CS.

Conclusion

The study examined the need for corporate sponsorship on organisational image of FBN Life. It was concluded that FBN Life is virtually not involved in sponsoring any public-interest event / projects and this cannot be divorced from its consequent low profile among the publics.

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study it was recommended that:

1. FBN Life should carve out a niche for itself to establish its corporate identity among the publics by employing a strategic and result-oriented PR tool as CS.
2. Due to the innumerable benefits a sponsored company stands to gain from involvement in CS activities, devoting part of its budget to sponsor a public-interest project / event will create, build and sustain strong corporate profile for FBN Life.
3. FBN Life involvement in CS activities alongside constant and prominent display of the company's identity system tools will leave a good impression and experience with wider publics and in turn engender and reinforce publics goodwill and loyalty.
4. Finally FBN Life should employ CS as a better tool to stand out among bigger insurance companies with bigger budgets.

References

- Anaeto, G. Onabanjo. E & Osfeso (2008) *Models and theories of communication*. USA: African Renatssance Books Incorporated.
- Ajala, V.O, (2001). Public relations in search of professional excellence (2nded) Ibadan: Print Marks Ventures.
- Business Dictionary.Retrieved form www.business-on September 3, 2017.

- Carroll, A.B., and Buchholtz (2003) *Business and society, ethics and stakeholder management*, 5th ed. Australia: Thomson South – Western.
- Center, A, Jackson, P. Smith, S. and Stanberry, F.R. (2008) *Public relations practices: managerial case studies and problems* (7thed) New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall
- Curras, P.R. (2009). Effects of perceived identity based on corporate social responsibility: the role of consumer identification with the company. *A corporate reputation review*. Retrieved on September 3, 2017.
- Dumais, F (2017). 3 trends for cause sponsorships in 2017. Retrieved from https://en.eleventh.co//blogs//sposorship/3_trends_on_May_14, 2018
- Elendu, I. C. and Harry, D. H. (2017) Limited liability companies' involvement in, and influential factors to sports sponsorship in Rivers State Nigeria. *International journal of physical education, sports and health*. 4. (5) Pp. 96-103.
- Encyclopedia Dictionary (2005) Retrieved from [www..inc.com/encyclop](http://www.inc.com/encyclop) on 3rd September, 2017
- Gbakeji, J. O. (2014). Analysis of residential satisfaction in some residential neighbourhood in the Benin metropolis. *Journal of civil & environmental research*. Pp. 54-69

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Gresham, T. (2018).Whats CS. Retrieved on from <https://smalebusiness.chron.com.corper> on May 19, 2018.

Hartland, Trevor and Ksinner, H. (2005). What is being done to deter ambush marketing? Are these attempts working? *InternationalJournal of marketing and sponsorship*. Retrieved on September 3, 2017.

Houseful, (2012). Different tools of public relations. Retrieved from: [http://sliz/esharenot/Houseful_1234.on August 27](http://sliz/esharenot/Houseful_1234.on_August_27), 2017.

Kapoor, D. (2010), Cooperate image, reputation and identity. Retrieved on September 3, 2017.

Lejeune M. (2005). Communication corporate responsibility in Gregory A. (ed) public relations in practice. United Kingdom: Kogan Page Limited.

Manns, L. (2018). Four key benefits of sponsorship for your small businesses.Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com> on May 19, 2017.

McQuail, D. (2015). Mass communication theory (6thed.). London: Sage Publication

Michael, T. (2000). *Image in public relations*.Retrieved from www.nku.edu/-turney/prclass/.../image,on August 27, 2017.

Mohammadian, M. and Rahimipour V (2012) Influential factors in customers brand image of the sponsor. *International business and management* 5(1)

Moore, R. (2008). *Sponsorship in public relations* in Gregory, A. (ed) *Public Relations in practice*. United Kingdom: Kogan Page Limited

National Statistical Service (2016). Sample size calculator. Retrieved from www.nss.gov.au/home.nsf/pages/sample+size+calculator.

Nwosu, I.E. and Uffoh, U.C. (2005). *Environmental public relations management, principles, strategies, issues and cases*, Enugu: Institute for Development Studies.

Oliver, S. (2008), *Public relations strategy* (2nded) United Kingdom Kogan Page Limited.

Pappu, R and Cornwell, T.B (2014) CS as an image platform: understanding the roles of relationship fit and sponsor-sponsee similarity. *Journal of the academy of marketing science* Retrieved on September 3, 2017.

Paul, M. Hale, M.M., Sims. J. and Wigley, S. (2008) *The influence of corporate social-responsibility campaigns on public opinions*. Corporate reputation review. (2) Pp. 145-154

Smith, R. (2011) *Strategic planning for public relations and becoming a public relationswriter*. Retrieved from faculty.buffa.lopstate.edu/.../PR/reputation..on September 3, 2017.

Taylor, N. F., (2017) *Corporate Social Responsibility; definitions and examples*. Retrieved from www.businessdaily.com/4679 on August 27, 2017.

Bibian Ngozi Okeibunor: The Need for corporate sponsorship on organizational Image of First Bank of Nigeria Life Assurance Company in South – South Nigeria.

Thorton, J. (2018). Tips for attracting event sponsorship: part.
Retrieved [planyourmeetings.com tips-for-attracting-event-sponsorship.on](https://planyourmeetings.com/tips-for-attracting-event-sponsorship/) May 19, 2018

Transformation of the Media, Trust and Public Sphere

KINGSLEY AGHOGHO EDAFIENENE* AND

IGNATIUS ACHILIKE NJOKU**

Abstract

The Transformation of the media, trust and public sphere has transcended three epoch; pre industrialism, early industrialism and late industrialism. This transformation erupted as a result of the contemporary trend in communication that revolutionised the public sphere from passive-to-active-to-interactive audience and citizen journalist. From early to late industrialism issues of trust and credibility has been raised especially the role of trust in people's reactions to media publicity of events in the society. Trust in media study is recognised as an underpinning influence of public perceptions and reactions to communication and information. However, in the last two decades trust for media has constantly been declining due to commercialisation, media ownership and brown envelop syndrome. The emergence of new media technology resuscitated and heralded a new way of alliance and association of the public sphere void of traditional media systems which are shaped by-yet also shape-the development of this new medium of communication. This paradigm shift in communication gave rise to online journalism and multifarious platforms of alternative media sites shared and controlled by new media technology and the audience, presenting a forum for both professionals and amateur news item to be showcased alongside each other. Habermas argument that the public sphere declined is inconclusive because more than ever, the

public sphere has become a voice in the globe that surpasses many media institutions in terms of reach to a global audience empowered by new media technology.

Key Words: Transformation, Media, Trust, Public Sphere

Introduction

Habermas rendition of the bourgeois public sphere was instrumental to how citizens of the states communicated on crucial issues relating to issues of importance to public welfare (1962). His idea of public sphere was drawn from activities of citizens in Britain, France and Germany which gained wide acceptance in the '17th century, to its peak in the 18th century, and through to its subsequent decline in the late 19th and 20th centuries' (Bakir and Barlow, 2007, p. 18). The concept of the ideal public sphere of Hebermas were institutions of social, cultural and political public sphere that He coined into salons, coffee houses and press that work to advance a democratic state (Habermas, 1962; Butsch, 2007). These institutions varied in sizes, types and styles and were independent of the state nor controlled by the private sector, and their topic of discussion were not controlled but free. Issues of inequality, private interest, political dominance and control were absent in order to actively engage citizens in debate on questions of state policy and action. These institutions generated a resuscitated public sphere by acting as a voice to the voiceless thereby enabling individuals to participate on issues of relevance pertaining to the state (Habermas, 1962; Stevenson, 2002 cited in Bakir and Barlow, 2007).

*Dr Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

**Ignatius Achilike Njoku is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

JCDMR Journal Of Communication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria

The transformation of the public sphere from pre-industrialism to early industrialism and late industrialism is concerned with issues of how and what extent the mass media have enabled citizens to relate and learn about their environment, organise gathering for public debate, thereby facilitating the formation of public opinion to monitor the state and enable citizens to be adequately informed of political matters and issues of personal interest as it relates to the state (Habermas, 1962; Dahlgren and Sparks, 1991). The notion of public sphere is centred on the relationships that exist between the media, state, the public and business institutions (Bakir and Barlow, 2007). Through the 20th century, the activity of the mass media in enabling active public sphere spawned debates from academic and public institutions. These debates continued from early industrialism to late industrialism that the mass media shifted from public sphere to business centre that threatened to destabilise the existence of the public sphere and democratic process (Calhoun, 1992; Butsch, 2007). The hegemonic backing of these debates cuts across modern notion of the media and public sphere heralded by Habermas whose concept has spawned wide spread debate (Dahlgren and Sparks, 1991; Calhoun, 1992). However, critics and advocates alike agree that Habermas rendition of the public sphere in any contemporary communication still retains its relevance, specifically regarding media's role in democratic society (Bakir and Barlow, 2007; Dahlgren and Sparks, 1991). Thus, the underlying concept of reinforcing Habermas public sphere to communication - which aims to bring about trust through knowledge transfer and reciprocal understanding – 'can be contrasted with that of its polar opposite, strategic action and instrumental rationality, where communication is goal-oriented and manipulative' (Bakir and Barlow, 2007, p. 18).

The activity of the mass media from early to late industrialism is the drive for profit, which connects the media to consumers rather than enabling active individuals in the public sphere (Butsch, 2007). As the media became commercialised it gave little access to citizens for active engagement and discourse on issues concerning the state (Garnham, 1992; 1995; Bakir and Barlow, 2007). The media in connection to commercialisation reduced citizens to passive audience rather than active, in that, political leaders and the elite in the society dominated and controlled the flow of information and public opinion used for surrogate debate for citizens to make decision and vote (Butsch, 2007). Habermas described this process as re-feudalisation of the public sphere (representative publicity) because the indispensable institutions of the public sphere is controlled by the government and commercial organisations (Habermas, 1962; Dahlgren and Sparks, 1991; Calhoun, 1992; Bakir and Barlow, 2007). Consequently, ‘the sheer scale of modern media corporations overwhelms the relatively minute institutions of the public sphere, as a skyscraper overshadows a small public park’ (Butsch, 2007, p. 8). Habermas insight on the decline of public sphere from the mid-19th century onwards was as a result of the development of popular press and the active commercialisation of media institutions, which ended active citizenship as it no longer gave citizens opportunity to participate in rational debate (Habermas, 1962; Calhoun, 1992; Bakir and Barlow, 2007). The process of keeping the public sphere resuscitated is far from ideal due to the multifarious nature of contemporary societies and the inevitable role of media drive for profit (Herman and Chomsky, 1988). To understand why the public sphere is not working, ‘we would do well to pay closer attention to the myriad trust relationships

sustained between the public, media and political and economic power-holders' (Bakir and Barlow, 2007, p. 20).

Media, Trust and Public Sphere

From early to late industrialism issues of trust and credibility have been raised especially the role of trust in people's reactions to media publicity of events in the society (Pidgeon, Simmons and Henwood, 2006). The contemporary sub-field of media activities show this pernicious defence against reflexivity (Beck, 1992, p. 4), which Habermas and Nairn argued, that the public sphere has been taken over by ceremony rather than open democratic decision making procedures (in Bakir and Barlow, 2007). However, in the last two decades confidence and trust in government agencies, expert knowledge and other communication agencies - 'media', have declined (Covello, McCallum, and Pavlova, 1989). Several research conducted revealed that public trust in media has constantly been declining (Zinn and Taylor-Gooby, 2006; Covello, McCallum, and Pavlova, 1989; Bakir and Barlow, 2007, Worcester, 2003). For polls on trust see, Trust in Media Poll conducted by BBC, Reuters, and Media Centre (2006) and most trusted profession in MORI polls (2007). According to Petts, Horlick-Jones, and Murdock (2001), trust is recognised as an underpinning influence of public perceptions and reactions to communication and information. Giddens (1990; 1994a; 1994b) asserted that abstract systems depend upon trust; hence, active trust must be won and maintained. Media credibility and trust is linked to the proof of being cost-effective and accessible to public demand, fairness and flexibility are major factors of openness. Furthermore, public participation may be constituted as a means to exhibit the concurrence of political authority and to avoid the sway of

hidden agenda (Kasperson and Stallen, 1991). According, to Hauser and Berne (2002, p. 264), trust emanates from public participation as individuals engage in secondary associations that make up the civil society, and act as a vehicle to forward the ‘will of the people past its status as doxa’. Kasperson and Stallen, (1991) noted that such program should initiate accurate information and engage in an organised effort to get feedback and establish a two way communication process.

The discourse on trust needs history as a reliable background as expectations are formed based on past record, these expectations can be used to guide the audience actions (Hauser and Benoit-Barne, 2002). To achieve this, the atmosphere must be conducive for audience to express their views with the media outfit and share their experiences and beliefs. In addition, for audience to feel compelled to the debate and identify with the media, the media must and should express compassion and understanding, openness and honesty towards the audience and avoid negative criticism of likely opponents or advertising gimmicks (Kasperson and Stallen, 1991). Trust relationship is based on the ‘phenomenon of social reciprocity’. These quotidian exchange aids the audience capacity to assess media coverage and develop anticipation about others that can guide their actions and contribute to the civil society in which trust becomes part of the public (Hauser and Benoit-Barne, 2002, p. 270). To understand why the public sphere is not working, ‘we would do well to pay closer attention to the myriad trust relationships sustained between publics, the media and political and economic power-holders’ (Bakir and Barlow, 2007, p. 20).

Nigerian Public Sphere, Trust and the Media

From Nigeria perspective, there are three distinct arenas of trust and media operations that determine public perception of trust for the media. These areas include but not limited to press freedom, commercialisation of news and brown envelop syndrome.

Media ownership and control is also a contributory factor for lack of trust for the media. To grasp a better understanding of how the media operate to enable a resuscitated public sphere, it is imperative to look at press freedom. The assessment and evaluation of media structure and degree of press freedom in any given society depends on different factors, such as the type of media ownership that exist, political system, the economy, the judiciary, control tactics, media pluralism and democratisation. Trust for media in any given nation is founded on media structure which comprise of private and government media ownership. The public sphere perception of government owned media is that the media is used as propaganda machine to promote the ruling party's agenda and the private media is a mega phone machine for the proprietors and drive for profit. Thus, this has affected the degree of press freedom to sustain a resuscitated public sphere. In countries where press is free and can actively engage the public on salient issues in the society, the media will gain a certain level of trust. For example, in Nigeria the press is free only when it does not confront top government officials. Scholarly articles reveal that Nigerian press fared better in democratic regime than they did during military regime (Agbese, 2006). In Nigeria the media has always fared significantly better although not entirely free under democratic government. The introduction of the freedom of information bill to a great extent

has liberated and given Nigerian citizens, including media, a right of access to public information (IREX, 2007). However, the introduction of the information bill, on the one hand, has created a platform to resuscitate public sphere as citizens can gain access to public information through dialogue, debate and discussion, thereby generating trust between the government, media and citizens. On the other, it will give media institutions liberty to report information without restriction or fear of being harmed (Ashong and Udoudo 2008; Olusola, 2008).

News commercialisation heralded a new way the public sphere began to perceive media activities, as real time news events in the society concerning the public and its sphere were no longer considered by the media but rather media drive for profit as news became a commercial product. Omenugha and Oji (2017) noted that news commercialisation is now a global concern as scholars in the field of communication studies recognise that the basic necessity for objectivity, fairness, accuracy and balance is poorly constructed as journalist and media agencies struggle to assign credibility to their news story. Pertinent developments of real news items are pushed aside for unimportant events and trivial news item. This assertion was supported by UNESCO because the Nigerian media scene now favours those who can pay for news items to promote their agenda. News has shifted from reporting timely occurrence and events to packaging and promoting news items sponsored by interest groups.

The overarching burdening discourse of news commercialisation is overtly the case of news media disseminating sponsored information to the audience as social and public news story (Nwodu, 2015). Primary definition of

news commercialisation predicts that the economically and politically powerful are in the best position to define the way things really are, because of their high status position in the society. Thus, their opinions on controversial issues are accepted than members of lower groups because they have access to more accurate information on specific topics due to their knowledge of truth. However, the powerful have easy access to, and are sought out by journalist; while the less powerful are difficult to reach by journalists and are not sought out until their activities produce moral panic and social disorder, which journalists may deem fit for news. Moreover, based on the hierarchy of credibility, the opinions and ideas of established organisations such as the police, the judiciary, the mainstream political parties, the government, and other highly placed government and private institutions are given primacy, while opinions of the lesser group in the society are ostracized to a minor role (Becker, 1967 in Allan, 1999; Gans, 1979; Tuchman, 1978). However, this happens, when journalists are faced with pressure to meet deadlines, which is constant in broadcasting. The pressure to write to deadlines demands “professional requirement of objectivity, which push journalist towards the time saving information subsidies of elites and their well-resourced public relations departments” (Franklin, 2005, P. 197). Thus, news commercialisation has eroded objectivity, fairness and balance in reportage as news is sold as a commodity and disseminated to the public sphere with the impression that information presented is socially responsible (Nwodu, 2015). ‘News commercialisation practice in Nigeria media industries adds to this contradiction and deception, creating a continuous dilemma for the ethics and objectivity in journalism practice in Nigeria’ (Omenugha and Oji, 2017).

Brown envelop syndrome has deeply affected trust for media by the public sphere. This practice has reduced media credibility and weakened journalism practice in Nigeria. This has killed real time news and promoted bribery and corruption in the Nigerian media setting. In late industrialism, journalist are heavily viewed with suspicion by the public sphere in that the public rights to have first-hand information on salient issues in the society have been robbed. Here issues of credibility are raised by the Nigerian publics towards the media as trust for journalist is questioned, contested and re-defined. The agony of such practice has deprived the public sphere the right to be heard, share authentic information and public interest oriented news (Nwodu, 2017). The argument surrounding brown envelop syndrome is based on the premise of low salaries of journalist which is a major issue of discussion in the society (BBC, 2015). Commentators have argued that the code of ethics in most African countries work against journalistic practice. Issues of brown envelope syndrome has become synonymous with African journalism. African countries like Cameroon and in Anglophone West Africa are affected by this practice (Daily nation, 2015). The prevalent discourse of brown envelop syndrome has become common place in the arena of professionals and lay people which has further strengthened mistrust for media in Nigeria.

Media Technology and Public Sphere

The introduction of new media technology has resuscitated and heralded a new way of alliance and association of the public sphere void of traditional media systems which are shaped by- yet also shape- the development of this new medium of communication (McQuail, 2002, p. 147). This new pattern of

public sphere association and social interaction are rapidly becoming reflexive and open-ended. Thus, new media technology has the ability for reciprocal and non-reciprocal communication, this contemporary trend of communication has challenged the internet community and public sphere to create avenues for reciprocal collaboration in order to display their integrity, maintain and construct trust in “social relationships in which knowledge is increasingly uncertain” (Slevin, 2000, p. 90). This paradigm shift from traditional media to new media technology has made the world to shrink generating new interest in McLuhan’s concept of global village (Alese, and Owoyemi, 2004). The operations of new media technologies have decreased traditional media ideology due to its coverage which has far surpassed national boundaries and has created new world ideological alliance connecting, constructing, shaping and re-shaping the way we now live and view the globe (Barlow, Mitchell, and O’Malley, 2005).

The emergence of modern technology has signalled the creation of vast opportunities of reaching international audience. This new media technology has metamorphosed into different platforms where public sphere is generated at diverse levels and discussions are carried out on salient issues in the world. This has, however, disconnected the confinement of the public sphere from the wimps and caprices of the traditional media and connected the public sphere to clusters of platforms like social media, websites and blogs where information is limitless and unbiased (Ekharefo, and Uchenunu, 2014).

The content and flow of information with new media technology cannot be easily controlled as access is not monopolized. This new paradigm shift in communication has

eroded top-to-down communication flow. Thus, this has made it difficult to distinguish dominant or bias flow of information, as the degree of freedom available to the new media technology cannot be monitored. Although, its prevalence outpaces regulation, but there are meaningful move to tame it within the scope of law, regulation and social control of corporate media institutions. At present, it is difficult to say that the new media is owned and used in the interest of the powerful, even though there are class-related inequalities in access and use. The conceptual field of integration and identity from the perspective of the new media are faced with issues of whether they are a force of adhesion or mutilation in the society. It is impossible to distinguish or quantify the imperious content of the new media. However, it is difficult to formulate hypotheses about the direction of effect because of its diversity and lack of audience as in the old media sense (McQuail, 2000, p. 125). The concepts of new and old media are diversified in different forms and usage. While the tradition media are concerned with nation state bound with defining identity and continuity in geographical term, the new media is free from geographical constraint on information dissemination and has created pathways for identification and network construction. Questions emanating from preceding social relationship and identities are no longer limited (McQuail, 2000).

New technology has created avenues for new initiatives and discourse between the public sphere, government and private sectors. That is, the delineation of increased globalisation, decentred authority and aggrandize reflexivity continue to intertwine with contemporary organisations and with individual life. However, on an unprecedented degree, the

internet has heralded the emergence of robust and new platforms for individuals and institutions to cope with the consequences of increasing globalisation, where information dissemination is prevalent across time and space. This modern trend of communication has created an avenue for the public sphere, media and institutions to display integrity, maintain and construct trust for each other (Slevin, 2000). The internet has enabled free discourse between individuals and institution across extended time and space; it has also fostered a new sense of solidarity, cooperation, dialogue and deliberation. Which has made both government, commercial and private institutions declare their intentions to use the internet technology as a vehicle to revive their external and internal communication towards members of the public (Slevin, 2000). However, new technologies have emerged as a key tool for development, which have revolutionary impact of how we see the world and how we live (Mac-Ikemenjima, 2005, p. 1).

New media is an agent of change itself, transforming social and cultural knowledge, and remains central. Thus, the mass media is best suited for social change because of its flexibility, involvement and richer information. It also engages in goals of planned development through persuasion and mass mediated information. The new technology is a non-persuasive, open-ended and lack of control over content by sender. However, the technology is not the problem but in the constant material barriers to access (McQuail, 2000). Furthermore, the changing nature of new media sets unequivocal limits to theory-forming about their effects, because of their multiplying forms and it's often temporal (Rice, 1999).

From Passive-to-Active Public Sphere

Hebermas initial rendition of the public sphere centred on the mass public discourse on salient issues in the society void of inequality, private interest, political dominance and control which was later dominated by the rise of traditional media that fragmented the public sphere and made them passive on issues of the state due to media drive for profit rather than enhancing public participation on issues in the state (Habermas, 1962; Stevenson, 2002 in Bakir and Barlow, 2007). The old form of media made the public sphere passive as information flowed from top-to-bottom without room for confrontation and feedback. This type of media operations only allowed the public sphere to consume media content without actively engaging in discourse of matters in the society. The old form of media like radio and television sometimes prompted audience engagement through talk show unlike print media where information flows in a single direction (Sambuno, 2016). In late industrialism the public sphere are in transitional era of becoming active in the consumption of media content rather than passive as in previous era were the public sphere simply absorbed what was given to them as news (fell, 2013). New media technologies have metamorphosed the public sphere from passive readers/listeners/viewers to active users of the media, that is, audience relationship and engagement that has transcended from one-way to two-way user interaction. This new form of media actively engages the public sphere in either long form or short form engagement due to video content and interactivity of the media (Fell, 2013; Sambuno, 2016). The public sphere in the era of being active due to new media technology has increased media multitasking where audience engage in simultaneous consumption of multifarious

media content. This contemporary trend in communication has generated a situation where the public sphere do not only consume media content but actively engage the media in several activity at the same time on diverse media platforms (Ekhareafu and Uchenunu, 2014). For instance, it is typical nowadays to see audience on a media website and click link on different links to navigate through site to extract information. The emergence of the online news website hyperlink has signalled a new form of open space without linearity to it. This paradigm shift in technological knowledge now underpin audience to actively select news item or content that interest them without it being pre-categorized (Fell, 2013).

From Active-to-Interactive Public Sphere

Consequent upon the advancement in information and communication technology, the public sphere metamorphosed from being active to interactive due to the start of user generated content that heralded a sense gratification of 'do it yourself culture'. This rapidly generated an online community where audience no longer viewed themselves as strangers but as a part of one community where users combine, share and discuss ideas of salient issues in the society. Interactivity of the new media has formed a new pattern of community in the virtual and real media world, with older communities waxing stronger with the invention of sophisticated new media technology (Fell, 2013). The mechanism on new media responsible for information sharing and discussion amongst public sphere now has a household name in the virtual word as social media (Kaplan, 2010). Social media networks have resuscitated a type of virtual or cyber public sphere which is an umbrella for web based software and services that connects audience together online for multifarious exchange of

information and dissemination of salient issues in the society. This online communities have redefined mass communication through the provision of platforms where audience create and publish media content with the possibility of instant feedback (Zarella, 2010).

The continuous rising of social media has opened a new world of unpaid media designed by individuals and corporations which have many forms where audience actively interact such as blogs, micro blogs, social network, media sharing sites, social book marking and voting sites, review sites and forums (Palmer and Koenig-Lewis, 2009).

Interactive Public Sphere-to-Online Journalism

New media technology has engaged traditional media in stiff competition where audience focus has shifted from static pattern of receiving information to information on the go with limitless boundaries that cuts across time and space. With the latest trend in information and communication technology, media consumers are no longer at the receiving end of traditional media where they have to wait for news item at a certain time of the day. Consumers hunger for information has propelled traditional media to relocate to cyberspace to meet the ever growing needs of the audience. Nelson (2008) noted that we are in an era where new media technology has brought about revolution in the media industry with a more efficient way of disseminating information. This new trend in communication has given a new and consistent route of limitless access of information flow across the globe using the power of social networks via the internet. New media technology has given rise to traditional media embracing online journalism as their presence online led to media

convergence, where diverse media no longer exist on their own but on the same platform. Although, online news items are not the exclusive preserve of journalist because members of the public sphere generate their news content and distribute to others (Ekhareafo and Uchenunu, 2014). Scholars and researchers alike have noted that online journalism are designed on different platforms of alternative media sites shared and controlled by the media and public sphere where content sharing has a whole new meaning, presenting a forum for both professional and amateur news item to be showcased alongside each other. These online journalism websites are mainly but not limited to mainstream news sites such as meta and comments, index and category online sites and share and discussion sites (Deuze, 2003).

Online journalism has generated a whole new world where professionals and amateurs operate on the same platform displaying creative content, creative self-expression through a cheap distribution system to a burgeoning public sphere (Heron, 2011). This pattern of paradigm shift in communication and journalism has been taken advantage of by the public sphere as audience are caught up in a continual challenge with each other and key stakeholders such as pressure groups and campaigning institutions, expert communities, opposition parties and corporations – to key in their preferred opinion and issues on salient matters in the society. The media online platforms have sparked a sort of interactivity that connects the public sphere to concerned pressing issues of societal context thereby launching initiatives for the public to respond to. Thus, professionals and amateurs ‘enter into exchange relations bargaining information, images or announcements against publicity (Petts, Horlick-Jones, and Murdock, 2001, p. 3). Consequently, online journalism

remains essential to the political process and the engine room where battles over defining, identification and salient issues in the society are fought out (Bourdieu, 1998, Eldridge, 1999 cited in Petts, Horlick-Jones, and Murdock, 2001).

Citizen Journalism

Citizen journalism (also known as street or participatory journalism) is a process where citizens of the state play an active role in collecting, reporting, analysing and disseminating news and information for public consumption through new media web based technology enabled by the internet (Ekhareafu and Uchenunu, 2014). The public sphere now take great pride void of mistrust and cynicism as against traditional media to share timely and pressing societal issues / information on diverse online platforms for discussion and public consumption. Citizen Journalism has enhanced public sphere participation on matters of social, economic and political concerns within and between online platforms void of representative sphere and surrogate debate for the audience. Public sphere now create and generate content as citizen journalist and debate on it. New media web-based technology has given the public sphere the ample opportunity to create a public profile or semi-public profile within the stream of trend in communication that enables them share and connect to multi sources of information. Web-based technology popularly known as social media enables users to create and share information, ideas, debate on issues through virtual communities (online communities) and networks. Social media has multifarious features which range from interactive web 2.0 internet based applications such as social networking (Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn), blogs, video sharing sites (You

Tube), web applications (apps) and user-generated content that enables the use of text, post, comments, digital photos and videos. The activities of social media has helped to facilitate the advancement of online social networks by connecting individuals and groups on the social media platforms (Asemah, 2011). New media technology has enabled the use of mobile technology to access diverse web based application through smartphones, tablets and computers to generate highly interactive platforms through which the public sphere can share, co-create, discuss and modify user generated contented or pre-made content posted online (Danaan, 2006). The combination of new media technology and mobile application enabled by multifarious web-based applications have empowered the public sphere to be active citizen journalist.

The making of news is no longer exclusive to traditional media and other news sources as the audience are now enabled to create their own news content through new media technology. In late industrialism, journalist and media houses are facing stiff competition with citizen journalist for relevance in the society. Traditional media continues to struggle to retain its authoritative voice since the emergence of citizen journalist. 'The audience, aided by internet technology which has made the online communicative experience possible, is no longer a passive receiver of news, but also an active creator of content, altering the face of journalism from being a lecture to a conversation' (Dare, 2011, p. 14). The public sphere which has metamorphosed to citizen journalist are classified as non-professionals which sometimes feed traditional media with news events of the day as eye witness. A typical example of citizen journalism practice in the media is CNN I reporter. This platform enables the audience who are now active and interactive to capture events and send to media outfit and other

social web-based platforms for onward dissemination to the world (Ekhareafo and Uchenunu, 2014). Audience as citizen journalists have broken the traditional hegemonic role of media gatekeeping to active participant in the creation and dissemination of news items. Despite the wide embrace of the public sphere being active on cyber sphere connecting to a wider online community all over the globe, certain commentators have criticised its activity as unprofessional and falsehood promoters in the society. However, these criticisms do not hold water as the public sphere is waxing stronger and no longer want to be passive receivers of information but active and interactive participant in the creation and dissemination of information (Bentley, 2008).

Conclusion

In truism, the public sphere never declined liked Habermas claimed; it only went through the process of transformation in three epochs (pre industrialism, early industrialism and late industrialism) due to the emergence and advancement of new media technology that broke the limitation and silence of the public sphere and prompted a limitless and interactive cyber sphere.

More than ever, the public sphere has become a voice in the globe that surpasses many media institutions in terms of reach to a global audience empowered by new media technology. The technological innovation and advancement of the new media technology has in so many ways transformed the public sphere in that they are no longer worried of the organised irresponsibility of media organisations but now have the leverage to investigate, create news and debate over salient issues of primary concern in the society on diversified

platforms with well over a billion users. The issue of representative sphere and surrogate debate for the audience to make decision and vote is now heavily criticised by the public sphere as their voices can now be heard across international boundaries.

In Nigeria where there is teething problems with media transmission within and across the nation due to frequency versus reach, the emergence of new media technology broke the monopoly of the traditional media being the only source of news flow in the society due to its reach and frequency that cuts across the globe. This new trend in communication has heralded a new wave of communication platforms that brought the fragmented public sphere to a common platform called online community or cyber sphere where information are shared, deliberated and contested globally. The Nigerian public sphere are no longer at the receiving end as passive audience but have migrated from active-to-interactive-to-citizen journalist as they are no longer confined within the limitations of traditional media coverage. This paradigm shift in communication can now allow the public sphere to create news content, multitask and engage in simultaneous consumption and dissemination of multifarious media content. The Nigerian public sphere are not partisan or dominated by ownership or government control like the traditional media which has brought about distrust for the media but are rather bold to discuss, challenge and mimic defaulting authorities which is now a trend on new media platforms. Due to the swiftness news travel across fragmented groups on diverse online platforms, the traditional media are now contending for a place in audience participation. Globally, the development of new media technology has created an ad hoc public sphere alliance that are resistant to oppressive government and defends the

voiceless especially in a country like Nigeria. Issues arising from remote and rural areas that were initially cut off from the information age due to lack of coverage of traditional media are now heard as a result of new media technology. The strength of the public sphere contrast the statement of Butsch (2007) which stated that modern media corporations overwhelms the relatively minute institutions of the public sphere, as a skyscraper enshadows a small public park. This assertion is no longer valid as the public sphere is no longer a minute institution due to its modus operandi with billions of users on multifarious online platforms that far supersedes the reach of any traditional media in the world. The rejuvenated public sphere and their activities on new media platforms overwhelm media institutions scope of reach and frequency. The public sphere more than ever is alive, waxing stronger and are active participants in the information age of limitless communication.

References

- Agbese, A, O (2006) *The Role of the Press and Communication Technology in Democratization: The Nigeria Story*. London, Routledge.
- Alese, B.K, and Owoyemi, S.O. (2004) Factor Analytical Approach to Internet Usage in South-Western Nigeria, *Journal of Information Technology Impact* vol.4, no 3, 171-188.
- Alese, B.K, and Owoyemi, S.O. (2004) Factor Analytical Approach to Internet Usage in South-Western Nigeria, *Journal of Information Technology Impact* vol.4, no 3, 171-188.

- Allan, S. (1999) *News Culture*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Asemah, E. S (2011) *Selected Mass Media Themes*. Jos. University Press
- Ashong, C. A and Udoudo, A (2008) *Mass Media and the Agenda for Conflict Resolution in the Niger Delta*. In *Media, Dialogue, Peace Building and Reconciliation: Conference proceedings* (Eds.), Mojaye, E.M., Arhagba, E., Soola, E and Oso, L., 311-317. Nigeria, Africa Council for Communication Education Delta State Chapter.
- Bakir, V (2008) *Media and Scientific Risk: Old and New Research Directions*. Conference on Language & the Scientific Imagination Communicating Scientific Risk through Mass Media - Theoretical & Empirical Explorations 11th International Conference of the study of European Ideas Helsinki University, 28th July-2nd August 2008.
- Bakir, V and Barlow, M (2007) *Exploring Relationships between Trust Studies and Media Studies*. In *Communication in the age of Suspicion Trust and the Media* (Eds.), V. Bakir and D. M, Barlow 9-24. UK, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bakir, V. (2006) 'Policy Agenda Setting and Risk Communication: Greenpeace, Shell, and Issues of Trust'. *Press/Politics* 11(3): 1-22

- Barlow, D.M., Mitchell, P. and O'Malley, T. (2005) *The Media in Wales: Voices of a Small Nation*. Cardiff: University of Wales Press.
- BBC News (2008) *Nigeria's Brown Envelope Journalism*. www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-31748257. 22 February 2018
- Beck, U. (1992) *From Industrial Society to the Risk Society: Questions of Survival, Social Structure and Ecological Environment*. *Theory, Culture and Society*, 9, 97-123.
- Beck, U. (1992) *Risk Society: Towards a New Modernity*. London: Sage.
- Beck, U. (1995) *Ecological Politics in the Age of Risk*. Cambridge: polity Press.
- Beck, U. (1996) *Risk Society and the Provident State*. In Lash, S., Szerszinski, B. and Wynne, B. (eds), *Risk, Environment and Modernity: Towards a New Ecology*. London: Sage, pp.27-43.
- Beck, U. (1996) *World Risk Society as Cosmopolitan Society? Ecological Questions in a Framework of Manufactured Uncertainties*. *Theory, Culture and Society*, 13(4), 1-32.
- Bently, C. H (2008) *Citizen Journalism: Back to the Future?* Discussion Paper Prepared for the Carnegie-Knight Conference on the Future of Journalism, Cambridge, Ma June 20-21

- Butsch, R (2007) Introduction: How Are Media Public Spheres? In *Media and Public Spheres* (Eds.), Butsch, R 1-14. New York, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Calhoun, C (1992) Habermas and the Public Sphere. In Calhoun, C (Eds.) *Habermas and the Public Sphere* 1-50. London: The MIT Press
- Covello, V.T, McCallum, D.B and Pavlova, M, T (1989) *Effect Risk Communication: The Role and Responsibility of Government and Nongovernment Organisations*. London, Plenum Press.
- Dahlgren, P (2001) The Public Sphere As Historical Narrative. In *Mass Communication Theory* (Ed) McQuail, D (194-200). London, Sage.
- Dahlgren, P and C. Sparks (1991) *Communication and Citizenship: Journalism and the Public Sphere In The Media Age*. London, Routledge.
- Daily Nation (2015) Brown Envelope Journalism and Africa Ethics.[www.nation.co.ke/oped/opinion/Brown-envelope-22 February 2015](http://www.nation.co.ke/oped/opinion/Brown-envelope-22-February-2015)
- Danaan, G. (2006) The Growth of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in Less Developed Countries: Issues and Problems. *International Journal of Communication* No5.pp107-118
- Dare, S (2011) *The Rise of Citizen Journalism in Nigeria. A Case Study of Sahara Reporters*. Reuters Institute Fellowship Paper. University of Oxford

- Deuze, M (2003) *The Web and its Journalism. Considering the consequences of Different Types of News Media Online.* *New Media and Society.* 5(2), 203-230
- Dijk, A. A. V. (1998) *News as Discourse.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ekhareafu, O. D and Uchenunu, O. A (2014) Trends in Modern Communication. In *Mass Media Modules for Tertiary Institution in Nigeria* (Eds) Sambe, J.A 200-218
- Fell, K (2013) Audience Today. Active or Passive? <http://socialmediano.wordpress.com/2013/09/17/audiences-active-or-passive/>. 24 February, 2018
- Franklin (2005) *Key Concepts in Journalism Studies.* London, Sage Publication.
- Gans, H. J. (1979) *Deciding What's News.* New York: Pantheon.
- Garnham, N (1992) *The Media and the Public Sphere.* In Calhoun, C (Eds.) *Habermas and the Public Sphere* 359-376. London: The MIT Press
- Garnham, N (1995) *The Media and the Public Sphere.* In *Approaches to Media: A Reader* (Eds.), Boyd-Barrett, O and Newbold, C. 245-252. London, Arnold.
- Giddens, A. (1990) *The Consequences of Modernity.* Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Giddens, A. (1994a) *Beyond Left and Right: The Future of Radical Politics.* Cambridge, Polity Press

- Giddens, A. (1994b) Living in Post Traditional Society. In Reflexive modernisation: Politics, Tradition and Aesthetics in the Modern Social Order (Eds) Beck, U., Giddens, A and Lash, S. 56-109. Cambridge, Polity Press
- Gooby, P and J. Zinn (Eds.) Risk in Social Science 20-53. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Graham, G. (1999) The Internet: A Philosophical Inquiry. Routledge: London.
- Guardian (2006) Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC), Cybercafé Operators go Tough on Yahoo Boys. The Guardian, Nigeria 2 August p8.
- Habermas, J (1962) The Structural Transformation of the Public Sphere: An Inquiry into a Category of Bourgeois Society, Thomas Burger, Cambridge Massachusetts: The MIT Press, ISBN 978-0-262-58108-0
- Hauser, A. G and Benoit-Barne, C. (2002) 'Relections on Rhetoric, Deliberative Democracy, Civil Society, and Trust'. Vol 5, No 2, 261-275.
- Herman, E.S and Chomsky, N (1988) Manufacturing Consent: The Political Economy of the Mass Media. New York, Pantheon.
- Heron, L (2011) Social Media Best Practices. Presented at the Journalism Interactive Conference. University of Maryland, College Park, Md.
- IREX, (2007) Media Sustainability Index (MSI) Africa. <http://www.irex.org/programs/MSI_Africa/nigeria.asp#intro> 4 October 2008.

Kaplan, A (2010) Users of the World, unite! The Challenges and Opportunities of Social Media. *Business Horizons*, 53,59-68

Kasperson, J.X., Kasperson, R.E., Pidgeon, N., and Slovic, P (2003) The Social Amplification of Risk: Assessing Fifteen Years of Research and Theory. In *The Social Amplification of Risk*, (Eds.), N. Pidgeon, R.E. Kasperson and P. Slovic 13-46. Cambridge: Cambridge Press.

Kasperson, R and Stallen, P. J. M (1991) 'Communicating Risk to the Public: Technology, Risk and Society'. London, Routledge.

Kasperson, R. E (1992) The Social Amplification of Risk: Progress in Developing an Integrative Framework of Risk. In *Social Theories of Risk* (Eds.), S. Krimsky and D. Golding 153-178. Westport, CT: Praeger.

Kasperson, R., Renn, O., Slovic, P., Brown, H.S., Emel, J., Goble, R., Kasperson, J. X., and Ratick, S.J. (1988) 'Social Amplification of Risk: A Conceptual Framework'. *Risk Analysis*, 8, 177-187

Livingstone, S (2003) The Changing Nature of Audiences: from the Mass Audience to the interactive Media User. www.eprints.lse.ac.uk/417/1/chapter_in_valdivia_Blackwell_volume_2003.pdf 24 February 2018

Mac-Ikemenjima, D. (2005) E-Education in Nigeria: Challenges and Prospects: A presentation at the 8th UN ICT Task Force meeting. Unpublished Manuscript: Dublin, Ireland.

McQuail, D. (2000) *Mass Communication Theory*, 4th Edition. London: Sage Publication.

McQuail, D. (2002) *McQuail's Reader in Mass Communication Theory*. London: Sage Publication.

Nelson, O (2008) ICT and its role Towards Professional Media Practice in Nigeria. *International Journal of Communication* No9.pp165-173

Nwodu, L .C (2015) *Issues in Mass Media In Nigeria*. National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja

Olusola, O, S (2008) Expansion of Public Sphere in Nigeria Democracy: The Imperative of Media Pluralism. In *Mass Media in Nigeria Democracy* (Eds.), Omu, F, I. A and Oboh, G, E 33-45. Lagos, Stirling-Horden

Omenugha, K. A and Oji, M (2017) News Commercialisation, Ethics and Objectivity in Journalism Practice in Nigeria: Strange Bed Fellows? www.ec.ubi.pt/ec/03/html/omenugha-oji-news-commercialization.html. 22 February 2018

Palmer, A and Koenig-lewis, N (2009) An Experiential, Social Network-Based Approach to Direct Marketing. *International Journal of Direct Marketing*, 3(3) 162-176

Petts, J., Horlick-Jones, T., and Murdock, G (2001) *Social Amplification of Risk: The Media and the Public*. Contract Research Report 329/2001. UK: HSE books.

- Petts, J., Horlick-Jones, T., and Murdock, G (2001) Social Amplification of Risk: The Media and the Public. Contract Research Report 329/2001. UK: HSE books.
- Pidgeon, N., Simmons, P., and Henwood, K. (2006) Risk, Environment and Technology. In Risk in Social Science (Eds.), P. Taylor-Gooby and J. Zinn 94-116. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Pidgeon, N., Simmons, P., and Henwood, K. (2006) Risk, Environment and Technology. In Risk in Social Science (Eds.), P. Taylor-Gooby and J. Zinn 94-116. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Rice, R. E. (1999) Artifacts and Paradoxes in New Media: New Media and Society.
- Sambuno (2016) The Four Kind of Media We Consume. www.sambuno.com/passive-media-kinds-media-consume/ 24 February 2018
- Slevin, J. (2000) The Internet and Society. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Trust in Media poll (2006) BBC/Reuters/Media Centre poll: Trust in The Media. <http://www.globescan.com/news_archives/bbcreut.html> 20 March 2009.
- Tuchman, G. (1978) Making News: A Study in the Construction of Reality. New York: Free Press.

Zarella, D (2010) *The Social Media Marketing Book*.
O'Reilly Media, Inc

Zinn, J. O and P. Taylor-Gooby (2006) Risk as an
Interdisciplinary Research Area. In Taylor-

The Advent of Private Broadcasting in Nigeria: A Critical Appraisal

**IGNATIUS ACHILIKE NJOKU* AND TUNDE
EBOZOJE****

Abstract

Based on the historical antecedents and the roles that politics played in broadcasting development in Nigeria and government monopoly over the industry, the deregulation of the industry is considered a monumental and a great stride, by the writers. This article explains the ways in which politics of states creations has implicitly and explicitly shaped broadcasting practice in Nigeria. The paper argues than the struggle for broadcasting development reached apogee when the organized private sector of the economy was admitted as a player in the industry with the conclusion that this inclusion has been more of a blessing than a challenge.

Key words: Advent, Private, Broadcasting, Critical appraisal

Introduction

The electronic media or broadcasting as an aspect of mass communication relies on the electromagnetic waves (moves at the speed of light 300 million meter per seconds) to beam its signals that are in audio-visual form or what Akpan (2014, p.16) called 'sight and sound communication'. On August 21st 1992, The federal military government promulgated the National Broadcasting Commission Decree No. 38 that also gave the government legal power to grant operational licenses to members of the organized private sector. Thus, ended over 60 years of government monopoly of broadcasting.

The advent of private broadcasting in Nigeria is a land-mark development because of the misconceptions of Nigerians previous leaders about broadcasting. To them, broadcasting is so powerful to be allowed in individual hands having in mind Nigerians weak unity. The development according to Orji (2014, p.xx1) widens the citizens access to more choices consistent with their needs and priorities, which he believes is the driver of national development. Orji's submission collaborated Lippmann (2005, p.5) assertion that the media is the bible of democracy.

Definition Of Terms

As it is customary with scholarly research of this nature, it is important that we identify and operationally define our basic concept for better understanding of the paper.

Advent: According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1998) Advent is "the approach or arrival of an important person, event etc", in this case, private broadcasting.

PRIVATE" "personal belonging to one particular person or group". "of, belonging to or managed by an individual or an independent company rather than the state".(Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 1998), which in Nigeria is known as organized private sector.

Broadcasting: Broadcasting is simply the sending out of programmes on radio and television. (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary: 1998).

*Ignatius Achilike Njoku is a lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria

** Tunde Ebzoje – Lectures in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

JCDMRJournal Of Comunication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

Historically, “broadcasting” refers to the activity of radio and television stations, cable, satellite and the internet. It also refers to content carried over air waves, usually designed to appeal to a broad audience segment.

Furthermore, broadcasting is the distribution of audio and video signals (programs) to a number of recipients (“listeners” or “viewers”) in society either generally, or a relatively large audience within the public. Thus, an internet channel may distribute text or music world-wide, while a public address system (PAS) in a workplace for example may broadcast very limited adhoc sound bites to a small population within its range.

Finally, Udejaja. (2004, p.3) defined Broadcasting as the transmission of audio and video signals to a mass audience through electric rays. To broadcast is to send out sound and pictures by means of radio waves through space for the general public to receive. The term ‘broadcasting’ expresses the idea of scattered dissemination to anonymous, undefined destinations, made up of listeners and viewers.

It can therefore be likened to the biblical story of the Sower. Like the seeds, the signals are scattered out over a wide area for free reception by anyone with the proper receiving equipment. The signals are usually received simultaneously by anonymous recipients.

According to Oxford Encyclopedia, broadcasting is concerned with the sending of signals through space by electromagnetic waves on wireless principles. Broadcasting according to Njoku (2010, p.10) has to do with effective use of human voice projected through space for communication purposes and

entertainment. This submission is supported by Orji (2014, p.39) that broadcasting is involved in education, entertainment and dissemination of information through audio-visual means.

Writing further on the matter, Udejaja (2004 p.4), said broadcasting is not just merely a technical process of transforming audio-visual signals through electromagnetic waves but purposefully with the intention to add something or introduce some change in the subject matter transmitted.

This study therefore is on the arrival of television and radio stations owned and run by individuals or groups in Nigeria other than the state.

PTTV (Private Terrestrial Television): This can also be known as Conventional or mundane channels that humans are used to. That is NTA, ITV and other normal stations whose signals circulate around the earth. Another example is AIT, they are owned and operated by private individuals who have been allotted or assigned a segment in the terrestrial air space to beam signals to domestic homes.

PTR (Private Terrestrial Radio): The above explanation about PTTV is equally relevant here in terms of the conventionality or earthy nature of the signals. However, while the PTTV deals with audio-visuals signals, PTR deals with audio only. All privately owned radio stations in Nigeria fall into this group. The whole idea of terrestrial means that there is extra-terrestrial or celestial signals which are not meant for this earth and its inhabitants.

PSGTX (Private Satellite Cable Transmission): Satellite are communication gadgets that are position in space to receive

signals from any part of the world and beam same back to earth where it is needed. These satellite moves at the same orbit with the earth. The use of these satellite led to the concept of global village. Most time, nation-state owns these satellite for governmental functions but private organization now own and operate these satellite with the permission of government.

Historical Framework

Broadcasting was introduced to Nigeria by the British in 1932 when BBC signals were relayed to receivers through the rediffusion system. In 1951, the Nigerian Broadcasting Service (NBS) was inaugurated mainly to relay the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) programmes.

In 1951, wireless broadcasting was introduced in the country and in 1954 the regional governments were permitted to establish their own broadcast stations which gave birth to Western Nigerian Television (WNTV) for the Western Region in 1959, which is the oldest television in Africa, the Eastern Broadcasting Service (ENBS) for the Eastern Region in 1960 and the Broadcasting Company of Northern Nigeria (BCNN) for the Northern Region in 1962.

NBS was renamed The Nigerian Broadcasting Corporation (NBC) and was established by an Act of Parliament No 39 of 1956 and began operations as a statutory corporation on 1st April, 1957. The NBC was in operation until 1978 when the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria came into being by virtue of Decree No 8 1979, with retrospective effective from 1st April, 1978. By this Decree, the Federal Government dissolved the NBC and handed over twenty of its stations to state governments. The only NBC stations retained were those

in Lagos, Ibadan and Enugu which were then merged with the former Broadcasting Company of Northern Nigeria (BCNN) in Kaduna also dissolved by the Decree to constitute the FRCN at inception.

According to Udejaja (2004), from the beginning, broadcasting was set up in Nigeria to be under the control of government, which uses it as a medium of propaganda and for controlling the information made available to public.

The persistence of government control is rooted in the belief that the broadcast media are a powerful tool for influencing and moulding public opinions.

Both federal and regional governments were guilty of this fact. The regional Broadcast stations were generally status-conferring instruments for promoting the region. During the civil war too, both sides in the crisis and the war effectively used the broadcast media to mobilize, galvanize and conscientize the populace to take a stand and fight the opponent.

Udejaja further revealed that haunted perhaps by the successes of Radio Biafra and the entire role that regional stations played in fomenting divisive interests that culminated to the war, the government again, returned broadcasting to its exclusive control with the Nigeria Television Authority (NTA) decree of 1977 and the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN) decree of 1978. The federal government control over broadcasting is still witnessed today in the assignment of VHF (Very High Frequency) to NTA only who is the national carrier and UHF (Ultra High Frequency) to state and private stations because VHF is stronger than UHF.

Due mainly to corruption and mis-management at government owned stations, they could not live up to the expectation of the public. Soon, the clamour for the deregulation of broadcast media began. The constitutional provision of 1979 which allowed democratization of broadcasting heightened the clamour for private ownership of the broadcast media. The provision reads thus:

“...every person shall be entitled to own, establish and operate any medium for the dissemination of information, ideas and opinions, provided that no person other than the government of the Federation or of a state or any other person or body authorized by the President, shall own, operate a television or wireless broadcasting stations for any purpose whatsoever”.

The Nigerian Constitution (1979: Section 36)

The implication of the above is that anyone with the approval of government can establish a broadcast station. The pressure on government to let go of broadcasting according to Edemode (2005) was from within and outside Nigeria. As earlier on said, broadcasting was deregulated in Nigeria in August 1992 when the Federal Government promulgated the National Broadcasting Commission, Decree No. 38 of 1992. Section 22 of the Decree repealed the provisions which confers exclusive monopoly of ownership of electronic media on the state. Thus, private and independent ownership of electronic media became legalized in Nigeria after almost 60 years of government monopoly of broadcasting.

It is worthy of mention, that although, the broadcasting industry was deregulated in 1992, it was not until September

1994, that the first private independent electronic media actually commenced operations. This therefore marked the beginning of the operation of the dual broadcasting ownership system in Nigeria.

Scope of Study

This paper is mainly focused on private broadcast stations, though a general background of the history of broadcasting in Nigeria, private and public is given covering a time frame of sixty-three years (1951-2014). The beginning of wireless broadcasting in Nigeria with a Nigeria station NBS was in 1951. The terminal year of 2014 is due to lack of research materials on the subject beyond that period.

Limitation of Study

Due to time constraints, the research on this paper may not be as broad as it should be. Another limitation is non-availability of sufficient material and the inability to visit any of the privately owned broadcast stations for a firsthand experience and / or interviews with the owners or managements of these media outfits. Mostly available were written materials which were relied on for data gathering.

Very few works were examined as most literature on broadcasting in Nigeria had little or nothing to say about the advent of private broadcasting. This is so because most of them covered broadcasting up till 1992.

The main literature reviewed, Udejaja (2004, p.54) in his work, "Broadcasting and politics in Nigeria", revealed quite a lot on the genesis of broadcasting and the emergence of private broadcasting in Nigeria by Decree 38 of 1992 under the Babangida military Administration.

He traced the beginning of broadcasting in Nigeria by British colonial administration with the purpose of developing “some political culture and economic links between Britain and English speaking countries”. The stations were the eyes and ears of the British government.

He also established that from the beginning broadcasting was set up in Nigeria to be under the government’s control and was a political instrument. In this work, he described the gradual process of the development of broadcast media industry, starting from the RDS to NBS in 1951,

the various regional stations between 1959 and 1962, the emergence of NTA and the eventual arrival of privately owned stations following the 1992 decree; marking the beginning of practical liberalization of broadcasting in Nigeria. Furthermore, the work also made good use of Orji (2014,n.p) *"What they cannot teach you in broadcasting"*.

He illustrates beautifully these periods and evolution of broadcast media in Nigeria with the following table:

Period	Year	Characteristics
1.	1932 – 1950	Colonial Innovation
2.	1951 – 1962	Nationalists’ Experimentation (during the struggle for independence)
3.	1963-1992	Challenges to Professionalism (in civilian and military governments)
4.	1992 – 2003	Liberalization of Broadcasting (period of private ownership)

His work also covered analyses of various private media organization in Nigeria and how they have fared so far.

List Of All And Analysis Of Some Private Broadcast Stations In Nigeria

Most of all privately – owned stations in Nigeria are commercially oriented.

In this section, a list of all private broadcast stations from inception in 1992 up till December 2003 is made while an analysis of a few outstanding ones is also given.

Table 2: Resume of private broadcasting stations in Nigeria as at December 2003

S/N	TYPES OF STATION	POPULATION
1	Private Terrestrial Television (PTTV)	14
2	Private Terrestrial Radio (PTR)	24
3	Private Satellite – Global Transmission (PSGTx)	2
4	Private Cable- Satellite Re-transmission (PCSRx) (including sub-stations)	60
	Grand Total	100

Source: Broadcasting and Politics by Ray Udeaja, (2004, p.359) and Orji (2014, p. 265)

Table 3: Private Terrestrial Television (PTTV)

S/ N	Name Of Station	Location	State	Year	Channel s	President
1.	African Independent Television (AIT)	Alagbad o	Lagos	1996	49 UHFQ 21 UHF	Chief (Dr.) ALegho Raymond Dokpesi
2	Channels Television	Ikeja	Lagos	1995	39 UHF	Mr. John Momoh
3	Choffan Communication	Victoria Island	Lagos	2003		Sir. EmekaOfor
4	Dengue Broadcasting Network (DBN-TV)	Ikoyi	Lagos	1995	32 UHF	Mr. Osa Sunny Adun
5	Desmins Independent Television	Kaduna	Kaduna	1994	38 UHF	AlhajiKhalifa Baba Ahmed
6	Galaxy Television	Ibadan	oYo	1994	53 UHF	Chief Steve Ojo
7	Independent Television	Benin	Edo	1996	22 UHF	Chief (Dr.) Gabriel OsawaruIgbine dion
8	Minaj Systems Television	Obosi	Anambr a	1994	43 UHF	Chief Mike Ajaegbo
9	Monarch Communications	Ikoyi	Lagos			Chief RemiOlowude

10	Murhi International Television (MITV)	Ikeja	Lagos	1993	43UHF	AlhajiMuriGba deyinkaBusari
11	Nargata Communications	Gusau	Zamfara			Mr. Umar Farun Bashar
12	Silver bird Communications	Yaba	Lagos			Mr. Guy Murray-Bruce
13	Unity TV Communications	Ikoyi	Lagos			Dr. Bode Olajumoke
14	Universal Broadcasting Services (UBS) (formerly Clapperboard television)	Lagos	Lagos	1994	45 UHF	Mr. OtukayodeOtuf ale

Table 4: Private Terrestrial Radio (PTR)

S/N	NAME	TOWN	STATE	FREQUENCIES
1.	Brilla FM (Sports)	Victoria Island	Lagos	88.9MHz FM
2	Steam Broadcasting (Cool FM)	Victoria Island	Lagos	96.9 MHz FM
3	Steam Broadcasting (Cool FM)	South City Center	Abuja	96.9MHz FM
4	Independence Radio	Benin	Edo State	92.3 HMz
5	Jeremi Radio	Warri	Delta State	
6	Ceuna communication (Cosmo FM)	Enugu	Enugu	105.5 MHz
7	Minaj System Radio	Obosi	Anambra	89.4MHz
8	Ray Power I and II FM	Alagbado	Lagos	100.5MHZ FM

9	Silverbird communication limited	Old GRA	Port Harcourt	93.7FM
10	Silverbird communication limited	Yaba	Lagos	93.7FM
11	Silverbird communication limited	Garki	Abuja	
12	Star FM (Nurhi international)	Ikeja	Lagos	101.5
13	Nagarta Radio	Jos	Kaduna	
14	Love (Former Crowther FM)	Wuse Zone 3	Abuja	104.5MHz
15	Freedom Radio	Industrial Layout, Phase II	Kano	99.5 MHz
16	Hot FM	Gudu District	Abuja	98.3 MHz
17	Vision FM	Central Business Area	Abuja	92.1 MHz
18	Zuma FM	Mina	Niger	88. 5 MHz FM
19	Kiss FM	Wuse 11	Abuja	99.9 MHz FM
20	Grace FM	Lokoja	Kogi	
21	Okin FM	Offa	Kwara	105.7 MHz FM
22	Globe Broadcasting (Wazobia Fm)	Victoria Island	Lagos	96.9 MHz FM
23	Steam Broadcasting (Cool FM)	Port Harcourt	River	
24	Steam Broadcasting (WazobiaFM)	Port Harcourt	River	95.9 MHz FM

Source: Ojir (2014, p.265)

Table 5: Private Satellite – Global Transmission (PSGTx)

S/N	NAME	TOWN	STATE	YEAR
1.	African independent Television (AIT)	Alagbado	Lagos	1996
2	Minaj Broadcasting International (MBI)	Victoria Island	Lagos	1994

Table 6: Private Satellite – Global Transmission (PSGTx)

S/ N	NAME	TOWN	STATE	CHANNE LS	YEAR
1.	ABG Communications Ltd.	Wuse Marina Jos Kano Maiduguri Kaduna Zaria Katsina Yola	Abuja (FCT) Lagos Plateau Kano Borno Kaduna Kaduna Katisna Adamawa	70,72,74 70,72,74 70,72,74	
2	ADMAC International Ltd.	Enugu	Enugu	76,78,80	1994
3	Bauchi Satellite / Cable Ltd	Bauchi	Bauchi	77,78,79	
4	Cornet Associates Ltd	Ebute Metta Port-Harcourt	Lagos Rivers	89,90,93 89,90,93	

5	Communication Trends Nig. Ltd	Enugu Lagos Onitsha Owerri Port –Harcourt	Enugu Lagos Anambra Imo Rivers	82,84,86 82,84,86 82,84,86 82,84,86 82,84,86	
6	Delta Telekom munication and Electrical Services Ltd	Ilorin	Kwara		
7	Desmins Broadcast Nig. Ltd.	Lagos Sokoto Kaduna	Lagos Sokoto Kaduna	71,77,91 71,73,75	
8	Details Nig. Ltd	Abuja Apapa Calabar Ibadan Kaduna Kano Onitsha Port – Harcourt Warri	FCT Lagos Cross River Oyo Kaduna Kano Anambra Rivers Delta		
9	Disc Engineerin g Ltd	Kaduna	Kaduna		
10	Disc Engineerin g Ltd	Lagos	Lagos		
11	Ebonyi Cable TV	Abakaliki	Ebonyi	45,47,48	
12	Entertainm ent TV Ltd	Lagos	Lagos	71,77,99	
13	Hash-	Ikeja	Lagos		

	Tronic Satellite Communications Ltd				
14	Here and there	Ibadan	Oyo		
15	Hycorm Nig. Ltd.	Surulere Lagos			
16	IBW Cable-Satellite	Benin Effurun	Edo	82,84,86	1993
17	Independe ntCommunica tions Ltd.	Port-Harcourt	Rivers	70,75	1995
		Sapele Effurun	Delta Delta	72,74,78	1993
18	Minaj Cable Systems Ltd	Enugu	Enugu	70,72,74	1993
19	MG Communic ations Ltd	Abuja Gusau Kaduna Kano Lagos Maiduguri Onitsha Sokoto	FCT Zamfara Kaduna Kano Lagos Borno Anambra Sokoto	76,78,80 76,78,80 76,78,80 76,78,80 80,82,90 76,78,80 76,78,80 76,78,80	
20	Modern Communic ations Ltd	Abia	Abia		
21	Nigerian America Trading Co. Ltd.	Jos	Plateau		
22	Savannah Cable	Gombe	Gombe	77,79,81	

	Satellite Systems				
23	Transmit Network Ltd	Victoria Island	Lagos	76,78,84	
24	Ultima Communications Ltd.	Lagos Port – Harcourt	Lagos Rivers		
25	West Mid-Lands Communications Ltd.	Ibadan Ikeja	Oyo Lagos	90,92	1997

Analysis of some private broadcasting stations:

Giving an analysis on private broadcast stations, Udejaja (2004, p. 357) observes that the privatization of the broadcast media in Nigeria ushered in a new spirit in the broadcast industry. Ever since the emergence of private broadcasting stations, there has been a turn-around of events with a new lease of life offered to the people. Aihie (1997, p.21) states that the broadcast landscape of the country has completely changed, the environment has become more robust and exciting; and just with a flip of your remote control, variety wears the colour of a kaleidoscope. Furthermore, the private radio and television stations have brought with them career opening for broadcast professionals. This is at variance with the federal and state-owned stations, which have been stunted by a combination of political manipulation, excessive censorship and painful absence of basic equipment.

Therefore, the advent of private media stations has made the industry richer. They operate more sophisticated modern broadcast equipment. On political involvement, the private broadcast stations, according to Udejaja (2004, p.358) are

actively involved in political enlightenment and mobilization. A report in Vanguard (October 20, 1999, p.3) showed that Nigerians prefer private broadcasting stations to government-owned stations; this is because private media are more transparent with the truth in their news reports. The report indicates that private stations present a more balanced and unbiased political situation news programmes as well as significant information about communities.

Below is an analysis of some of these private broadcast stations since they emerged:

DAAR Communications Limited

Is a private Independent African Communications outfit based in Lagos and was incorporated in Nigeria in August 1988. It boasts of a successful background in the closely related fields of printing and publishing. DAAR launched its broadcast services in 1994 with the promotion of Nigeria's first private independent radio station RayPower 100.5FM.

A second channel RayPower 2 106.5FM commenced formal operation in April 1999. Before then, DAAR Communications had launched a 24 global Television service with the call sign Africa Independent Television (AIT) with thematic philosophy that is geared towards the promotion of African values and traditions of black across the world.

In line with the global trend of the new information age which has achieved a convergence of broadcasting and telecommunication, DAAR Communications has fully installed and integrated equipment using its international satellite gateway system capable of handling voice, data and video telecommunications to virtually every country in the world. DAAR Communications Limited Broadcast stations are

on 24 hours daily. The Communications Limited Broadcast stations are on 24 hours daily. The Internet company also provides a 24-hours service.

A visit to Daar Communication's corporate website revealed of whole lot on its Television and radio stations; below are some of these facts:

a. AIT (African Independent Television)

Started transmission on December, 1996 and also transmit a 24 hours non-stop programmes. Its studios are completely digitalized and equipped with technologies that enable it source programme materials from various parts of the globe, ensuring viewers' optimal satisfaction.

The mission of AIT is to emphasize development issues and methodically promote the reduction to tension and friction to achieve global harmony Udeaja (2004:363). In its progress, it seeks to integrate African cultural heritage and ways of life. It is the first African Network to join American Network in 2002 through Globecast World Television. Udeaja (2004:364) observes that though AIT has had a number of obstacles since its existence, the management has always succeeded in circumventing such obstacles and leading it to great heights.

Coverage

AIT beams quality programmes round the clock which are down-linked and redistributed in Africa, the whole of Americas, Mexico and the Caribbean. AIT's in-depth coverage aims to keep global viewers fully in tune with the soul of an African broadcaster offering premium quality service. AIT began broadcasting its programmes to a worldwide audience via the Cable stations, DST, in July 1 2001. The idea was to

get a wider audience to transmit the AIT vision of sharing the African experience.

Programming

Guided by its developmental and humanistic philosophy, AIT's programming is refreshingly different in character from the conventional output of other stations. 95% of its programmes are African. The aim is to project the African Continent to the rest of the world in a positive light.

Original in tone, informative in content, and compellingly entertaining, AIT's programming features a varied repertoire of news, talk-shows, soap operas, culture, sports and others. Scheduled programming includes the following elements.

Kaakaki

Kaakaki is AIT's news-based early morning talk programme; presenting facts about Africa and Africans, while reflecting world issues as they related and impact on Africa. Kaakari, an African world for Trumpet, heralds great events and issues in Africa, blowing them loud and clear to the rest of the world. Kaakaki reflects Africa in all spheres of development. It is the reference point on African issues, the authoritative voice of Africa. Kaakaki mirrors Africa for the world to appreciate.

AIT Newshour

60 minutes of news from around the globe, reflecting politics, business, sports, entertainment, art, style and culture with contributions from affiliate television stations across Nigeria covering a Network of 85% of Nigeria's land mass.

Documentaries / Magazines

AIT offers a rich repertoire of documentary materials and magazine programmes that provide fascinating food for thought.

Music

AIT's musical presentation is a lively journey of discovery of African rhythms, lyrics and dances. The music and dance are original; together they emphasis the most striking features of our unique heritage.

b. Raypower Radio**Raypower 100.5FM**

Raypower 100.5FM is guided by a developmental philosophy which seeks to promote African interest, unity and cohesion while respecting religious sensibilities and discouraging hatred and disaffection among peoples. Raypower 100.5FM seeks to promote human dignity, orderly development of society, free speech, responsible government and good citizenship.

Programming

Raypower 100.5FM programming is original in tone, informative in content and refreshingly entertaining. Programming reflects all spheres of African life: music, culture and a good degree of contemporary global traditions. Raypower 100.5FM is a real celebration of contemporary African life and a promotion of values that will enhance African integration with the rest of the world. The programmes are designed for general listenership.

Raypower 106.5 FM

The quest to promote the values of a pluralistic society as a catalyst for development is the driving forces for the promotion of a second Radio channel by DAAR Communication Limited. The programming a Raypower 106.5 FM reflects its philosophy and set objectives – More Talk Less Music. No music released after 1989 is played on Raypower 106.5 FM. The works of Nigerian Artists irrespective of date of release are however aired on the station. 30% of the programming is taken live from BBC World Service under a rebroadcast cooperation agreement with the BBC. The remaining 70% programmes are originated locally. Raypower 106.5 FM is for mature audience and the local programming slant reflects politics, business and economy, science, development, documentaries, views, news, comments, analysis, investigation, breaking news, diplomacy, travel and tourism, health, arts, education etc. every subject that is important is aired on Raypower 106.5 FM.

Minaj

The Minaj group which consists of Minaj System Television (MST), a terrestrial station; Minaj Broadcast International (MBI), a satellite station; Minaj System Radio (MSR) and Minaj Cable Satellite, got its license in 1993. The mission is to ‘project Africa to the rest of the world from African point of view. Udejaja (2004:364) it is projecting Africa from African point of view. According to Udejaja, the philosophy that informed the establishment of the Minaj systems is to project African events, people and places, and to examine global events from African perspective. It is also to highlight the positive aspects of African people and culture.

The Minajgroups have sophisticated equipment for effective broadcasting. In trying to achieve its objectives, Minaj systems are doing their best in newsgathering, presentation and analysis; entertainment and overall programmes production.

The Challenges of Private Broadcasting In Nigeria

As matter of general overview, the challenges facing the broadcast media in a deregulated broadcast environment in respect of coverage and broadcast are fundamentally the same before deregulation. However, with the advent of private participation in broadcasting, the methods and style of coverage have become divergent, but the challenges are largely the same. Key factors that amplify the divergence are ownership and control of the broadcasting media, funding and revenue sources, methodology of reporting and philosophy, etc of these stations.

By Law, the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) is empowered to regulate all broadcasting stations in Nigeria (whether public or private).

Secondly, publicly or privately owned stations, operate in the same broadcast environment and carry out basically the same duty of providing information, education and entertainment to the public. One area of difference is the area of funding and revenue courses. While the public stations receive subventions, budgetary and extra-budgetary allocations from government and similarly compete with private stations for advertisement revenue, the private stations receive nothing either as subvention or grant or any financial assistance whatsoever. Yet, they devote a large percentage of their airtime and revenue to public service programmes. The private stations are yet to reap their own dividends of democracy.

As indicated earlier, the deregulated broadcast environment has not altered the basic foundations, services, ethnics, professionalism and rules of practice recognized over the years. However, the broadcasting media has continued to face challenges of political, economic, social and legal dimensions.

It is well known fact that some of the duties being performed by the media are constitutional, while some have been assigned or consigned to the media as a result of customary practice, experience or convenience over the years. For example section 22 of the 1999 Constitution imposed an obligation on:

“The press, radio, television and other agencies of the mass media shall at all times be free to uphold the fundamental objective contained in this chapter (i.e chapter II of the constitution) and uphold the responsibility and accountability of the Government to the People”. Chapter II of the Constitution spells out the Fundamental objectives and directive principles of state policy.

If the broadcasting media must continue to retain the faith and patronage of the public, it must therefore, resolve to provide impartial, credible, non-partisan reportage and coverage of all political activities without discrimination, fear or favour. Media practitioners must courageously resolve to uphold the ethical practice rather than subject it to the vagaries of politic. Plurality of pinion must be upheld and given expression as a democratic and fundamental right. This is a challenge.

Neutrality

Broadcasting media must not only be neutral and non-partisan in its coverage of events, it must, indeed be seen to play a neutral and non-partisan role. Journalists engaged as employees in the broadcasting media must exhibit professionalism and eschew being sympathetic to any political party to avoid conflict of interest in the performance of their professional duties. This is yet another challenge.

Equitable To The Media

Broadcasting media whether publicly or privately owned are public trust. In other words, the operators and proprietors of these stations are trustees of the public. This therefore, imposes on them the duty to ensure and provide equitable access to the use of their facilities by all legally qualified candidates in political arena within their areas of coverage as a matter of fundamental obligation.

Accessibility to the use of broadcast facilities by all qualified candidates, political parties and group is crucial and this is challenge to the broadcasting media.

Funding Of The Broadcasting Media

There is the problem of funding and the gargantuan challenge it poses to broadcasting in general.

Broadcasting is a capital – intensive venture. Private broadcasting media even face more jeopardy in terms of funding. Private broadcasting stations receive no subventions or grants whatsoever from government or from any quarter. They are therefore exposed to greater challenges in terms of raising revenue to meet the challenge to coverage of issues and events.

Revenue from advertising which is the main source of income to private broadcasting stations has continued to dwindle over the years. Broadcast equipment and facilities are imported and purchased in hard currency. Private stations do not enjoy any duty waiver or relief of any kind from the government. This is in spite of the fact that these stations also engage in the provision of public and social services programmes. Hence, the issue of funding remains a perennial problem and challenge to the performance and the discharge of the duties imposed on broadcast media, especially, the private media which receives no financial assistance whatsoever from any quarter.

Funds required to meet the challenges of adequate coverage and broadcasting is enormous. Broadcasting stations are partners with government in the provision of social services to the national and should be given special grants like other institutions, to meet some of their costs. A special grant should be given to these stations by the government as subsidy or assistance in surmounting the financial difficulties being faced by the broadcasting media. The challenges posed to private stations by the funding are real, fundamental and crippling.

Challenge Of Patriotic Reportage

The business of reportage is a serious one that must not be toyed with. It must be done with all sense with all sense of duty, responsibility and patriotism. Media practitioners must abhor unnecessary sensation they may cause tension in the country. The promotion of the peace, progress and harmony of the various peoples and communities that make up Nigeria should therefore, be duty of everyone.

The electronic media has a fundamental role to play in providing education and information to both the people and the

government. Therefore, the place of the media in the provision of needed leadership, is at the forefront. The electronic media and the media in general cannot afford to mislead the people or fail in its onerous responsibility to the nation. This is yet another challenge on a long list of challenges facing the all broadcast stations especially the privately – owned.

Summary And Conclusion

The advent of Private Broadcasting in Nigeria has indeed made a great impact in the media industry in Nigeria. So far the private media stations have done well and there is considerable growth and development in the industry.

The establishment of private broadcasting outfits brought about balance in the industry, ensuring that objective information on events and issues are given. It has brought about healthy competition and more variety for the Nigeria media audience the numerous challenges notwithstanding.

References

- Aihie, O. (1997). "Broadcasting, the pains of path finding".
- Edemode, J. (2005). Oral interview: Thursday 25th July, 2005, Benson Idahosa University, Benin City.
- Njoku, A.I. (2010). "Privatization of Broadcast Media in Nigeria: A curse or a blessing " unpublished Seminar Presentation, NIPR Forum, Benin City.
- Ojir, O. O. (2014). "What They cannot teach you in Broadcasting". Ibadan: Safari Books Limited.*
- Oxford Learners Dictionary, 1998*
- Udeaja, R. A. (2004). *"Broadcasting and Politics in Nigeria: 1963-2003. Enugu: Acena Press, www.aitinfotech.com/ait.htm "DAAR Communication" www.allafrica.com*

Media, Oil Multinationals and Climate Change in Nigeria

KINGSLEY AGHOGHO EDAFIENENE*

AND

JOSEPHINE OSATOHANMWEN ADEYEYE**

Abstract

The disrupting arguments over whether global warming is man-made or natural is yet unresolved in the scientific, political and scholarly arena. In view of this debate, this paper focused on epistemological studies that underpinned the overarching discourse of global warming to the operations of technological advancement in late modernity that is often accompanied by catastrophic risk to humans and environment. Notable theorists in the risk society thesis noted that the activities of humans in late industrialism have resulted in nature striking back for having been so cruelly treated or inappropriately managed. In the twenty-first century, climate change due to industrialisation became world concern which transcended into a whole new level of political dominance and debate. Industrialisation by oil multinationals in Nigeria has exacerbated the risk of global warming due to constant gas flaring and laxity to effectual clean-up of oil spillage. Scientific consensus on global warming indicates that the burning of fossil fuel has increased the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere thereby causing the earth to warm up. The mass media have always been in the front burner of climate change discourse because experts use the media to disseminate information on global warming and journalist in turn draw assurance from scientific and risk expert analysis, since their own training is of course insufficient to equip them

with the necessary critical base. This study reviewed the arguments surrounding climate change debate and also proffered new insights on effective media communication to modulate public-policy concerns of global warming.

Key words: Media, Climate Change, Industrialisation, Oil Multinationals

Introduction

The discovery of crude oil in Nigeria in 1956 heralded the influx of oil multinationals that propelled commercial business activities nationally and internationally through oil exploration (Udok and Akpan, 2017). Nigeria is about the largest oil producer in Africa and the 11th largest in the world. The operations of oil multinationals in developing countries, especially in Nigeria's Niger Delta region has triggered risk of environmental hazards and degradation. The activities of oil multinationals have been in the front burner of global topical discourse on climate change (Idowu, 1999; Akpan, 2008; Udok and Akpan, 2017). Issues of constant gas flaring, oil spillage and deep sea disposal of poisonous substances that affects the environment by oil multinationals operating in Nigeria have been raised in the public-policy domain (Idris, 2007; Ransome-Kuti, 2007; Adewale and Mustapha, 2015). According to Beck (1992) the production of wealth through industrialisation is systematically followed by that of risk as an outcome of industrialisation through technological advancement. The awareness of oil multinational activities as it affects the environment and humans have greatly increased

*Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

** Josephine Osatohanmwon Adeyeye is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

JCDMRJournal Of Communication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

and metamorphosed into ideologies that explain deviations from norms, misfortune and frightening events (Greene, 2006). Oil exploration and exploitation and its chaotic manifestation and contingencies intensified a new way of viewing the globe with a dominant and unexpected influence and the consequences that we face (Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006), which assumes human activities and that something can be done to avert environmental disaster such as global warming (Lupton: 1999). Most scientists have acknowledged that the rapid warming the earth is experiencing is as a result of man-made or human activities through industrialisation such as the burning of fossil fuel that contains gasses such as carbon dioxide, methane and oxide of nitrogen that depletes the ozone layer (Paterson, 1996; Pittock, 2005; Udok and Akpan, 2017). Most discussion about climate change is predicted on the premise of gradual increase in earth's temperature, albeit at rates higher than experienced in the last few decades; due to the release of greenhouse gases stored in the atmosphere which has brought about abrupt climate change with specific concern about the rise in sea level (Peterson, 1996).

The recognition that the activities of humans are responsible for climate change prompted the United States and government of other nations to act. Concerns over climate change quickly became a global affair and inspired a flurry of international conferences beginning in 1980s with the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) on a major scientific and intellectual assessment of the state of global warming (Paterson, 1996). As the impetus on climate change was maintained, it gained political dominance and debate and heralded more international treaty globally. By 1992, Rio de Janeiro hosted the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), wherein developed nations

constituted and signed United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) and adopted unilateral targets to reduce gas emissions to avoid the uprising of global warming (Paterson, 1996; Markandya and Halsnaes, 2002). However, this triggered strong debate and opposing views over scientific knowledge on whether the earth's climate is actually warming or not. Previous United Nations climate meetings were often marred with such intense disagreement. Harvey (2018) noted that the Paris climate summit in a bid to seal the deal on global climate change led to one hundred and fifty countries submitting plans on limiting their greenhouse gas emissions beyond 2020. Thus, this commitment accounts for ninety percent of global economy and should reduce global warming of no more than 2.7°C, according to analysis, which is still insufficient of the 2°C limits which scientists and experts believe would avoid the catastrophic and irreversible warming. The implication of the reduction in emission for developing nations is that their growth rate in industrialisation will be affected but compensated with a financial package worth \$100 billion annually. However, this figure would likely be met by 2020 deadline. While developed nations may seem to agree to the proposal to support developing nations financially and also advance the Framework Convention for sustainable development and climate change policy objectives, most developing nations believe climate change is a hoax as they need industrialisation for development (Markandya and Halsnaes, 2002; Dessler and Parson, 2006).

The concept of global warming has attracted intense socio-scientific research for two core purposes: First, the increasing complexity of modern technologies and of the organisations that govern our lives. Second, the evidence that uncertainty

and risk of global climate change are endemic, and that technological advancement and social institutions are unable to eliminate it. The issue of socio-political questions of competence and the challenge of risk associated with oil companies operations are widely raised in public-policy domain because the capacity for resolution through technical resources alone is limited, once risk issues become politicized (Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006). There is need to consider the increasing complexity of the processes involved in oil exploration and exploitation by oil companies in Nigeria, both in terms of the coordination of myriad activities in planning and in terms of the institutions through which risk activities are governed, and the widespread in public knowledge of flaw in risk management that account for the peculiar modern force of risk concept (Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006, p. 2).

Conceptual Framework on Risk Society Thesis

Risk society thesis have been largely developed by Ulrich Beck and seconded by Anthony Giddens. Beck's work on risk society (1992) has been influential in the field of theorizing risk emanating from human activities. Beck (1992b, p. 19) noted that the production of wealth through industrialisation of human activities have produced risk in an unprecedented scale that has affected the environment in which we now live as an outcome of modernization. According to Beck (1992b, p. 13-23; 1995, p.13) risks associated with industrialisation are irreversible threats to mankind, plants and animals. The nature of contemporary risk such as global climate change cannot be measured spatially, temporally and socially; and that individuals in industrial societies are constantly faced with risk and uncertainty in an unprecedented scale which is often open-

ended rather than occurrences which have a foreseeable end. Beck (1992b, p. 3) differentiates risks to humans and their environment into three eras: pre-industrialism, early industrialism and late industrialism. Beck (1995, p. 30) noted that risks in pre industrialism era are threats such as famine, plague and natural disasters which were attributed to external or supernatural forces and were deemed incalculable. In early industrialism, these threats have changed into calculable risk due to advancement of instrumental rational control, while in late industrialism the processes of calculating risk and uncertainty fail in risk society. According to Beck (1996b, p. 31) risk in late industrialism cannot be easily predicted or calculated because of its non-localised nature and long term effect such as global climate change. Furthermore, risk and threats in late modernity or industrialism cannot be prevented by any organisation or compensated for its damages, given the degree of the threat.

Giddens (1991, p. 3) in his writing further strengthened Becks concept of risk society in late industrialism which is strongly linked to human activities which are catastrophic in nature and widespread than in previous eras. Beck (1996b, p. 2) noted that through the activities of humans globally in the industrial phase, the world have transcended into world risk society, in which the enormity of risks and uncertainty confronting humanity has created a new type of global citizenship, which have transformed into new 'alliances of ad hoc activist groups', a new and distinct kind of politics beyond conventional chain of command. Lupton (1999, p. 65) quipped that uncertainty and threat to mankind and its environment as a result of global warming led to world politics and controversy over human activities which has resulted 'in nature striking

back for having been so cruelly treated or inappropriately managed’.

The concern over risk and uncertainty in the case of global warming in contemporary era largely escapes perception (Beck, 1992b, p. 21). In the late industrialism phase, risks and threats are ascribed to be humanly generated rather than supernatural and external forces; these modern catastrophes are considered as the responsibility of humans to control and avert (Giddens, 1990; Beck, 1992b). Thus, these threats exist in scientific knowledge rather than in everyday experience (Lupton, 1999). According to Giddens (1994, p. 186) knowledge has generated greater uncertainty, the fact that experts disagree has become a known position for almost everyone. In the public-policy domain, science and industry are responsible for the threats about which they are concerned (Denny, 2005). ‘Scientists have therefore lost authority in relation to risk assessments: scientific calculations are challenged more and more by political groups and activists’ (Becks, 1995 in Lupton 1999, p. 64).

While Beck and Giddens perspective on risk society may seem influential in modern society, however their conceptual framework have been criticised in terms of empirical and theoretical evidence. The criticisms over their perspective is the prevalent use of language due to the consequences of industrialisation in late modernity and existential situation of humans and their world may be misleading (Rose, 1996). Other criticisms circled around their risk framework that their perspectives have broad and loose assumptions about technological advancement and risk society, without grounding these specifically enough in the real circumstances and experiences of institutions and everyday life. Despite these

criticisms, Beck and Giddens perspectives on risk in contemporary societies have been influential in Anglophone sociology (Lupton, 1999, 82). Regardless of these deficiencies, Beck and Giddens perspectives on risk remains relevant to this paper over the debate of late industrialism as it affects our environment especially climate change.

Media and Policy Agenda-Setting

Previous years of government policies in the Nigeria Niger Delta region was perceived as ‘half-hearted and mischievous in intent and negative in manifestation leaning towards incremental and or disjointed implementation theory of policy making’ (Akpan, 2008, p. 307). Issues of risk emanating from burning of fossil fuel and gas flaring that is a major contributory factor to global warming has been in the forefront of public-policy debate between government and affected host communities in Nigeria (Idowu, 1999; Akpan, 2008; Udok and Akpan, 2017). The former president of Nigeria Olusegun Obasanjo (1999-2007) signed a non-binding agreement with oil multinational corporations to end gas flaring in Niger Delta by 2008 (Friends of the Earth, 2004; Climate Justice Programme, 2005). According to Odusina, a former Nigerian Minister of State for Energy and Gas in 2008 noted that the federal government does not yet have a definite date to put an end to gas flaring as it would be capital intensive and that key projects that would end gas flaring were yet to be completed, one of such project was the multi-million-dollar Compressed Natural Gas (CNG) plant being built by Nigerian Independent Petroleum Company (NIPCO). According to Odusina, if the Oil companies executed the necessary route to end gas flaring five years ago, the issue would have ended by now but instead,

oil multinationals prefer to pay the fine imposed as penalty for continuous flaring of natural gas rather than to put an end to it (Aliu, 2008).

The move by the federal government of Nigeria to end gas flare by 2020 with a three point strategy has no solid foundation considering negligent legislative backing and weak regulatory framework, as well as, low incentives. The president of Nigeria Association for Energy Economics (NAEE), Prof. Wumi Iledare, quipped that incentives, legislative backing and infrastructure for ending gas flaring are currently unavailable (Ebiri, 2018). According to Akpan (2008), the formation of one policy after another appears to be incremental and ends up suffering from disjointed implementation. Incremental policy is a situation where a policy maker 'uses practical devices which do not pretend to search for comprehensive solutions that may be difficult or even impossible, to achieve' (Adebayo, 1986: 33). Thus, in regulating one policy after another, the whole succession may seem disjointed and each tried solution is another incremental of the other (Adebayo, 1986). The Nigerian media are passive and not active in influencing policies in Nigeria. For media agenda setting to occur, issues must be given a significant amount of media coverage, which indicates the extent to which the media agenda has been set. By extension, policy agenda-setting is marked by the emergence and importance of the issues or events in the public policy field (Rogers and Dearing, 1988 cited in Whitney, 1991, p. 348). Thus, theory of policy agenda-setting asserts that the media draw public attention to significant societal issues and problems; 'this media agenda influences the public's awareness of, and concerns about, such issues; in turn, the public agenda may influence the policy agenda and policy implementation' (Berger, 2001, p. 94).

McComb and Shaw (1972) hypothesize that the media emphasize on the significance of an issue in order to influence public and decision makers' attitude. This is because media have the ability to create social amplification and attenuation of risk occurrence, generate moral panic and can frame and construct media, public and policy agendas (Bakir, 2006; Miles and Morse 2007 in Campbell, 2008). The media pre-determine which risk issues are important by focusing on the magnitude, quality and nature of mass mediated risk information. There are two structural processes which the media uses to influence policy agenda – namely, priming and framing (Porche, 2004). Priming employs the cognitive psychology process the media uses to construct an idea in a person's or the public's mind by increasing the salience of an issue through semantic pathways or previously acquired information (Porche, 2004; Moy, Tewksbury and Rinke, 2016). The media use this process to retrieve and store information (Rogers and Dearing, 1988) in the mind and also prepare its audience or readers for what the media intend to mediate in the future (Porche, 2004). Consequently, priming constructs public attitudes through media agenda-setting by showing or attracting the public's attention to significant issues (Rogers and Dearing, 1988). Framing is the method the media use to focus the general public's attention to a particular aspect of an issue, thereby shaping the public's opinion on issues to be discussed and prioritized in the society (Porche, 2004; Bakir, 2006; Tewksbury, 2015). In addition, framing is the selection of some features of perceived reality and the construction of them to be more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a specific quandary definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation and / or treatment recommendation for the item depicted (Oladeinde

and Ajibola, 2008). This hypothesized function of the media does not tell its audience or readers what to think but what to think about (Nwanne, 2006; McCombs and Shaw, 1972; Rogers and Dearing, 1988; Moy, Tewksbury and Rinke, 2016). 'While the mass media may have little influence on the direction or intensity of attitudes, it is hypothesized that the mass media set the agenda for each political or scientific campaign, influencing the salience of attitudes towards political issue' (McCombs and Shaw, 1972, p. 177).

Studies suggest that the media's role in setting policy agenda in risk issues is under-explored in Nigeria. However, considering the position of policy-makers and corporate decision-makers to risk management, it is imperative for studies to unpick how political and corporate management react to risk issues (global climate change) raised by or through the media on behalf of stakeholders. 'Here, questions arise over the role played by established institutions, pressure groups, interest groups and media in strategically mobilizing publics over time to influence policy-making in scientific risk issues' (Bakir, 2008, p. 4). It will therefore be timely for media organisations to conduct historical and longitudinal studies, as risk issues are difficult to permanently resolve in policy making. This study suggests that communicative, political and social context are fundamental in understanding risk reporting (Palfreman, 2006; Bakir, 2006; Bakir, 2008).

Media and Risk Communication

Risk communication is a two-way or multi-directional communication that deals with affected population in a crisis scenario so that they can make timely decisions to protect themselves and their surroundings. Risk communication brings

together diverse range of expertise in the field of communication and social sciences in order to strengthen communication techniques to achieve public health goals in crises situation (Gamhewage, 2014). Risk communication emerged as a prerequisite to bridge the gap in knowledge between scientific and expert assessment of risk to unconvinced lay audience (Frewer, 2000 in Bakir, 2006). Thus, risk communication aims to understand how risk knowledge is apparently exchanged within and between individuals in the society (Petts, Horlick-Jones, and Murdock, 2001; Gamhewage, 2014). Risk communication has over the years become increasingly widespread, owing to concerns of uncertainty and risk of industrialisation that has attracted global constituency of interest within the public-policy domain (Horlick-Jones, Sime and Pidgeon, 2003). Consequent upon this, with the rapid growth of modern media technology and significant social cultural fragmentation have produced politicisation of risk issues (Beck, 1992).

A pertinent aspect of risk communication research is the Social Amplification of Risk Framework (SARF) coined by Kasperson and colleagues from Clark University as a response to the disjuncture between the multifarious parts of risk research, to rectify the deficit of our knowledge about the social process that can mediate between a risk and its outcomes. The SARF attempts to explain the dynamics of social process underlying risk response and perception embedded within risk amplification and attenuation (Kasperson. Kasperson, Pidgeon and Slovic, 2003). Within the risk amplification framework, risk and uncertainty which experts assessment rate as relatively low triggers public-policy debate and activities and generates interest and concerns in the

society, while risk attenuation are hazards and events which experts assess as relatively high in risk but receive comparatively little attention from the media and society (Petts, Horlick-Jones, and Murdock, 2001). In line with this framework, scientists and scholars quipped that journalistic idea of balanced and continuous media exposure are insufficient for news reportage on scientific issues such as global warming (Palfreman, 2005). Risk experts often complain that the media exaggerate risk that pose insignificant threats and uncertainty to the public and downplay those that have a high propensity of danger (Taylor-gooby and Zinn, 2006). The prevailing notion in risk research arena is that the media are dramatic in sacrificing objectivity for sensationalism. Another class of researcher noted that the media tend to focus on rare but dramatic hazards, and often fall short of reporting more common but serious risk (Wahlberg and Sjoberg, 2000).

Risk reportage guided by journalistic institutional traditions and norms have little relationship to actual threat directions (Taylor-gooby and Zinn, 2006). Risk reporting clustering around major risk occurrences, ‘ignoring multi-causal, long-term or hypothetical risks and influenced by commitments to ‘balance’ and ‘truth’, both concepts liable to founder against the value-laden rocks of uncertainty when reporting risk’ (Bakir, 2008, P. 2). Research paths in examining mediated-risk reporting offered two main routes – media’s role in disseminating risk knowledge to inform citizens, and in regulating public acceptability towards diverse risks. However, media risk research suggests that these routes lack methodology and research foci, enabling new sense of research directions. Accordingly, with reference to methodology, there is need for continuous, contextual and interpretative analysis of

effects of mediated risk at micro and macro level, ‘and more in-depth, comparative studies between different risk types across different media forms and genres’ (Bakir, 2008, p. 1). Research foci include: the gaps in knowledge within the process of making news and the construction of reality; the features of risks event that make it a risk issue and how these features interrelate with diverse media forms, audience and genre; and the implications it has in audience trust in diverse media and in mass-mediated risk knowledge and experience (Bakir, 2008).

Media reporting has its root embedded in theories that emerged from the norms and practice of media functions of gatekeeping and agenda-setting which have been an imperative requisite for media coverage of national and international occurrence of risk and scientific issues (Ekeanyanwu, 2005). However, one major pitfall in this process of news selection that may affect media coverage on scientific issues are factors involved in influencing gatekeeping such as management policy, preference of the audience, perceived needs, political orientation, ideological perspective, ownership pattern, timing and how risk issues are considered news worthy (Tuchman, 1978; Gans, 1979; Ekeanyanwu, 2005 in Tobechukwu and Oluwaseun, 2008).

Reasons for Climate Change in Nigeria

The core reason for climate change in Nigeria is due to the rise of industrialization which began more than five decade ago. The upsurge of industries in Nigeria heralded the beginning of industrial chemical formulas and waste disposal posing great danger to Nigerians and its environment. The prevailing danger of global warming in Nigeria is owed to the operations

of oil multinationals in Nigeria. Globally, experts asserts that gas flaring is a contributory factor to climate change; however, this is a daily occurrence in areas where oil multinationals operate in Nigeria.

Methodological and epistemological studies on the operations of oil multinationals in Nigeria have consistently revealed the enormity of risk issues associated with oil exploitation and exploration that has grave consequences on the environment. Over the years, environmental issues emanating from oil exploration in Nigeria have been in the front burner of public-policy debate and also discourse and contestation by oil host communities (Idowu, 1999; Akpan, 2008; Udok and Akpan, 2017). The discourse of risk as it affects the environment in the public-policy arena in Nigeria is anchored on the modernist notion that epitomized a new way of viewing the unforeseen consequences of the operations of oil multinationals and its chaotic manifestation and contingencies. This has, however, exerted a dominant and naturally unexpected influence on the difficulties and problems faced in areas where oil is explored especially in Niger Delta's region (Taylor-Gooby and Zinn, 2006). Consequent upon this, it is assumed that uncertainty of global warming and its unforeseen outcome is as a result of human activities through industrialisation (Giddens, 1990; 1992). According to Beck (1992, p. 19) 'the production of wealth is systematically followed by that of risk as an outcome of modernization.

Therefore, individuals in these industrialized societies have to deal with risk on a daily basis'. Gas flaring is a momentous risk issue associated with global warming through the activities of multinational oil corporations. Flaring natural gas from oil stations as a by-product of crude oil production has

become a normal occurrence that dominates the skyline in the Niger Delta (Ukala, 2011). Oil production began in Nigeria's Niger Delta about fifty years ago and so did the practice of ceaseless flaring of Associated Gas (AG) twenty-four hours a day. More Greenhouse gas (GHG) is flared in Nigeria's Niger Delta than anywhere else in the world and this has placed Nigeria as one of the biggest gas flarer in the world. Currently, there are more than hundred gas flaring stations in Nigeria (Friends of the Earth, 2004; Ishisone, 2004; Idris, 2007; Afamefuna, 2008; Ubani and Onyejekwe, 2013). According to World Bank report, gas flaring in Nigeria's Niger Delta has contributed more GHG's to earth's atmosphere than all other oil producing nations in Sub-Saharan Africa combined. Flaring natural gas poses severe risk to the world's climate (Climate Justice Programme, 2005; Friends of the Earth, 2004; Ubani and Onyejekwe, 2013).

Emissions from combustion of Associated Gas (AG) contains widely recognized toxins, such as benzene, nitrogen oxides, dioxins, hydrogen sulphide, xylene, and toluene; which pollute the air and are harmful to plants and animals is now prevalent as a result from exposure to heat from gas flares (Janak, 2006; Idris, 2007; Ukala, 2011). Gas flaring is unfriendly to the environment because it literally destroys vulnerable natural resources and contributes immensely to global climate change (Adewale and Mustapha, 2015). However, gas flaring produces greenhouse gases (GHG's), carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and propane as toxic substances are emitted in flares such as burning of fossil fuel which warms up the Earth (Ishisone, 2004; Idris, 2007; Ubani and Onyejekwe, 2013). Scientific consensus on climate change indicate that the burning of fossil fuel have increased the amount of carbon

dioxide (CO₂) in the atmosphere by fifteen percent during the last century and at present temperature is rising by 0.4 percent yearly. However, this process of emitting CO₂ warms the lower atmosphere at high latitude (Paterson, 1996). 'World Bank estimated that about 10 percent of global CO₂ emission comes from flaring. Nigeria gas flaring alone releases 35 million tons of CO₂ and 12 million tons of CH₄ which has a higher warming potential than CO₂' (Ishisone, 2004, p. 4).

Global warming poses danger to the earth and has over the years become a high profile debate in the globe since most part of the world started experiencing rise in sea levels ([Nuccitelli](#), 2018). In Nigeria most areas affected by flooding have major industries located there, like oil companies. As the earth warms, glaciers / ice in the arctic region melts and the defrost ice increase the volume of water and cause rise in sea level (Pittock, 2005; Dessler and Person, 2006). In addition, gas flaring and oil spillage have harmful effect on eco-system and human beings. According to US government, flaring of natural gas contributes to acid rain which corrodes building materials, destroys vegetation and acidifies lakes, streams and river (Idris, 2007; Udok and Akpan, 2017). One crucial point to note is the risk associated with gas flaring on land, that is, any land that have been used for gas flaring is almost permanently unfit for farming due to desiccation of soil; and it usually takes about forty years for the affected land to renew itself (Omoweh, 1998; Udok and Akpan, 2017).

Climate Change Controversy

Scientific knowledge and analysis of global climate change is under intense controversy and debate (Kitcher, 2010). The climate issue has triggered forceful, and at times bizarre public

debate, that at times seem to turn experts against each other on even the most common facts, such as whether greenhouse gas emissions dominate natural one, whether the climate temperature is actually warming or whether the burning of fossil fuel that produces carbon dioxide alters the earth emission of thermal radiation to space. In late modernity, the climate change debate has spread far beyond scientific arena and into the media and public-policy domain, where politics and contempt are legion (Sherwood, 2011). Lupton (1999) noted that assessment of risk issues, by its very nature, is always insufficient, because the risk calculations depend upon abstract knowledge systems which are subject to contestations and change (Lupton, 1999). Hence, the frequent disagreements between experts which are prevalent are the very attributes that have left concerned citizens in the public-policy domain confused (Giddens, 1994). Individuals in industrial societies now view science and industry as responsible for the threats and uncertainty about which they are concerned (Denny, 2005). Thus, expert and scientists knowledge on risk assessment calculation are viewed with suspicion and no longer taken seriously by political groups and activists (Becks, 1992; Lupton 1999).

In the risk expert and scientific domain, nearly all are in consensus that human activities are responsible for the emission of greenhouse gases that has led to significant warming to the earth and will likely cause much more if not controlled. Thus, scientists and expert have adopted techniques and instrument of risk analysis in an attempt to measure the uncertainties and outcomes as well as to recognize the limits and thresholds beyond which the changes in global climate change might be considered unacceptable (Lorenzoni, 2005).

Scientific knowledge of global climate change is anchored on several activities of humans that has led to rise in earth's temperature in the last several decades such as the release of oxide of nitrogen and methane from industries, waste gases as a result of burning of fossil fuel that produces carbon dioxide, cropping and irrigation, land clearing and farm animals (Pittock, 2005; Nuccitelli, 2018). Thus, these human activities has made earth's temperature to warm by about 0.4% annually (Paterson, 1996). Expert consensus asserts that the rapid warming of the earth has contributed to defrosting of glaciers which melts into the ocean thereby causing the water to rise above sea level; the earth is experiencing severe flooding in diverse region of the world. Scientist experiment conducted with tide gauge revealed that sea level rose by 1.5mm per year in the twentieth century than in the nineteenth century as the climate warms (Pittock, 2005; Dessler and Parson, 2006).

Despite the wide spread of scientific consensus that global warming is linked to the activities of humans, a growing number of scientists believe that global warming is a hoax and it is not happening. Their argument is based on the premise that climate will continue to cool and warm on different time scale and diverse reason regardless of human activities on the earth (Singer, 2007). These set of scientists believe that human contribution of greenhouse gases is insignificant to contribute to global climate change because in the last decade despite increase in industrialization and greenhouse emission the earth's climate has not warmed (Science Daily, 2001; Singer 2007; ProCon.org, 2018).

Climate Change and the Way Forward in Nigeria

The heated debate surrounding scientific knowledge such as whether the earth is warming or not and if it is human induced or a natural occurrence has not been resolved. However, there is more scientific consensus that global climate change is happening and what can avert the catastrophic effect on earth is the reduction of greenhouse gases. In Nigeria, one of the areas that need to be given utmost attention is the constant gas flaring in areas where oil multinationals and major industries operate. The Nigeria government should not only adopt unilateral targets to reduce greenhouse gas but enforce it. The federal government of Nigeria should strengthen the legislative and regulatory framework as well as incentive in order to end gas flaring in Nigeria by 2020 thereby making their three point strategy work (Ebiri, 2018). The government, media institutions and non – governmental agencies should create more awareness to Nigerians on energy conservation. There is need for Nigerian journalists to be trained on scientific reporting to broaden their narrative horizons in order to disseminate not just the facts (physical narrative) about the risk (climate change) but how Nigerians perceive (psychological subtext) the risk and why (Palfreman, 2006).

Conclusion

It is plausible that in late modernity, human activities through industrialisation have increased greenhouse gases which have become world concern. Although, the debate over whether the earth is warming or not and if it is human-induced or natural is unresolved in the scientific field and public-policy domain. The heated argument over whether the earth is warming or not between scientists, political figures and policy commentators

has undesirably left the public confused. It has even become more difficult for lay public to measure the strengths of competing arguments of advocates over global warming. Issues of science assessment of global warming being incomplete and often contradictory in facts and details have heightened public concerns over uncertainty, scepticism in decision makers and ideological representations that different advocates are presenting in climate change debate. However, public concerns and perceptions of the crucial and complex scientific issues and debates surrounding global climate change have affected public policy, 'which, in turn tend to be strongly affected by mass media coverage' (Palfreman, 2006, p. 23).

The media is an effective instrument in the discourse of risk issues and the controversy that frequently arises in the expert and public-policy arena if properly harnessed. It is evident from this study that gas flaring is detrimental to human and the environment and has contributed to GHGs which is a causative factor to global warming. Journalists, global warming advocates and stakeholders should launch media campaigns and documentary regularly through diverse forms of media and genres to constantly update the government and Nigerians on the catastrophic effect of gas flaring and its effect on the climate. Through priming, framing and continuous media coverage of the spiralling effects of gas flaring in affected communities can set the agenda to influence policy makers to end the act of gas flaring in Nigeria. Since journalist lack the critical necessary base of reporting scientific issues and most times over and under report risks, there is need for media houses to frequently organise seminars and conferences where journalist will be given the requisite training to understand the complexities of scientific matters. Training of journalist will

avoid scientists and risk experts blaming journalist for lack of journalistic idea of appropriate balance coverage and news reportage on scientific matters. There is need for more mass media research on scientific issues than mere reporting on global climate change that tends to focus on a central knowledge rather than in-depth analysis. In terms of in-depth analysis of scientific issues and climate change, there is need for mediated risk at micro and macro level. This study suggests new directions (longitudinal, historic, contextual and interpretative) in mass mediated risk communication for effective reportage on climate change and other risk related events to influence public-policy framework and modulate public acceptability of risks.

References

- Afamefunu, A, C (2008) Mainstreaming Communication for Development in the Resolution of the Niger Delta Conflict. In *Media, Dialogue, Peace Building and Reconciliation: Conference proceedings* (eds.), Mojaye, E.M., Arhagba, E., Soola, E and Oso, L., 220-229. Nigeria, Africa Council for Communication Education Delta State Chapter.
- Adebayo, A (1986) *Power in Politics*. Ibadan - Nigeria: Spectrum Books Limited.
- Adewale, O.O and Mustapha, U (2015) The Impact of Gas Flaring in Nigeria. *International Journal of Science, Technology and Society* 2015; 3(2): 40-50. (<http://www.sciencepublishinggroup.com/j/ijsts>) doi: 10.11648/j.ijsts.20150302.12 ISSN: 2330-7420 (Online)

- Akpan, U, U (2008) Media Support: An Essential for Successful Policies in the Multi-Ethnic Niger Delta. In Media, Dialogue, Peace Building and Reconciliation: Conference proceedings (eds.), Mojaye, E.M., Arhagba, E., Soola, E and Oso, L., 306-310. Nigeria, Africa Council for Communication Education Delta State Chapter.
- Aliu, A. O (2008) No Date on Gas Flaring Stoppage, Says Minister. The Nigerian Gurdian, August 24th 2008, Vol. 26, No 10, 833.
- Bakir, V and Barlow, M (2007) Exploring Relationships between Trust Studies and Media Studies. In Communication in the age of Suspicion Trust and the Media (Eds.), V.
- Bakir and D. M, Barlow 9-24. UK, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bakir, V and Barlow, M (2007) The Age of Suspicion. In Communication in the Age of Suspicion Trust and the Media (eds) V. Bakir and D. M, Barlow 3-8. UK, Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bakir, V. (2006) 'Policy Agenda Setting and Risk Communication: Greenpeace, Shell, and Issues of Trust'. Press/Politics 11(3): 1-22
- Bakir, V. (2010) Media and Risk: Old and New Research Directions. Journal of Risk Research, 13: 1, 5 – 18
- Beck, U, (1995b) The Reinvention of Politics: Towards a Theory of Reflexive Modernization. In Beck, U., Giddens, A., Lash., S. (eds) Reflexive Modernization:

Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene and Josephine Osatohanmwun Adeyeye: Media, Oil Multinationals and Climate change in Nigeria.

Politics, Tradition and Aesthetics in the Modern Social Order 1-55. Cambridge: Polity Press

Beck, U. (1992a) From Industrial Society to the Risk Society: Questions of Survival, Social Structure and Ecological Environment. *Theory, Culture and Society*, 9, 97-123.

Beck, U. (1992b) *Risk Society: Towards a New Modernity*. London: Sage.

Beck, U. (1995a) *Ecological Politics in the Age of Risk*. Cambridge: polity Press.

Beck, U. (1996a) Risk Society and the Provident State. In Lash, S., Szerszinski, B. and Wynne, B. (eds), *Risk, Environment and Modernity: Towards a New Ecology*. London: Sage, pp.27-43.

Beck, U. (1996b) World Risk Society as Cosmopolitan Society? Ecological Questions in a Framework of Manufactured Uncertainties. *Theory, Culture and Society*, 13(4), 1-32.

Berger, B. K. (2001) Private Issues and Public Policy: Locating the cooperate Agenda in Agenda Setting Theory. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 13(2), 91-126.

Climate Justice Programme (2005) *Gas Flaring in Nigeria: A Human Rights, Environmental and Economic Monstrosity*.

<<http://www.foei.org/en/publications/pdfs/gasnigeria.pdf>> 15 December 2007

- Covello, V. T (2010) Risk Communication - Principles, Tools, & Techniques.< <https://www.nrc.gov/public-involve/conference-symposia/ric/past/2010/slides/th39covellovpv.pdf>> 27 June, 2010
- Denney, D. (2005) Risk and Society: London, Sage Publication.
- Dessler, E. A and Parson, A. E (2006) The Science and Politics of Global Climate Change: A Guide to the Debate. University Press, Cambridge.
- Ebiri, K (2018) Why Nigeria Cannot End Gas Flaring in 2020 – Experts. <<https://guardian.ng/news/why-nigeria-cannot-end-gas-flaring-in-2020-experts/>>5th October, 2018
- Ekeanyanwu, N. T (2005) The Nigerian Press and Political Conflict Reporting: A Case Study of the Ngige-Uba Political Conflict In Anambra State. In Yakubu, A. M. et al (Eds) Crisis and Conflict Management in Nigeria Since 1980, Kaduna: Nigerian Defence Academy.
- Friends of The Earth (2004) Media Briefing: Gas Flaring in Nigeria.
<<http://www.remembersarowiwa.com/pdfs/gasflaringinigeria.pdf>> 19 November 2008.
- Gans, H. J. (1979) Deciding What's News. New York: Pantheon
- Gamhewage, G (2014) An Introduction to Risk Communication. Communication of risk to patients and

public, EU Scientific Seminar 2013, Radiation induced long – term health effects after medical exposure, Luxembourg, 19 November 2013. <
<http://www.who.int/risk-communication/introduction-to-risk-communication.pdf>> 27 June, 2014

Giddens, A (1994b) Living in a Post Traditional Society. In Reflexive Modernization: Politics, Tradition and Aesthetics in the Modern Social Order (Eds) Beck, U., Giddens, A and Lash, S. 56-109. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Giddens, A. (1990) The Consequences of Modernity. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Giddens, A. (1991) Modernity and Self-Identity. Cambridge: Polity Press

Giddens, A. (1994a) Beyond Left and Right: The Future of Radical Politics. Polity Press, Cambridge.

Giddens, A. (1998) Risk Society: The Context of British Politics'. In the Politics of Risk Society (eds.), Franklin, J. 23-34. Polity Press, Cambridge.

Giddens, A. (1999) Runaway World: How Globalisation is Reshaping Our Lives, Profile Books, London.

Greene, O. (2006) Environmental Issues. In John Baylis and Steve Smith (eds.) The Globalization of World Politics 451-477. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Harvey, F (2018) Paris Climate Summit: Sprints Needed to Secure Emissions Deal in December.

<https://www.theguardian.com/environment/2015/oct/23/paris-climate-summit-sprint-needed-to-secure-emissions-deal-in-december> >11 May 2018

Horlick-Jones, T, Sime, J., and Pidgeon, N. (2003) The Social Dynamics of Environmental risk Perception: Implications for Risk Communication Research and Practice. In *The Social Amplification of Risk*, (eds.), N. Pidgeon, R. E. Kasperson and P. Slovic 262- 261. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Idowu, A. A (1999) Human Rights, Environmental Degradation and Oil Multinational Companies in Nigeria: The Ogoniland Episode. *Netherlands Quarterly of Human Rights*, Vol. 17/2, 161-184.

Idris, R. O (2007) Impacts of Oil Spillage and Gas Flaring on the Population of the Population of Birds in the Niger-Delta Region of Nigeria. <<http://www.africanbirdclub.org/club/documents/ABCNigeriainterimreport0907.doc>> 18 November 2008.

Ishisone, M (2004) Gas Flaring in the Niger Delta: The Potential Benefits of its Reduction on the Local Economy and Environment. <<http://www.socrates.berkeley.edu/~es196/projects/2004Final/ishone.pdf>> 19 November 2008

Kasperson, J.X., Kasperson, R.E., Pidgeon, N., and Slovic, P (2003) *The Social Amplification of Risk: Assessing Fifteen Years of Research and Theory*. In *The Social Amplification of Risk*, (eds.), N. Pidgeon, R.E. Kasperson and P. Slovic 13-46. Cambridge: Cambridge Press.

- Kasperson, R. E (1992) The Social Amplification of Risk: Progress in Developing an Integrative Framework of Risk. In *Social Theories of Risk* (eds.), S. Krimsky and D. Golding 153-178. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Kasperson, R., Renn, O., Slovic, P., Brown, H.S., Emel, J., Goble, R., Kasperson, J. X., and Ratick, S.J. (1988) 'Social Amplification of Risk: A Conceptual Framework'. *Risk Analysis*, 8, 177-187
- Kitcher, P (2010) The Climate Change Debates. *Science* 04 Jun 2010: Vol. 328, Issue 5983, pp. 1230-1234 DOI: 10.1126/science.1189312.
<http://science.sciencemag.org/content/328/5983/1230.1.full>
- Leroux, M (2005) *Global Warming, Myth or Reality? The Erring Ways of Climatology*. United Kingdom, Praxis Publishing
- Lorenzoni (2005) Dangerous Climate Change: The Role for Risk Research. *Risk Analysis*, Vol. 25, No. 6: 1387-1398
- Lupton, D. (1999) *Risk*. London: Routledge.
- Markandya, A and Halsnaes, K (2002) *Climate Change and Sustainable Development: Prospects for Developing Countries*. Earthscan Publication Limited, London.
- McCombs, M. and D. Shaw. (1972) The Agenda Setting-Function of the Mass Media. *Public Opinion Quarterly* 36: 176-87.

Moy, P., Tewksbury, D and Rinke, E, M (2016) Agenda-Setting, Priming, and Framing.< http://mkw.uni-mannheim.de/prof_dr_hartmut_wessler/dr_eike_rinke/publikationen/Moy,%20Tewksbury,%20Rinke%20-%20Agenda%20Setting,%20Priming%20and%20Framing.pdf> 28 June, 2018

Nuccitelli, D (2018) Climate scientists debate a flaw in the Paris climate agreement. < <https://www.theguardian.com/environment/climate-consensus-97-per-cent/2018/mar/28/climate-scientists-debate-a-flaw-in-the-paris-climate-agreement>> 27 June, 2018

Nwanne, B.U. (2006) Public Relations Communication and Conflict Resolution in Nigeria: The Niger Delta Question. In Conflict Management and Peace Building in Africa.(eds.), Omotor, D. G, Sanubi, F. A. and A. I. Ohwona. Nigeria: Delta State University, Printing Press.

Oladeinde, R. M and Ajibola, O. A (2008) The Dialectics of Media Framing of the Niger Delta Crisis. In Media, Dialogue, Peace Building and Reconciliation: Conference proceedings (eds.), Mojaye, E.M., Arhagba, E., Soola, E and Oso, L., 374-390. Nigeria, Africa Council for Communication Education Delta State Chapter.

Omoweh, D, A (1995) Shell, Environmental Pollution, Culture and Health in Nigeria. Afrika Spectrum, Vol. 30, No 2, 115-143.

Kingsley Aghogho Edafienene and Josephine Osatohanmwon Adeyeye: Media, Oil Multinationals and Climate change in Nigeria.

Paterson, M (1996) *Global Warming and Global Politics*. Routledge, London.

Petts, J., Horlick-Jones, T., and Murdock, G (2001) *Social Amplification of Risk: The Media and the Public*. Contract Research Report 329/2001. UK: HSE books.

Pidgeon, N., Simmons, P., and Henwood, K. (2006) *Risk, Environment and Technology*. In *Risk in Social Science* (eds.), P. Taylor-Gooby and J. Zinn 94-116. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Pidgeon, N., Simmons, P., and Henwood, K. (2006) *Risk, Environment and Technology*. In *Risk in Social Science* (eds.), P. Taylor-Gooby and J. Zinn 94-116. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Pittock, A. B (2005) *Climate Change: Turning up the Heat*. CSIRO Publishing, Australia.

Pittock, A. B (2005) *Climate Change: Turning up the Heat*. CSIRO Publishing, Australia.

Porche, D. J. (2004) *Public and Community Health Nursing Practice: A Population Based Approach*. London: Sage Publication.

ProCon.org (2018) *Is Human Activity Primarily Responsible for Global Climate Change?*
<https://climatechange.procon.org/> 27 June, 2018

Ramsome-Kuti, B. (2007) *The Niger Delta Crisis and Nigeria's*

Future.<http://www.humanrights.de/doc_en/countries/nigeria/background/niger_delta_crisis.ht > 28 August 2007.

Rogers, E. M. and J. W. Dearing (1988) Agenda –Setting Research: Where Has It Been, Where Is It Going? In Communication Year Book 11, (Ed.), James A. Anderson, 555-94. London: Sage.

Rose, N. (1996) Governing ‘Advanced’ Liberal Democracies; In A. Barry, T. Osborne and N, Rose (eds.) Foucault and Political Reason, Liberalism, Neo-Liberalism and Rationalities of Government 37-64. London: ULC Press.

Science Daily (2001) Global Warming Natural May End Within 20 Years, Says Ohio State University Researcher.
<http://www.sciencedaily.com/release/2001/06/010615071248.html> 05 December 2007

Science Daily (2008) Has Global Warming Research Misinterpreted Cloud Behaviour?
<<http://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2008/06/080611184722.htm> > 19 November 2008

Sherwood, S (2011) Science Controversy Past and Present. Physics Today 64, 10, 39
<https://doi.org/10.1063/PT.3.1295>

Singer, F. S (2007) Global Warming: Man- Made or Natural? University of Virginia USA: Hillsdale College Publication: Imprimis. Vol 36, No 8.

Taylor-Gooby, P and J. O, Zinn. (2006) The Current Significance of Risk. In Taylor-Gooby, P and J. Zinn (eds.) Risk in Social Science 1-19. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Taylor-Gooby, P and J. O, Zinn. (2006) The Current Significance of Risk. In Taylor-Gooby, P and J. Zinn (eds.) Risk in Social Science 1-19. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tewksbury, D (2015) News Framing. <http://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/view/document/obo-9780199756841/obo-9780199756841-0010.xml> 28 June, 2018

Tuchman, G. (1978) Making News: A Study in the Construction of Reality. New York: Free Press.

Ubani E.C and Onyejekwe I.M (2013) Environmental Impact Analyses of Gas Flaring in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria. American Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research. Science Huß, <http://www.scihub.org/AJSIR> ISSN: 2153-649X, doi:10.5251/ajsir.2013.4.2.246.252

Udok, U and Akpan, E. B (2017) Gas Flaring in Nigeria: Problems and Prospects. Global Journal of Politics and Law Research, Vol.5, No.1, pp.16-28, March 2017. Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK (www.eajournals.org).

Ukala, E (2011) Gas Flaring in Nigeria's Niger Delta: Failed Promises and Reviving Community Voices. < [http://law2.wlu.edu/deptimages/journal of energy,](http://law2.wlu.edu/deptimages/journal%20of%20energy)

climate, and the environment/March 27, 2011 -
Ukala.pd> 27 June, 2017

Wahlberg, A and Sjoberg, L (2000) Risk Perception and the
Media. *Journal of Risk Research* 3(1), 31–50 (2000)

Whitney, D. C. (1991) Agenda-Setting: Power and
Contingency. In *Communication Year Book 14*, (Ed.),
James Anderson, 347- 356. London: Sage.

Zinn, J. O and P. Taylor-Gooby (2006) Risk as an
Interdisciplinary Research Area. In Taylor-Gooby, P
and J. Zinn (eds.) *Risk in Social Science* 20-53.
Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Public Relations Research: An Imperative for Public Relations Practitioners.

CHAMBERLAIN CHINSOM EGBELUFU*

AND

MERCY TARSEA-ANSHASE**

Abstract

This paper titled public relations research: An imperative for public relations practitioners” discusses the various methods of research used in solving organizational problems by public relations practitioners. It x-rayed the role of public relations research, its’ importance, types, methods, procedures and problems encountered in carrying out research by public relations practitioners. The paper asserts that due to the paramount importance of research in carrying out public relations programs that public relations practitioners should be well trained and proficient in research studies. In this regard, it is recommended that management of organizations should employ public relations practitioners that have the pre-requisite experience to tackle organization’s problems through research.

Key words: Public Relations, Research, Imperative and Public Relations Practitioners.

Introduction

The imperative of research in public relations practice cannot be over emphasized as it is employed in actualizing organizational goals and objectives which is accomplished through the application of research in its programs and activities. Research ensures that an organization analyzes trends, predicts their consequences, counsel organization

leaders and implements planned programs of actions which will serve both the organization and the public interest. As public relations practitioners embark on research activities they in no small measure help in accomplishing the management function that identifies, establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationship between an organization and the various publics on whom her success or failure depends. From the foregoing, it is glaring that public relations activities are not haphazardly implemented but rather organized, planned, programmed and evaluated. By analyzing trends, implies the application of research which leads to the prediction of would be consequences that can be either favorable or unfavorable to an organization.

Consenting, the 1978 Mexican Statement according to Nwosu (2011, p.151) sees public relations as “the art and social science of analyzing trends, predicting their consequences, counseling organization leaders and implementing planned programs of actions which will serve both the organization and the public interest”. From this definition it is glaring that public relations activities are not haphazardly conducted and implemented as they are anchored on research.

An American Sociologist, Earl Robert Babbie says research is a systematic inquiry to describe, explain, predict and control the observed phenomenon. He asserts that research involves inductive and deductive methods. Inductive research methods is used to analyze the observed phenomenon whereas,

*Dr Chamberlain Chinsom Egbelufu is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

**Dr Mercy Tarsea-Anshase is a Lecturer in the Department of Mass Communication, Binghin University, New Karu Nasarawa State, Nigeria.

JCDMRJournal Of Communication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

deductive research method is used to verify the observed phenomenon. While inductive is associated with qualitative research, deductive research is associated with quantitative (<http://www.questionpro.com/blog/whati-si-research>.)

Furthermore, (<https://real.ucsd.edu/unused20pages/what-is-research/html>) sees research as systematic gathering of data and information and its analysis for advancement of knowledge in any subject. We define research as a concerted effort to gather, analyze and manage information on a given phenomenon with the aim of finding a solution to the identified problem.

To ensure efficiency in research, the US based Institute for Public Relations Research and Education advocated for the following guidelines for public relations research. Establishing clear public relations objectives and desired outcomes tied directly to business goals; Differentiating between measuring Public Relations “outputs”, usually short term objectives (e.g. amount of press coverage received or exposure to a particular message) and Public Relations “outcomes” usually long term objectives (e.g. changing awareness, attitudes and behavior); Understanding that no one technique can be expected to effectively evaluate Public Relations effectiveness; Being weary of attempts to compare Public Relations effectiveness with advertising effectiveness; Public Relations evaluation cannot be accomplished in isolation. It must be linked with the overall business goals, strategies and tactics. (Wilson, Esiri, and Onwubere 2008).

Role of Public Relations Research in an Organization

The role public relations play is central to the overall success of an organization. It is the compass that determines the way-forward. According to Abugu (2007) as cited in

Ogbemi (2011, P.198): It aids an organization to monitor trends in the environment of practice and to determine the direction and status of public opinion, gives target publics the opportunity to interact or inform management on their beliefs, opinion as well as attitudes; assists the organization to identify, understand, interpret, and analyze problems and proffer solutions; helps to reveal timely, trouble areas to organizations before they define themselves or manifest into crisis and thus weigh the organization down; eliminates guess work, anti-public communication and apportions organizations resources to proper areas, provides ways of improving the services of an organization to its publics through correction of identified problems; reveals the organization's strength, weaknesses, opportunities and threats; constitutes a strong weapon for an organization to gain a competitive advantage; reveals public opinion to management for its consideration as input into policy formulation; elicits feedback and as such actualizes the two-way communication concept, which assists in the area of effectiveness; reveals cultural differences and value systems obtainable in the environment of practice.

Importance of Research

The essence of carrying out research in public relations is to identify the problem, the publics involved, to set objectives, choose the media that will be used to reach the affected publics or audience; to properly plan the budget that is to be used in executing the programme and programme monitoring and evaluation.

According to Wimmer & Dominick (1987, p.314) public relations research is used to gather data on audience attitudes and opinions, as means of surveillance... (Many

companies and organizations have public relations departments that systematically scan the environment in order to keep abreast of changes in society that might cause short term or long term problems.), to secure management support for their own functions, politics, recommendations and so forth. In many organizations, the marketing, financial and production departments are the ones that can most effectively influence the decision making process. Also, it is often conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of a planned communication program through pretest/post test result on message research which is appropriate to gauging the results of a public relations campaign.

Types of Public Relations Research

In Public Relations several types of research have been postulated by different authors. Wilson, Esiri and Onwubere (2008) in their work titled “Communication Research” identified the following types of public relations research:

Environmental Scanning or Trend Analysis: This type or category of Public Relations research involves finding out the major political, economic, social, technological, legal, cultural issues including public opinion and social events that are most likely to affect the operations, existence, success, survival, profitability and growth of an organization. This type of research is important because the Public Relations executive has to continually inform and advise management on the trends and issues using data generated through this type of research.

Strategic Research: This type of research is used primarily in Public Relations program development to determine program objectives, develop message strategies or establish benchmarks

or standards. It often examines the tools and techniques of Public Relations.

For instance an organization that wants to know how employees rate its can-dour in internal publications would first conduct strategic research to find out where it stands.

Attitude Research: This type of research measures and interprets a full range of views, sentiments, feelings, opinions and beliefs that segments of the public may hold towards an organization or its products.

Image Research: This category of research also referred to as reputation research systematically studies people's perceptions toward an organization, individual, product or service. Image research determines the institutional profile or corporate image in the public's mind by ascertaining the perception of the public towards an organization; how well they understand it, and what they like and dislike about it. Furthermore, it seeks to find out how well a company or an organization is known, its reputation and what the public thinks about its employees, products, services and practices.

Cyber Image Analysis: This is the measurement of internet content via chat rooms or discussion groups in cyberspace regarding an organization or product. It is also the measurement of a client's image everywhere on the internet.

Other types of research in public relations are:

Monitoring Research: This research method entails ascertaining the rate of success achieved when a public relations programme is on course. It reveals the areas of strength and weaknesses and proffers the way-forward.

Media Research: For public relations programme to be effective the medium or media of communication that will be used to disseminate information to the target publics should be evaluated to ascertain the reach, cost, franchise position and the time of broadcast or publication.

Evaluation Research: To evaluate deals with finding out the extent of progress made taking cognizance of the goals and objectives set before the commencement of the research. It unveils the road map that needs to be adopted to ensure the desired success.

Communication Audit: This is used in finding out whether the message disseminated to the target audience actually got to them. The communication tools that can be audited include newsletters, annual reports, brochures, press materials, web sites, and video programs.

Social Audits: This evaluates an organization's corporate social responsibility (CSR) activities, such as community relations, education, sponsorship, corporate philanthropy and environmental, programmes. It measures the awareness of these programs and how the organization is perceived by her publics with regards to accomplishing corporate social responsibility.

The Public Relations Audit: It shows the various images held by the publics of an organization. Also, it depicts the rate of awareness created by an organization with relation to her products, services, logos and slogans. Public relations audits can reveal the misperceptions held against the organization and the way the organization is actually perceived by the key publics.

According to Idemili (1990, p.226) public relations research involves much more than finding out what the public thinks about a company, industry or a profession. It involves public opinion research which includes the following:

- a. **Image Surveys:** Image surveys determine the institutional profile or corporate image in the public mind by ascertaining the attitudes of the public towards an organization, how well they understand it, and what they like and dislike about it.
- b. **Motivation Research:** Motivation research ascertains why the public looks with favor or disapproval upon a company or industry. It seeks to discover through depth interviews with a representative sample of the population, what motivates the public attitudes towards an organization.
- c. **Effectiveness Survey:** Effectiveness survey is used to measure the impact on public opinion made by a company's public relations activities... Before the start of a campaign, a representative sample of the public is interviewed to determine public attitudes and the extent of public knowledge of the company or industry.

Methods of Public Relations Research

There are several methods used in conducting Public Relations research can be categorized as primary, secondary and informal research methods.

Primary Research. The primary research methods include surveys and interviews.

Surveys: Survey research according to Sietel (2001:110) is one of the most frequently used research methods in Public Relations. Survey can be applied to broad societal issues, such as determining public opinion about an organization, or to the minute organizational problem, such as whether shareholders like the annual report or not. Public Relations Surveys come in three types; the descriptive, explanatory and panel studies. **Descriptive Surveys:** It offers a snapshot of a current situation or condition. They are the research equivalent of a balance sheet, capturing reality at a specific point in time. A typical public opinion poll is a prime example.

Explanatory Surveys: They are concerned with cause and effect. Their purpose is to help explain why a current situation or condition exists and to offer explanations for opinions and attitudes. Frequently, such explanatory or analytical surveys are designed to answer the question “Why?” Why are our philanthropic efforts not being appreciated in the community? Why don’t employees believe management’s messages? Why is our credibility being questioned?

Panel Studies: This is a type of survey whereby the same sample of respondents is measured at different points in time. With this technique a sample of respondents is selected and interviewed and then re-interviewed and studied at later times. This technique enables the researcher to study changes in behaviors and attitudes.

Interviews

The interview has been defined by Berger (2000) in Wilson, Esiri and Onwubere (2008, p.242) as a “conversation between a researcher (someone who wishes to gain information about a subject) and an informant (someone

presumably has information on the subject). Interviews can provide a more personal, firsthand feel for public opinion. Interviews can be conducted in a number of ways. These include face to face (interview panels), telephone, mail (by post) and through the internet.” The different interview panels include the following:

Focus Group Discussion (FGD). This approach, simply referred to as Focus Groups, is used with increasing frequency in Public Relations. Also known as group interviewing, this technique involves a moderator leading a group usually between 6 – 12 through a discussion of opinions on a particular subject such as opinions on a particular subject, organization or product. Participants represent the socioeconomic level desired by the researcher – from students, housewives, office workers to millionaires. Participants are normally paid for their efforts. Sessions are frequently recorded and then analyzed, often in preparation for more specific research questionnaires.

In-depth (Intensive) Interview. In-depth or intensive interview is a hybrid of the one-on-one interview in which a respondent is invited to a field service location or a research office for an interview. The goal of this kind of interview is to deeply explore the respondent’s point of view, feelings and perspective. In-depth involves not only asking questions, but the systematic recording and documenting of responses coupled with intensive probing for deeper meaning and understanding of the responses. It requires repeated interview sessions with the target audience under study.

Drop-off interviews. This approach combines face-to-face and mail interview techniques. An interviewer personally drops off a questionnaire at a household, usually after conducting a face-

to-face interview. Because the interviewer has already established some rapport with the interviewee, the rate of return or response rate with this technique is considerably higher than it is for straight mail interviews.

Delphi panels. The Delphi technique is a more qualitative research tool that uses opinion leaders – local influential persons as well as national experts – often to help tailor the design of a general public research survey. Designed by the Rand Corporation in the 1950s, the Delphi technique is a consensus-building approach that relies on repeated waves of questionnaires sent to the same select panel of experts. Delphi findings generate a wide range of responses and help set the agenda for more meaningful future research. Stated another way, Delphi panels offer a “research reality check”. Other interview methods are internet, telephone and mail.

Secondary Research. This method includes desk research, content analysis and tracking studies.

Desk Research: This consists of the study of existing or published data or documented materials. These include files, reports and other such materials that exist within and outside the organization. It also includes reference books like encyclopedia, “who is who”, publication, technical and professional books related to Public Relations and other such published materials. In addition, periodicals like newspapers, magazines, professional journals, academic journals come very handy in desk research or secondary data collection.

Content Analysis: According to Stacks (2005, p.189) content analysis is used quite extensively in Public Relations evaluation to better understand messages and how key publics react to those messages. Content analysis is a research

technique that shows the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication. Content analysis is utilized when the researcher intends to examine data contained in mass media content that are crucial to his study.(Berelson, 1952)

Tracking Studies: This is a special readership measurement technique in which respondents designate public relations material they have read.

Informal Research Methods.

Informal research methods include personal contacts, expert opinions, community forums, call-in telephone lines, mail analysis and examination of media contents etc.

Research Procedure

To effectively carry out research the following steps should be considered, situation analysis / problem definition, objective of the study, research question, literature review, definition of key concepts/ terms, scope of study;population definition, methods of data collection, designing and administration of research instrument,collation and analysis of data, conclusion and recommendation.

Problems of Public Relations Research

Despite the various advantages of research in public relations, it is noteworthy to acquaint PR practitioners with the fact that there exists some inherent problems and limitations of research in public relations practice. Oyeneeye (2007) cited in Ogbiten (2012, p.201) identifies the problems as follows:

Cost of Research: Public relations research involves a lot of money which some organizations might not be willing to release for such purposes. Some other organizations might not be big enough or financially strong to sponsor such a research.

Practitioners Lack of Research Knowledge: This occurs more in organizations that do not employ qualified public relations practitioners. Such persons might not have the knowledge of how to carry out research.

Manpower Problem: Some internal public relations departments do not have enough manpower to carry out research.

High level of Illiteracy: In areas where the publics of the organization are mostly illiterate, carrying out research will be very difficult. This problem can be solved by applying research methods that require interviewing them in the language they understand.

Religious and Cultural Values: The beliefs of the people and their religious attitudes can be a problem, take for instance in the Northern Nigeria it is difficult to get women interviewed because they are not allowed to interact with the public except their husbands.

Managements Faults: The management of some organizations might ignorantly think that spending money for public relations research is a waste hence it becomes a problem to carry out public relations research.

Time lag: When too much time is wasted in embarking on a research project, the result might not be the true reflection of the situation. This happens when management delays in

releasing money for research or when the concerned publics is not cooperating with the researcher.

Qualities for Effective Research: For public relations research to be effective public relations practitioners must have communication skills - both written and spoken, analytical, editing and interviewing skills. They are required to be sociable, have good understanding of people and human psychology; properly acquaint himself or herself with the knowledge of his or her organization; should have creative imaginative ability; be able to adapt easily and have interpretative and evaluative skills.

Conclusion

As earlier stated, research is central in public relations practice because every public relations activity involves one type of research or the other. Research finds expression in image and crisis management, publics' identification, public relations process and the application of models of public relations in solving public relations problems. Some of the mostly used models in public relations practice which PR practitioners must know include the RACE Model (R stands for Research, A for Action, C for Communication and E for Evaluation), the RICEE Model (R stands for Research, I for Information, C for Communication, E for Education and E for Evaluation) and the PR Transfer Process Model.

In view of the fore- going, it is considered imperative that organizations should employ well trained and competent public relations practitioners who would be able to carry out research when the need arises in order to actualize the goals and objectives for which the organization is brought to bear.

References

Berelson, (1952) in Wilson, D. Esiri, M. & Onwubere, C. H. (2008) “Public Relations Research in Ajibade, O. O (ed) *Communication Research*, National Open University of Nigeria: pp.235-245

<https://www.questionpro.com/blog/what-is-research>. Retrieved on July 20, 2018.

[https://real.ucsd.edu/unused_20_pages/ what- is- research.html](https://real.ucsd.edu/unused_20_pages/what-is-research.html). Retrieved on July 20, 2018.

Idemili, S. O (1990) Public Relations Process in Charles Okigbo (ed) *Advertising and Public Relations*.Nsukka; Communication Research Projects.

Nwosu, I.E. (2011) “Public Relations and Reputation Management for Corporate Survival: Philosophy, Foundation, Functions and Strategies in *Public Relations Journal*Vol.7 NO.2, PP148-165

Ogbemi, O.B (2012) *Principles of Public Relations: Principles, Practice and Management* (2nd edition), Lagos: Amfitop Book Company.

Oyeneye, P. (2007) Cited in Ogbiten, B.O (2012) *Principles of Public Relations: Principles, Practice and Management* (2nd edition), Lagos: Amfitop Book Company.

Stacks, D. W. (2005) “Content Analysis” in Health, R. L. (ed) *Encyclopedia of Public Relations Vol.1*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications Inc.

Chamberlain Chinsom Egbelufu and Mercy Tarsea-Anshase: Public Relations Research: An Imperative for Public Relations Practitioners

Sietel, P. F. (2001) *Practice of Public Relations (8th Edition)*, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Wilson, D. Esiri, M. & Onwubere, C. H. (2008) “Public Relations Research in Ajibade, O.O (ed) *Communication Research*, National Open University of Nigeria: pp.235-245

Wimmer, R. D and Dominick, J. R. (1987) *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

Organizational Communication and Performance in Three Companies in Benin City, Nigeria

OBAKPOLOR, JENNIFER ADAH*
And

ADEDOYIN, SAMUEL ADEYEMI**

Abstract

This paper focused on the effect of communication on performance in selected bottling companies in Benin City, Nigeria. The objectives were: to determine the effect of poor listening and premature evaluation of information on performance; to find out how lack of understanding and information overload affects performance and to suggest strategies that may be employed to improve workplace communication. Survey research design was employed and a questionnaire was used to elicit information from the respondents. The population of this study consisted of staff of three selected bottling companies in Benin City, Nigeria. The selected bottling companies were Coca-Cola, Seven-Up (7up) and Guinness Nigeria Plc. The population of the study from the three bottling companies as at March 2018 stood at 280 persons. Using Yamane (1968) formula a sample size value of 167 was obtained from the population. The researchers also added a 20% mark up to cater for possible attrition and improperly filled copies of the questionnaire. A total sample size value 200 was therefore proportionately distributed to each of the bottling companies subject to their contribution to the total population. The stratified sampling technique was applied to achieve appropriateness and adequate representation from the various cadres of the sampled organizations. The validity of the instrument was ascertained by experts in the

industry and the academia so as to achieve content and face validity. The reliability of the instrument was determined by the cronbach alpha coefficient test which has a value of $r = 0.71$. Simple descriptive statistics were used for presentation of data and in addressing the research questions. The test of hypotheses were done using regression analysis. The findings of the study are that poor listening and premature evaluation of information significantly affects overall performance; and the lack of understanding and information overload significantly affects performance. The study recommends that employees should avoid poor listening and premature evaluation of information and operate without bias. Where there is the lack of understanding, efforts should be made to seek clarification; management should involve employees' in policy formulation and decision-making; management and supervisors should avoid information overload as much as possible as it reduces and hinders communication clarity, also, all communication barriers and interference during communications should be eliminated to enhance effective communication.

Keywords: *Organizational communication, selective perception, information overload, performance, communication barriers. .*

Introduction and Background to the Study:

Keyton, (2011) posits that communication is the process of transmitting information and general understanding from a person to another and represents procedures either formal or informal through which information, facts and messages are exchanged and understood by people with the principal aim of

*Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah is of the Department of Business Administration, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria

**Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi is a Lecturer in the Department of Business Administration, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria

JCDMRJournal Of Communication Development and Media Research, Vol.1.No 1. January 2019.

© Department of Mass Communication, Benson Idahosa University, Benin, Nigeria.

influencing performance. Bateman, (2002) submits that communication is the transmission of information and meaning from one party to another through the use of shared symbol. The centrality of communication as crucially vital to effective team performance and in organizational life has spurred several studies globally in the bid to exploring its dynamics. Mckinney, Barker, Smith & Davis, (2004) opine that communication is like blood flow in the human system and no organization may thrive maximally without effective communication. According to Igbinsa& Osawonyi, (2012) workplace communication is significant in directing and influencing personnel towards the accomplishment of the organizational goals and objectives and as the organization understands the value of communication, it employs it as a beneficial strategic tool both within and outside the organization, more especially as it supports coordination of the tangible and intangible resources for the productive purposes of the organization.

Undoubtedly, communication plays a vital role in enhancing organizational performance as it is a means of bringing about change in our organizations and in the world at large. In the world of business, significant milestones cannot be attained without effective communication with the employers, employees, distributors, suppliers and customers as effective communication promotes efficiency and smooth running of the affairs of an organization whether in the area of planning, organizing, staffing, and the quest for innovativeness and quality improvement in the business (Igbinsa& Osawonyi, 2012).. It also enhances exceptional leadership and controlling, and serves as administrative tool for information sharing, for

Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi: Organisational communication and Performance on Three companies in Benin City, Nigeria.

directing activities and facilitating organizational performance (Luthans, 1990; Igbinosa& Osawonyi, 2012). Scholars agree that communication is crucially important for the enhancement of the administrative machinery of an organization, for conflict management and control, for effective team building, promoting organizational commitment, and dissemination of information for sustainable organizational development (Robbins, 2005). Literature indicates that workplace disputes, differences and conflicts, misinterpretation and disorganization are traceable to inadequate understanding of information and gaps in communication (Rahim 2002; Robbins, 2005; Aula & Siira 2010). In this regard, some scholars assert that an employee's communication ability affects others and also the eventual organizational performance (Brun, 2010; Summers, 2010). Relatedly, Lutgen-Sandvik (2010) remarked that the lack of effective communication and communication associated problems remain one of the most inhibiting factors to performance. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship and effects of communication on performance.

Statement of Problem

The role played by communication in performance is acknowledged as very vital for the successful operation of an organization (Husain, 2013). Chudi-Oji, (2013) posits however that in spite of the roles of communication in facilitating understanding, promoting teamwork and in improving organizational performance, it is evident that many organizations have not devoted adequate efforts in the maintenance of communication systems. This has led to some problems and raises issues that organizations need to handle so as to improve overall organizational performance. Some of these identified issues include: selective perception of information, lack of understanding and information overload

and the problem that arises as a result of the use of technical jargons. The concern therefore is to assess how poor listening and premature evaluation

of information and how the lack of understanding and information overload affects performance. Against this background, this study evaluated how these communication issues affected performance in the sampled organizations.

Research Questions

1. What is the effect of poor listening and premature evaluation of information on performance?
2. How does lack of understanding and information overload affect performance?
3. What are the strategies that may be suggested to improve workplace communication?

Objectives of the Study

1. To determine the effect of poor listening and premature evaluation of information on performance;
2. To find out how lack of understanding and information overload affects performance;
3. To suggest strategies that may be employed to improve workplace communication.

Research Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

H1: Poor listening and premature evaluation of information does not significantly affect performance

H2: Lack of understanding and information overload does not significantly affect performance

2.0. Review of Related Literature:

The Concept of Organizational Communication

Organizational communication can be described as the sending and receiving of messages among individuals within an organized setting to achieve a common goal. The individuals in an organizations communicate through face-to face, written and refereed channels (Robson, 2006). Stephen (2011) posits that communication is an important factor in directing and mobilizing the personnel towards the achievement of the organizational goals or objectives and with information passing through the proper channel, organizational activities become effective and this effectiveness is measured by the extent to which it achieves its goals and objectives of which communication appropriateness is indispensable (Zheng, 2010). The Association of Cost and Chartered Accountants Business Analysis (ACCA, 2009) posits that communication in organizations serve to facilitate employees workplace interaction, exchange of ideas and spreading knowledge for business/trade purposes. Other uses of communication are to inform, to persuade, convey goodwill and establish credibility, for promoting the product, service and the organization itself with the objective of profitability (Adegbuyi, Adunola, Worlu, & Ajagbe, 2015). The channels of communication include the internet, print, radio, television, outdoor and word of mouth channels.

Organizational Performance:

Organizational performance involves analyzing a company's *performance* against its objectives and goals. It comprises real results or outputs compared with intended outputs. Organizational performance assesses the actual output or results of an organization as measured against its intended

outputs i.e goals and objectives (Upadhaya, Munir, & Blount, 2014). The business dictionary expresses organizational performance as the analysis of a company's performance as compared to its goals and objectives within corporate organizations there are three areas of outcomes analyzed include financial performance, market performance, and shareholder value performance, production capacity etc. (www.businessdictionary.com). Jain, Apple & Ellis (2015) see performance as the process of carrying out actions and activities to achieve a future result.

Bayle & Robinson (2007) asserts that three key principles upon which performance depends are: the system of governance; the quality of the organization's network (affiliations, supporting bodies); and the positioning of the organization. Richard (2009) avers that organizational performance involves three definite areas of firm outcomes: financial (profits, return on assets, return on investment); product market performance (sales, market share) and shareholder returns / economic value added. Aptly put, performance takes account of effectiveness, efficiency, quality, consistency, reliability, financial returns and other key normative measures (Ricardo, 2001).

Communication and Performance:

Communication is the basis for the functioning of every organization because all relationships involving the employees require communication. For organizational performance to be successful, open communication should be encouraged and staff members should feel free to share feedback, ideas and even criticism at every level as it increases productivity. Scholars agree that the most important source of competitive advantage today is gotten from human resources (Lev, 2001;

Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi: Organisational communication and Performance on Three companies in Benin City, Nigeria.

Topomey, 2010) and to successfully develop the human resources is to improve organizational performance of which effective communication occupies a central place especially in eliminating destructive conflicts (Rahim, 2002; Aula & Siira 2010). Some organizations have seen the need to give opportunity for employees to get to know each other and interact in informal ways and so they support staff to spend time together outside work believing that these experiences will open up communication and trim down barriers to effective communication (Robbins, 2005). The results of such communication contributes to improved understanding, efficient and effective performance, diminution of disorder and insecurity, promotion of expressiveness, interpreting and making sense of new situations so that everybody comprehends appropriately. As a result of the improved understanding of diverse situations people can picture circumstances, make decisions and direct their actions (Igbinosa& Osawonyi, 2012).

Theoretical Framework

This study is built on the Human Relations Theory which was set in motion around the 1930s and was established as an alternative view to the classical theory with emphasis on the significance of satisfaction of human desires in the administrative center and that organizational performance can be enhanced by meeting individual needs (Luthans, 1990; Adegbuyi, et. al, 2015). This theory was at the inception sustained by facts from the landmark series of conducting experiment by Elton Mayo, Roethlisberger and Dickson's which later became very famous as the Hawthorne Studies. This investigation took place from 1924 to 1933 and the outcome established the competitive position of human

relations theory as an option to the classical theory. This study opines that informal social structures can advance the employees productivity and that the communication method of supervisor may also affect the performance of the employees in an organization (Igbinsosa& Osawonyi, 2012, Adegbuyi, et. al, 2015).). Apart from task-related communication, maintenance-related communication is commonly used to keep up interactions with participants in the human relations organization. The human relations approach places emphasis on the significance of recognizing legitimate desires of the employees and how to offer the supporting environment for all of them to bring out their best abilities ((Luthans, 1990). This approach explains how staff in their various departments in the organization should interconnect and make transactions so that individual and product performance of the business can be enhanced. It also lays emphasis on the significance of informal communication and illustrates how communication in an organization can support attaining the individual and organizational goals and objectives (Stoner & Freeman, 2005; Adegbuyi, et. al, 2015).

Empirical Review

In the study by Bery, Otieno, Waiganjo & Njeru (2015) on the effect of communication on organizational performance in Kenya's horticultural sector, the research established that communication enables exchange of information, helps in humanizing operational competence thereby improving performance. It concluded that communication is a key determinant to promoting organizational performance. Rajhans (2012), conducted a study on organizational communication, employee motivation and performance and found out that communication plays a principal role in staff inspiration and

Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi: Organisational communication and Performance on Three companies in Benin City, Nigeria.

performance. Oyetunde & Oladejo (2012) in their research on communication approach and firms performance: using Nigerian Bottling Company, Ilorin - Nigeria, their investigation confirmed the link between communication approach and well-organized performance of NBC, Ilorin plant. The study submitted that with transparency of thoughts before communicating; improved understanding of the physical and human environment; knowing the purpose of communication; planning communication; understanding the content and tone of the messages; encourage employees to be good listeners and with follow up and feedback there exists opportunities for enrichment and expansion that would result from better performance. Asamu (2014) in a study on the impact of communication on workers' performance in a carefully chosen establishment in Lagos - Nigeria, examined the relationship between communication and workers' performance in the organizations. With a sample population of 120 respondents, data for the study was obtained through a questionnaire. The findings revealed that a significant relationship exists between effective communication and workers' performance, productivity and commitment. The study recommended that management needs to communicate with workers regularly to improve the subsisting relationship and boost their commitment and performance.

In a study by Tubbs & Moss (2008), it was revealed that there is a link between information overload and total performance within an organization and that too much of communication obstructs successful organizational performance. Employees of an organization are enjoined to share necessary work related issues and information which aids thoughts in creativity and decision-making (Stoner & Freeman, 2005; Robbins, 2005)

thereby enhancing attainments of both organization and individual goals and objectives. Kibe, (2014) carried out a study on the effects of communication strategies on organizational performance in Kenya Ports Authority. The main objective of the research was to study the effects of communication strategies on organizational performance at Kenya Ports Authority. The study also tried to ascertain how open door policy of communication influences organizational performance, to evaluate how group effort improves organizational performance, to analyze how organizational structure can increase organizational performance, to find and identify the roles of formal communication channels on organizational performance. The conclusion drawn from the investigation was that communication strategies play a significant role in improving performance.

Furthermore, Udegbe, Ogundipe, Akintola, & Kareem, (2012) carried out a study on the effect of business communication on organizational performance in Nigerian companies. The reason for the study was to investigate the relationship between business communication and organizational performance in Nigeria using a contextualized and collected works based research instrument to measure the presentation of the investigated “constructs”. Using the survey method, the study obtained sample data from 100 manufacturing and service establishments operational in Lagos, Nigeria. The research instrument showed positive evidence of reliability and validity. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, percentages and t- test analysis. The research found that effective business communication is stressed to a reasonable unit in the surveyed Nigerian companies. It was also established that the level of practices of effective business communication, were associated to the category of business and its size.

In the light of the above review, it is evident that communication can play a key role in the performance of employees and organizations where properly harnessed. It is noticeable however that most of the studies reviewed are from different organizations across several sectors. This study however focuses on three organizations within the same sector and seeks to evaluate the effects of poor listening and premature evaluation of information and information overload on performance.

3.0. Methodology

Survey research design was employed in this work and a questionnaire was used to obtain information from the respondents. The population of this study consists of staff of the three selected bottling companies in Benin City, Edo State. The bottling companies are Coca-Cola, Seven-Up (7up) and Guinness Nigeria Plc. The population of the study from the three bottling companies as at March 2018 stood at 280 persons. Using Yamane (1968) formula a sample size value of 167 was obtained from the population as adequate. The researchers also added a 20% value increase to the sample size to cater for possible attrition and improperly filled copies of the questionnaire. A total sample size value 200 was therefore proportionately distributed to each of the bottling companies subject to their contribution to the total population. The stratified sampling technique was applied to achieve appropriateness and adequate representation from the various cadres of the sampled organizations. The validity of the instrument was ascertained by experts in the industry and the academia so as to achieve content and face validity. The reliability of the instrument was determined by the cronbach

alpha test coefficient and it gave reliability coefficient values of $r = 0.71$. The value was considered adequate as suggested by Nunnally, (1978) therefore indicating high degree items reliability of the instrument. Simple descriptive statistics are used for presentation of data while the research questions were addressed using the simple frequency count, percentages, mean and the grand mean for the questionnaire items. The decision rule regarding the mean was based on any mean scores equal to or greater than 3.5 was regarded as agreed or high extent while any mean scores less than 3.5 was regarded as disagreed or low extent. The test of hypotheses were done using regression analysis. The choice for this test was because regression analysis is able to draw the relationships and to predict the extent to which a change in an independent variable influences a change in the dependent variable. The value (p) was used to take decision on the hypotheses. If p-value is less than or equal to 0.05 then the null hypothesis is rejected and if p-value is greater than 0.05, then the null hypothesis is retained.

4.0. Data Analysis and Findings:

Table 1: Demographic Profile of Respondents

S/N	VARIABLES	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Sex		
	Male	98	59
	Female	67	41
	Total	165	100

2	Age range/category		
	Below 30	56	34
	31-40	60	36
	41-50	30	18
	51 and above	19	12
	Total	165	100
3	Academic Qualification		
	Diploma/OND	39	24
	HND/B.Sc	90	55
	M.Sc/MBA	36	21
	Total	165	100
4	Working Experience		
	5 years and below	43	26
	6-10 years	66	40
	11-15 years	25	15
	16-20 years	31	19
	Total	165	100

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork (2018)

Four demography variables are presented in Table 1 above; they are sex, age of respondents, academic qualification, marital status and working experience. The result reported a male dominance. The result also reported that academic qualifications of respondents are adequately educated. The result further reported a youthful respondent between the ages of below 30 years and 40years. In addition, the result revealed that the respondents are majorly with working experience of between 6-10 years.

Table 2: Poor Listening and Premature Evaluation of Information in Communication:

S/N	Items	SD	D	U	A	SA	Total	Mean
1	My work demand I pay close attention when am being given instruction about a given task.	25	13	8	38	81	165	3.83
2	I know my job well enough to do things on my own.	18	23	11	66	47	165	3.6
3	I am less effective when I am given instruction about a task.	68	36	8	33	20	165	2.4
4	I am happy and effective when I am allowed to make decisions	18	5	6	78	58	165	3.9
5	There is too much supervision	58	38	16	23	30	165	2.6
6	Some co-workers do not circulate information needed	66	48	9	18	24	165	3.69
7	There is poor flow of information to me to carry out my job	71	28	18	20	165		2.4
	Grand Mean							3.20

Source; Researcher's Fieldwork, (2018)

Majority of the employees agreed that their work demand they pay close attention when being given instruction about a given task; that they know their job well enough to do things on their own; that they are happy and effective when allowed to make decisions; while they do not agree that they are less effective

Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi: Organisational communication and Performance on Three companies in Benin City, Nigeria.

when given instruction about a task; that there is too much supervision; that some co-workers do not circulate information needed; and that there is poor flow of information to in order to carry out their job. The mean values are also shown above. The grand mean of 3.20 is below the midpoint of 3.5 adopted for this study. This suggests that the receiving of information, handling and transmission is poor in the sampled organizations.

Table 3: Information Overload

	Items	SD	D	U	A	SA	Total	Mean
14	My supervisor gives too many instruction	25	13	8	38	81	165	3.83
15	My boss does not wait for a task to be done before he adds another	18	23	11	66	47	165	3.61
16	Some colleagues push some of their task to me	68	36	8	33	20	165	2.4
17	My job description is wider than I thought	18	5	6	78	58	165	3.93
18	My work pace is too fast	58	38	16	23	30	165	2.57
19	I hardly ever get time for proper rest	24	18	9	48	66	165	3.69
20	I always hastened to complete my work within a given short	20	28	18	28	71	165	3.61

	time frame							
21	I always take work home to complete	21	18	9	68	49	165	3.64
22	The organization has less capable hands to do some jobs	63	33	10	28	31	165	2.58
23	I am responsible for too many projects	45	22	15	50	33	165	3.02
24	My colleagues too also complain of work overload	53	41	4	37	30	165	2.69
	Grand Mean						165	3.23

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork (2018)

With respect to question responses in table 3 above, majority of the employees agreed that their supervisor give too many instruction; the boss does not wait for a task to be done before he adds another; their job description is wider than they thought; they hardly ever get time for proper rest; they always hastened to complete their work within a given short time frame; they always take work home to complete and that they are responsible for too many projects while at the same time disagreed that some colleagues push some of their task to them; their work pace is too fast; the organization has less capable hands to do some jobs; and their colleagues complain too of work overload. The grand mean of 3.23 which is below the midpoint of 3.5 adopted for this study, suggests that there are issues of information overload in the sampled organizations.

Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi: Organisational communication and Performance on Three companies in Benin City, Nigeria.

Table 4: Performance:

	Items	SD	D	U	A	SA	Total	Mean
29	I am able to fulfill my job requirement on record time	35	19	15	58	38	165	3.27
30	Some employees are fond of procrastinating their jobs	55	46	30	23	11	165	2.33
31	Some employee do not often meet up with work deadline	63	33	10	28	31	165	3.42
32	Some employee fail to prioritize	45	22	15	50	33	165	3.02
33	Some employee do not follow work procedures	62	34	06	27	36	165	3.96
34	Some employee do not have good sense of order	53	41	4	37	30	165	3.30
	Geand Mean							3.21

Source: Researcher's Fieldwork (2018)

The responses of the majority of the employees, shows that with respect to organizational performance, the employees agreed that they are able to fulfill their job requirement on record time; and they disagreed that some employees are fond of procrastinating their jobs; some employee do not often meet up with work deadline; some employee fail to prioritize; some employees do not follow work procedures and that some employee do not have good sense of order. The grand mean of 3.21 is below the midpoint of 3.5 adopted for this study, it suggests that the mean performance is poor amongst the sampled respondents.

Hypotheses Testing

H₀: Poor listening and premature evaluation of information does not significantly affect communication and organizational performance.

Table 5a: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.320 ^a	.630	.236	1.403

a. Predictors: (Constant), PLT

Source: Author's computation, 2018

The model summary in Table 5a shows that the value for r is 32.0% and R-square is 63%. The R-square value indicates that 63% of the variation in organizational performance is accounted for by increase in the listening and evaluation of

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	7.132	1	7.132	12.067	.003 ^b
Residual	320.717	163	1.968		
Total	320.848	164			

a. Dependent Variable: ORP

b. Predictors: (Constant), PLT

information in communication process.

Table 5b: ANOVA^a

Source: Author's computation, 2018

In the above ANOVA Table 5b, the F value of the model is 12.067 and the p-value is 0.003^b. This implies that the model

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.087	.245		12.611	.000
PLT	-.119	.073	-.020	6.259	.000

a. Dependent Variable: ORP

Source: Author's computation, 2018

used in this study is suitable for the data.

Table 5c: Coefficients^a

Regression coefficient in Table 5c represents the mean change in the response variable for 1 unit of change in the predictor variable while holding other predictors in the model constant. The coefficient table reveals the impact of poor listening and premature evaluation of information in communication on performance. Based on the analysis in table 7c, the following equation for regression line may be derived: performance = 3.087 - 0.119 (poor listening and premature evaluation of information). The relationship between performance and poor listening and premature evaluation of information is significant at 0.000. This shows that there is a negative significant relationship between poor listening and premature evaluation of information and performance. This shows that an increase in poor listening and premature evaluation of information will bring about a corresponding decrease in organizational performance. This implies that one unit of increase in poor

listening and premature evaluation of information leads to 11.9% decrease in performance while holding other independent variables constant

Hypothesis Two

H₀: Lack of understanding and information overload does not significantly affect organizational performance.

Table 6a: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.334 ^a	.491	-.005	1.402

a. Predictors: (Constant), IOL

Source: Author's computation, 2018

Table 6a above shows that the value of r is 33.4% and the R-square is 49.1%. The R-square value indicates that 49.1% of the variation in the performance is accounted for by information overload.

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.354	1	.354	12.180	.002 ^b
	Residual	320.494	163	1.966		
	Total	320.848	164			

a. Dependent Variable: ORP

b. Predictors: (Constant), IOL

Table 6b: ANOVA^a

Source: Author's computation, 2018

In the above ANOVA table, the F-value of the model is 12.354 and the p-value is 0.002. This shows that the model is appropriate for the data.

Table 6c: Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.126	.251		12.434	.000
IOL	-.321	.074	-.033	-.425	.002

a. Dependent Variable: ORP

Source: Author's computation, 2018

The coefficient table above reveals that information overload has a negative relationship with performance. In table 6c, the equation for the regression line may be derived thus: $ORP = 3.126 - 0.321(IOL)$

The relationship between information overload and organizational performance is significant at 0.002. This implies that there is a negative significant relationship between information overload and organizational performance. This implies that information overload account for 32.1% of performance while holding other independent variables in the model constant.

Discussion of Findings

The result of the first hypothesis revealed that poor listening and premature evaluation of information significantly affect communication and organizational performance. This result is in agreement with Asamu, (2014) who buttressed this in his study on the impact of communication on workers'

performance where findings from the study revealed that a significant relationship exists between effective communication and workers' performance, productivity and commitment. The study recommended that managers will need to communicate with employees regularly to improve workers commitment and performance.

The result of the second hypothesis revealed that information overload significantly affects performance. This finding is supported by the study of Tubbs & Moss (2008) where they revealed that there is a link between information overload and aggregate performance within an organization and also the submission of Barrett, (2002) and Banihashemi, (2011) that members of an organization should share relevant work related issues as well as information, which facilitates ideas in resourcefulness, change processes and decision making.

5.0. Summary and Conclusions

The research work was carried out to determine the effect of communication on performance of three selected bottling companies in Benin City, Nigeria. The demographic profile section of the study shows the suitability of the respondents used for the study as they are mature, educated and have been in the workplace for considerable period of time. The specific findings of the study

1. Poor listening and premature evaluation of information significantly affects communication and performance;
2. The lack of understanding and information overload significantly affects performance;

This study concludes that selective perception of information and the lack of understanding and information overload,

affects organizational performance. From the results, the study identified significant relationships between poor listening and premature evaluation of information and performance; selective perception of information and performance; lack of understanding/ information overload and performance; and use of jargons/technical error in communication and organizational performance. The results support the need for communicating with consistency, concreteness and completeness in boosting the performance of employees.

Recommendations

1. All parties should ensure proper listening and avoid premature evaluation of information. Also opportunities for questions should be allowed to enhance/ assure communication. Also more effort at ensuring that information provided by management is thorough and understandable. In addition, some other channels of communication such as the use of notice boards can be explored and the use of email/internet as a means of communication must be upgraded
2. Management and supervisors should avoid information overload as much as possible as it reduces and hinders communication clarity. Even though open and candid communication is encouraged, it is recommended that such communications should come with courtesy and consideration, and without mischievousness or prejudgment.
3. The performance of members of staff can be improved further if restricted access in the communication systems are either removed or kept at their least. Above all, information misrepresentations caused by omissions and exaggerations should be addressed both

by management and employees. There have to be fewer distractions and interference during communications in order to reduce or do away with selective perception of information.

Contribution to Knowledge

This study has made modest contribution to the body of knowledge on the effect of communication on organizational performance. This study also provides suggestions to the organizations managers and employees to help them communicate better and also achieve organizational goals and objectives and especially their financial goals. The study has been able to provide empirical information on the need for better communication, understanding and good relationship amongst members of the organization as it will help improve their overall performance

Suggestions for Further Studies

This study recommends that further study should extend the scope of this current study by investigating and conducting more research on the effect of communication on performance across a broader spectrum/ larger scope both in the number of organizations studied and also in aspects of geographical coverage. This study also recommends that further studies should look at communication and employee's emotion in relation to job performance.

References

Adegbuyi, O. A., Adunola, O., Worlu, R., & Ajagbe, A. M. (2015). Archival review of the influence of organizational strategy on organizational

Obakpolor, Jennifer Adah and Adedoyin, Samuel Adeyemi: *Organisational communication and Performance on Three companies in Benin City, Nigeria.*

performance. *International conference on African Development Issues (CU-ICADI): Social & Economic Models for Development Tacks.*(PP334-340).

- Aula, P., & Siira, K., (2010) Organizational communication and conflict management systems: A Social Complexity Approach. *Nordic Management Review*.(1), 125-141
- Barrett, D. J. (2002). Change communication: using strategic employee communication to facilitate major change. *Corporate Communications: An international journal*, 7(4), 219-231.
- Banihashemi, S. A. (2011). The role of communication to improve organizational process. *European journal of humanities and social sciences* 1 (1), 13-24.
- Bayle, E., & Robinson, L. (2007). A framework for understanding the performance of National Governing Bodies of Sport. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7, 240–268.
- Bery, B., Otieno, A., Waiganjo, E.W., & Njeru, A. (2015). Effect of employee communication on organization performance: in Kenya's horticultural sector. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 6(2) 138-145
- Brun, J.P (2010). Missing pieces: 7 ways to improve employees' well-being and organizational effectiveness .New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillian-researchgate.net
- Chudi-Oji, C. (2013). *Behaviour, organization and managing the human side of work*. Allyn and Bacon Inc; New York, 92-98.

- Heilman, S. C.& Kennedy P. (2011) Assessment Matters: Making assessment easier with organizational effectiveness model.
- Husain, Z. (2013). Effective communication brings successful organization. *The Business & Management Review*, 3(2), 43-50.
- Igbinosa, S.O. & Osawonyi, I.O. (2012) *Management: Fundamental theory, principles and practice*. Ambik Press Ltd.
- Jain. C. R., Apple D.K., & Ellis. W. Jr. (2015). What is Self-Growth? *International Journal of Process Education*, 7 (1);41-52.
- Keyton, J. (2011): Communication and organizational culture: A key to understanding work experience. Thousand Oaks. (A sage-researchgate.net)
- Kibe, C.W. (2014). Effects of communication strategies on organizational performance: A case study of Kenya Ports Authority. *European Journal of Business and Management* 6(11) 610.Retrieved from www.iiste.org.
- Lev, B. (2001). *Intangibles: management, measurement and reporting*. Washington, DC. The Brookings Institute.
- Luthans, F. (1990), *Organizational Behaviour*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Singapore.
- Lutgen-Sandvik, P. (2010) *Destructive organizational communications: Processes, consequences and constructive ways of organizing*. New York, NY; Routledge.

- Mckinney, E. H., Barker, J. R., Smith, D. R., & Davis, K. J. (2004). The role of communication values in swift starting action Teams: IT insights from flight crew experience, *Journal of Information & Management* 41(8), 1043-1056.
- O'Boyle, I., & Hassan, D. (2013). Organizational performance management: Examining the practical utility of the performance prism. *The organizational development journal*, 31(3), 51–58.
- Rahim, M.A. (2002) 'Toward a theory of managing organizational conflict'. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 206-235.
- Richardo,R, &Wade, D (2010). *Corporate performance management driven strategies alignment*. Butterworth Heinemann. Researchgate.net.
- Robbins, S. P. (2005). *Organizational Behaviour* (10thed.) New Delhi: Prentice-Hall, from better world books (Mishawaka) in USA..
- Robbins, S. P. (2006) *Organizational Behaviour* (11thed.) New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India Private Limited.
- Shafique, M. N., Ahmad. N., Abbas, H., & Hussain, A. (2015). The impact of customer relationship management capabilities on organizational performance: Moderating role of competition intensity. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 3(3).28-47.
- Stoner, A. F. & Freeman, E. R. (2005), *Management*, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Summers, D.C. (2010) *Quality management: creating and sustaining organizational effectiveness*. Upper Saddle River, Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Taleghani, M., & Liyasi, M. N. (2013). Organization's mission statement and organizational performance. *Universal Journal of Management and Social Sciences* 3 (8); 32-39.

The Association of Cost and Chartered Accountants Publications (2009) *Business Analysis*. BPP Learning Media Publishers Ltd, London UK.

Topemey, D. (2010) *Human Resource Development* Bombay, India. Ame Publishers.

Tubbs, S. L. & Moss, S. (2008) *Human Communication: principles and contexts*, McGraw-Hill Educational publishers.

Udegbe, S.E, Udegbe, M.I, Ogundipe K.A, Akintola O.G, Kareem R. (2012) Impact of business communication on organizational performance in Nigeria Companies. *Australian Journal of business and management research*.

Upadhaya, B., Munir, R., & Blount, Y. (2014). Association between performance measurement systems and organizational effectiveness. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 34(7).

Zheg.W, Yang B, Mclean G. (2010). Linking organizational culture, structure, strategy and organizational effectiveness: the mediating role of knowledge. *Management journal of business research volume* 63, (7), 763-771.

Journalists' Evaluation of the Transition from Analogue to Digital Broadcasting in Port Harcourt, Rivers State.

IREJU PEACE AMANNAH

Abstract

This study investigated journalists' evaluation of the transition from analogue to digital broadcasting in Port Harcourt Rivers State. The study adopted the survey research method. With a population of 450 journalists, the purposive sampling technique was used to draw a sample of 250 respondents. Data were gathered using a questionnaire. Data were also analysed using percentages, and frequency distribution tables. The findings revealed, among other things that although awareness is high, preparation towards the digitization project is low, as well as the fact that lack of government commitment is slowing down the quest for full digitization of the broadcast industry in Nigeria. It recommended among other things that proactive steps be taken by the government through its regulatory agencies to ensure the full implementation of the proposed transition from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria, especially as it relates to appropriate regulatory framework that will provide feasible guidelines and timelines for its success.

Key words: Media, Reportage, Digitisation, analogue system, broadcasting.

Introduction

Digital broadcasting provides a wide range of possibilities within the media spectrum. For example, digital televisions are becoming common place with many cable providers encouraging their customers to switch to digital television (Jonah, 2010). Television sets that receive cable and satellite signal will still receive signals from digital transmission. However, television sets that receive analogue signals via antenna will be out of place in the digital era (Kombol, 2010).

Okon & Ihejirika (2014) argue that the level of awareness and preparedness for the switch from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria is still very low. It is one thing to be aware of the full migration to digital broadcasting and another to have the technical capabilities for the digitization process. Okon & Ihejirika (2014) further maintain that what is required in the proposed digital era, “is a platform that can best be described as the quadrant of digitization”(p.40). The Actualization of the switch from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria will require collaboration among broadcasters, audience members and the government.

Explaining further on the requirements for the actualization of transmission from analogue to digital broadcasting, in their words:

The transition from analogue TV
to digital TV does require
investments by broadcasters on
transmission infrastructure
because they will need to invest

on new equipment in order to conform to digital transmission requirements as well as human resource training. Households would also need set-top boxes or new digital TV while service providers and government will ensure consumer awareness and human resource training (p.41).

According to Balarabe (2013), the goal of digitization was to improve the access to media materials. To that end, most digitized materials become searchable via databases on the internet. The new world of digitization enables single broadcast units to distribute high fidelity signals to mass audiences. In this instance, messages uploaded onto various world wide websites and servers are accessible to all who possess the proper technology to download and view them. Severin and Tankard (2001) note that the “advent of the internet is arguably the game changer in communication since the invention of broadcasting (p.39).

This study, therefore, investigated Journalists evacuation of media of the transition from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria and critically ascertain how it has affected the level of awareness and preparation of critical stakeholders like the Nigeria Broadcasting Commission (NBC), broadcasters, audience members and the government on this innovation.

Statement of the Problem

The functions of the media in the society are settled. The media does not operate in a vacuum but in consonance with the dictates of society. The media correlates society, informs

society, educates society and transmit cultural heritage from generation to generation, (Okon, 2001).

Okonju (2016) notes that Nigerian media have lost several opportunities at beating the previous deadline for digital switch-over set in times past. This is because the transition from analogue to digital broadcasting depends on the availability of critical infrastructure which are very expensive. Several broadcast stations are in Rivers State and indeed Nigeria are yet to go full digital operations because of lack of equipment. And where such equipment exists, there is paucity of requisite manpower to effectively man them. The provision of the needed infrastructure will certainly aid the broadcast media in carrying out its functions more effectively.

Ihechu & Uche (2012) had earlier informed that “the possibility of beating the deadline was bleak considering the slow approach to issues and projects in Nigeria like reinvigorating the power sector, infrastructural development, offering political solution, reversing the brain drain syndrome among other factors” (p.41).

The media cannot fight shy in its own war by shying away from reporting the need for transition from analogue to digital broadcasting in the country. It is the duty of the media to ensure that messages that point to the successful transition to digital transmission are articulated and given prominence and desired attention by the relevant stakeholders.

Objectives of the Study

The following objectives were formulated:

- 1) To examine the level of media reportage of the issues of digital broadcasting among media houses in Rivers State.
- 2) To examine the effect of media reportage on the feasibility of beating the deadline for switching over from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria.
- 3) Identify possible challenges media houses face in reporting issues of digital broadcasting in Nigeria.
- 4) Suggest ways media houses can achieve the demands for a digital era in Nigeria broadcast industry.

Research Questions

The following research questions were put forward:

- 1) What is the level of media reportage of the issues of digital broadcasting among media houses in Rivers State?
- 2) What is the effect of media reportage on the feasibility of beating the deadline for switching over from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria?
- 3) What are possible challenges media faces in reporting issues of digital broadcasting in Nigeria?
- 4) In what ways can media houses achieve the demands for a digital era in Nigeria broadcast industry.

Conceptual Literature

Digital Television Broadcasting

Digital technology has as its unique features of ensuring greater accuracy, versatility, efficiency and interoperability with other electronic media. The signal quality of digital technology is second to none. Television broadcasting involves

converting picture with accompanying sound to electrical signals, transmitting such signals through a medium after suitable amplification and re-converting the signals to picture and sound in the television set (Ilupeju, 2005).

Digital television's audio, video and data are transmitted over airwaves into devices like the computer. The purpose of digital broadcasting on devices such as cable, satellite, telecoms, is that it reduces the use of spectrum and it has more capacity than analogue, better quality picture and lower operating costs for broadcast transmission after the initial upgrade costs (Olayinka, 2010).

Digital television is a broadcasting technology that offers viewers sharper pictures and enhanced sound quality compared to the existing analogue television by transmitting large quantities of data in compact form, just like in personal computers, compact disc and the internet. Similarly, it is expected that digital television will revolutionize television viewing experience with greater innovation in the packaging of programmes aired by media outlets, (Lieberman and David, 2008).

Digital television technology emerged to public view in the 1990s, but it was in November 1, 1998 that almost 40 TV stations around the United States aired the first digital broadcast signals (Kombol, 2010, p.5). With the conversion of audio, visual signals into digital form, viewers will have clearer pictures and sound quality than analogue signals. According to the Bureau of Information and Telecommunication in the United States, digital television (or DTV) broadcasts are transmitted using digital signals. The digital TV receiver processes the picture and sound

information of the broadcast in much the same way that a computer processes data. The TV reads the pattern of 1s and 0s and converts them into whatever images or sound those particular patterns represent (Kombo, 2008).

Digital television thrives on the invention of digital technology which has made television broadcasting as “an unending and fast dynamic production capabilities”, (Michael 2010, p.1). Ekpeke (2013) notes that digital broadcasting offers the opportunity for mixed programming to broadcasters, breaking the monotony that had hitherto characterized broadcast programming and infusing innovation and creativity to broadcast programmes. Idoko (2010) avers that digital transmission is a mere efficient transmission technology that allows broadcast stations to offer improved picture and sound quality, as well as offer more programming option for consumers through multiple broadcast stream (multicasting). Multicasting allows broadcast stations to offer several channels of digital programming simultaneously, using the same amount of spectrum required for one analogue programme. This means more choicde of programmes for the audience.

Balarabe (2013) lists the benefits of digital broadcasting to include:

- a. Efficient use of available spectrum: Digitization permits the broadcasting of four to six more television channels from only one in the current analogue system. This means that a substantial part of the broadcast spectrum will be freed up for other uses.
- b. Higher quality audio (sound) and video (images) including the possible deployment of High Definition Television (HDTV).

- c. Digital television signals can carry extra information such as electronic programme guide that can provide additional programme and schedule information.
- d. Interactive programming (two-way data exchange)
- e. Mobile reception of video, internet and multimedia data

The digital television innovation has heralded an era of cost effectiveness in digital broadcasting. This is because a station can carry up to four channels on the same frequency. Also programme productions are flexible and faster than analogue (Ihechu and Uche, 2012). The amount of money spent on salaries and maintenance of infrastructure will reduce because digital technology does not go with bulk equipment, and only few people are required to man such equipment.

History of Television in Nigeria

Historically, broadcasting in Nigeria began in 1932 when the British colonial authorities introduced radio. Television broadcasting began by the Act of the Western Region House of Parliament under the leadership of the first Western Region Premier, Chief Obafemi Awolowo. Precisely on October 31, 1959, the first television signal in Nigeria was sent through the Western Nigeria Television (WNTV) from Oyo State (Ukonu, 2006).

Until 1992 when Decree 38 was promulgated under the leadership of General Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida, the broadcast industry was the sole reserve of the federal, regional and state governments. The Federal, Regional and State governments continued to monopolise broadcasting in Nigeria, despite the 1979 constitutional provision “that every person shall be entitled to own, establish and operate any medium for

the dissemination of information, ideas and opinion” which included the broadcast media (Balarabe, 2013, p.276).

The promulgation of Degree 38 of 1992 led to the establishment of the National Broadcasting Commission, NBC, saddled with the responsibility of regulating and deregulating broadcasting in the country. The law empowered the commission to license stations, regulate content and, generally, set standards for quality broadcasting in the country. The emergence of the commission set the stage for private entrepreneurs to apply for broadcasting licenses that would enable them set up private broadcasting stations in the country. Today, the number of broadcasting stations according to Balarabe (2013) in the country has risen to 394, from less than 30 before deregulation of broadcasting industry in 1992. These include the following number of private operations in the broadcast arena:

- 55 companies licensed to offer radio broadcasting services, over 90% of these are operational across the country;
- 25 companies licensed to offer television services;
- 34 wireless cable companies;
- 5 Direct to Home (DTH) satellite television platforms operational in the country.

Wogu (2006) believes that the number has increased. According to him, Nigeria (presently) has a total of 152 radio stations, 116 television stations, 40 cable stations, 143 newspapers and 25 magazines (p. 6). The National Broadcasting Commission on the 31st March, 2008 did set a deadline for digitization of all MMDS operations in Nigeria. This is in view of their recognition of the global drive towards

digital broadcasting, insisting on having MMDS licenses digitize their operations for maximum results.

Nigeria's march towards Digital Broadcasting

The decision to digitize the broadcast media industry was taken in Geneva on June 2006 by International Telecommunications Union (ITU). With the resolution, broadcasters in Europe, Africa and Middle East as well as the Islamic Republic of Iran were expected to switch to digital broadcasting by the 17th of June 2015 (Ihechu and Uche, 2012; Balarabe, 2013). According to Balarabe (2013) the resolution put in place a time table: start date for transition from analogue to digital television broadcasting was 17th June, 2006 while the deadline was 17th June, 2015. He noted that some African and Arab countries were granted an extension to protect their analogue stations till 17th June, 2020 only in Band III, that is 174260 MHZ frequency (p.2770).

It is the fear of being left behind by other countries that made Nigeria set the 17 June, 2012 three years ahead on the June 17, 2015 deadline, to switch from analogue to digital broadcasting. Nigeria officially started the digitization of its broadcast industry in December 2007, following late President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua's approval, which directed the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC) to set up modalities and pilot the programme towards the target date. Meanwhile, the commission in a forward looking manner has encouraged cable (MMDS) and DTH operators to digitize their operations. All those operating in Nigeria are now making more of transmitting digital signals (Idoko, 2010).

The NBC encouraged cable (MMDS) and DTH operators to digitize their operations and steered the sector towards the

preliminary stages of digitization. All non-terrestrial broadcasters have gone digital and virtually all the production and studio equipment of the broadcast stations in this country are all in the digital format. The final stage, which is the transmission phase, reconfigures the operational format of the industry and affects the public (Idoko, 2010). The June 17, 2015 deadline was not met. A new deadline of December, 2015, was set.

According to Ater (2010), Mobile TV services using DVB-H are well underway in Nigeria. The rollout is already complete in Abuja, Lagos, Port Harcourt and Ibadan. The next phase will expand the coverage to Onitsha, Asaba, Aba, Benin City, Enugu and Kaduna, with a further phase planned to cover Kano, Jos and Katsina (p.8).

Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored on the **Technological Determinism Theory**. Propounded by Marshall McLuhan in 1962, the theory posits that changes in technology inevitably produce profound changes in both culture and social order (Baran and Davies, 2000). Anaeto, Onabanjo and Osifeso (2008) explain that the technological determinism theory is used based on the fact that technology is a message with an answer to human physical need. Since technological innovation can imbibe development through the diffusion of the message if carries, then there is no doubt that digital broadcasting is the answer to all broadcast problems associated with the analogue regime (p.41-42).

According to Anaeto et al, the theory draws from the following assumptions:

- i. That an overly optimistic view shares the conviction that, the development and application of technology can resolve all varied physical problems of mankind.
- ii. That technology is the proponent factor for development
- iii. That technology is an inexorable, irresistible and overwhelming force, which is a message in its own right (p.78-80).

The theory was used by the researcher because of its relevance to the study. Technology is the message and answer to all human physical need, such as the need for digital broadcasting. Digital broadcasting is the answer to all broadcast problems and challenges associated with the outdated analogue system of broadcasting we operate in this part of the world.

Research Methodology

The survey method was adopted for the study. The population of this study was the census figure of Nigerian Union of journalists,(NUJ), in Rivers State. The population of registered journalists in Rivers State is 450 by (Nigerian Union of Journalists, Port Harcourt Secretariat, 2016). The purposive sampling technique was used for the study to get a sample of 250. This method was applied in the distribution of the questionnaire. The structured questionnaire was used to elicit response to questions from the respondents.

The data generated were presented using simple frequency distribution tables, percentages and numbers. The questions were further weighed on a five point Likert scale.

Data Presentation And Analysis

Psychographic Data (Research Questions)

Research Question 1: What is the level of media reportage of the issues of digital broadcasting among media houses in Rivers State?

Table 1: Respondents' assessment of the level of media reportage of the Switch over to Digital Broadcasting in Rivers State.

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	13	5.2
High	97	38.8
Low	63	25.2
Very low	60	24
Undecided	17	6.8
Total	250	100

Source: Survey Data, 2018

The result above shows that the level of media reportage of the switch over from analogue to digital broadcasting in Rivers State is somewhat high. Although some respondents still think it's low.

Research question 2:What is the effect of media reportage on the feasibility of beating the deadline for switching over from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria?

Table 2: Effect of media reportage of the switch over from analogue to digital broadcasting on the feasibility of achieving full digital transmission in Nigeria.

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Very high	11	4.4
High	64	25.6
Low	120	48
Very low	50	20
Undecided	5	2
Total	270	100%

Source: Survey data, 2018.

The results above show that media reportage of the proposed transition from analogue to digital broadcasting alone is not enough to bring about the desired result. Respondents agreed that the effect of media reportage was low. And such revelation can be relied on given that the respondents themselves are media practitioners.

Research Question 3: What are possible challenges the media faces in reporting issues of digital broadcasting in Nigeria?

Table 3: Possible Challenges to the Take-off of Digital Broadcast Switch over in Nigeria

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Funding	57	22.8
Govt's lack of commitment	90	36
Knowledge gap	42	16.8
Economic realities	40	16

Lack of manpower	21	8.4
Total	250	100

Source: Survey Data, 2018.

From the table, media reportage of the proposed transition is being hunted by Government's lack of commitment and poor funding of the various media houses. These were more of the challenges the media personnel faced in their reportage of the matter.

Research Question 4: In what ways can media houses achieve the demands for a digital era in Nigeria broadcast industry.

Table 4: Possible steps on how media houses can achieve full Digital Broadcasting in Nigeria.

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Manpower development	35	14
Consistent Sensitization	90	36
Political Education	120	48
Industrial action	25	10
Total	250	100%

Source: Survey Data, 2018.

From the respondents' view, there is urgent need for the media to engage in political education and a consistent drive of sensitization to actualize the digital transmission mandate. Merely engaging in manpower development or applying the industrial action tool will be futile because, it is the media that will suffer instead.

Discussion of Findings

The discussions here were done according to the data accrued from the research questions posed. The findings are reported as follows:

Research Question 1: The findings in this regard were that the respondents were leaping between opinions as to whether media reportage of the transition analogue to digital broadcast transmission is high or low. The result however, showed that the level of media reportage of the switch over from analogue to digital broadcasting in Rivers State was somewhat high. Although some respondents still think it's low. This is in direct apposition to the postulation by Okon & Ihejirika (2014) that the level of awareness and preparedness for the switch from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria is still very scanty. For awareness about the proposed switch from analogue to digital broadcasting, we disagree that it is lacking in Nigeria but in terms of preparedness, we concur that lack of preparedness on the part of the media is a major issue causing delay in this regard.

Research question 2: The results above show that media reportage of the proposed transition from analogue to digital broadcasting alone is not enough to bring about the desired result. Respondents agreed that the effect of media reportage was low. And such revelation can be relied on given that the respondents themselves are media practitioners. As revealed by the first research question, the awareness has not been lacking but the preparedness. Media reportage of the proposed transition from analogue to digital broadcasting can therefore not be blamed. This is because as Beal (2013) stated, "The transition from analogue TV to digital TV does require

investments by: broadcasters on transmission infrastructure because they will need to invest in new equipment in order to conform to digital transmission requirements as well as human resource training. Households would also need set-top boxes or new digital TV while service providers and government will ensure consumer awareness and human resource training”, (p.41).

Research Question 3: From the table presented, it could be said that media reportage of the proposed transition to digital broadcasting had been hindered by Government’s lack of commitment on the matter and consequently, poor funding base of the various media houses constitutes a major snag in the quest for full digitization of broadcast media operations in Nigeria. These were more of the challenges the media personnel faced in their reportage of the matter.

This finding re-echoes the submissions of Owolabi & O’neill (2013) that the economic realities no doubt could pose some threat to the smooth take off of digital broadcasting in Nigeria. Economically the cost of running a television station in our clime is no less expensive. The present economic state of the traditional media industry in the world is appalling. Also, Ibaningo (2016) restated that lack of funding had been the major reason for Nigeria’s inability to accomplish her Digital Switch Over plans in the past. And Okonji (2016) concurred that understandably, broadcast equipment are costly and some of the equipment in use in a number of broadcast stations in Nigeria are obsolete.

Research Question 4: From the respondents’ view, there is urgent need for the media to engage in political education of the political class as a way to change their seemingly fixed

mindset on certain issues. There should be a consistent drive of sensitization of the people by the media in order to actualize the digital transmission mandate. Merely engaging in manpower development or applying the industrial action tool will be futile because, it is the media that will suffer instead.

Nigeria cannot be left out of the benefits accruable from switching over to digital broadcasting from analogue systems. Kombol (2008, p.8) hints that many countries are realizing the huge benefits which digital broadcasting offers and are making a huge effort to shift from analogue broadcasting to digital broadcasting. It has also been noted that digital broadcasting delivers profitability, scalability and innovation. And as Olube (2013) puts it, over the years, the broadcast media in Nigeria have been at the forefront of engineering change and development. They have remained an energetic instrument of change and reconstruction as well as reformation. No society can function effectively without information and the media.

Summary

This study set out to examine the level of media reportage of the issues of digital broadcasting among media houses in Rivers State; evaluate the effect of such level of media reportage on the feasibility of switching over from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria; identify possible challenges facing the media houses in reporting issues of digital broadcasting in Nigeria and possibly suggest other means the media employ can actualise the digital era in Nigeria broadcast industry. These objectives formed the bedrock for the questions posed by the research.

The survey method was adopted for the study. The population of this study was journalists in the Port Harcourt. The population of registered journalists in Rivers State is 450 (Nigerian Union of Journalists, Port Harcourt, 2016). The purposive sampling technique was used for the study to get a sample of 250. This method was applied in the distribution of the questionnaire.

The data generated were presented using simple frequency distribution tables, percentages and numbers. The questions were further weighed on a five point Likert scale. The findings showed that the level of media reportage of the proposed digital transition was high within Port Harcourt but Government's lack of commitment was a major snag and that accounts for why the high level of media reportage seems not to have yielded the desired impact.

Conclusion

The issue of transiting from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria is on course, but the approach and pace of its actualization remains slow. This is attributable to a lot of challenges beyond the control of the media. Findings in this study had revealed that awareness towards the digitization project through media reportage is high. However the level of preparation from key stakeholdersthe government, broadcast professionals private media owners, remains a source of worry. Government's lack of commitment towards the actualization of the digital switch-over is burdensome and has continued to make the success of the project, a mirage.

Recommendations

From the findings of this study, the following recommendations were put forward:

- 1) That proactive steps be taken by the government to ensure the full implementation of the transition from analogue to digital broadcasting in Nigeria. This is especially as it relates to providing and enforcing appropriate regulatory framework and feasible guidelines, and tenable timeline for full digital migration in Nigeria.
- 2) Regulatory agencies like the National Broadcasting Commission, the Broadcasting Organization of Nigeria (BON) and the National Communication Commission should regularly and adequately sensitize broadcast professionals, audience members and information officers on the basic and technical information on the digitization project.
- 3) The media must fight its own fight by carrying out a value re-orientation programme for the political class. This will change the fixed mindset that has hitherto been the bane of media development in Nigeria.

References

- Adeniyi, O. (2009). *Digital broadcasting migrating, implication and challenges for Nigeria*. Retrieved on 2012/2016 from <http://www.technologytime.com/post/digital-broadcasting-migration-implications-and-challenges-for-Nigeria>.
- Adeyemi, A. (2015). Nigeria, others fail to meet digital transmission deadline. *The Guardian Newspaper*. Retrieved on 28/02/2016, from <http://www.odilient.com/news/source/june11/315.html>.
- Akinreti, Q.O., Ojo, T.O., Odegbenle, L., Owolabi, R.O., Goke, R., Jegede, O. and Nwaolike, O.N. (2013). The challenges of digitization on the broadcasting media in Nigeria. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review* (OMAN chapter). 3(5), 88-98.

- Anaeto, S., Onabanjo, O. and Osifeso, B. (2008). *Models and theories of communication*. Ibadan: African Renaissance Books Incorporated.
- Balarabe, S. (2013). Digitization of television broadcasting in Nigeria: Review. *International Journal of Social, Behavioural, Educational, Economic, Business and Industrial Engineering*. 7(10), 2767-2771.
- Chioma, P.E. (2014). A comparative evaluation of the pre and post deregulation challenges of broadcasting in Nigeria. *Journal of Research and Development*.
- GSMA (2014). Benefit of digital broadcasting. Retrieved June 16, 2016 from www.plumconsulting.co.uk.
- Idoko, O.E (2010). The challenges of digital broadcasting *Makurdi, Journal of Communication Research* 2(3), 5-12.
- Ihechu, I.P. and Uche, U. (2012). The challenges of digitization of broadcasting in Nigeria. *New media and mass communication*. ISSN 2224-3267 (paper) ISSN 2224-3275 (online Vol.5, 38-44).
- International Telecommunication Union (ITU) (2012). *Internet world statistics*, Nigeria. Retrieved on 2012/2016. From <http://www.internetworldstats.com/stats1.htm>.
- Kombol, M.A. (2008). *Digital consideration in television production*. Markurdi: Switches and pluggz.
- Lieberman, D. (2008). *Change to digital may cut off emergency information*. Retrieved on 20/02/16 from <http://www.cyberight.org/document/bangermann.html>.
- Mba-Nwigoh, E.N. (2010). The evolution of mass media development in Nigeria: Problems and prospects. *An M.A. term paper at the department of mass communication, University of Nigeria, Nsukka*.
- Mishkind, B. (2009). *The television history*. Retrieved on 03/03/16 from <http://www.oldradio.com/currentIbc.to.htm>.

- National Population Commission (NPC) (2012). *Census report*. Retrieved Aug. 3 2016, from www.NPC.gov.ng.
- NBC (2016). NBC trains Information Officers. Retrieved June 19, 2016 from www.nbc.gov.ng.
- NDTV (2014). Nigeria has tangentially missed the digitization deadline; we can still achieve it if we have the political commitment to do so. Retrieved Nov. 4 2016 from www.Thenigerianvoice.com.
- Nigeria Community Radio Coalition (2011). *Media policy briefings: Digitization of broadcasting in Nigeria* No. 2.
- Ogah O. (2009). *Digital broadcasting: migrating implications and challenges for Nigeria broadcast stations*. Retrieved May 16, 2016 from www.iiste.org/Journals.
- Okon, G.B. and Ihejirika, W.C. (2014). The 2015 deadline for digitization of broadcasting and awareness/knowledge ratio among information workers in Port Harcourt. In A.A. Amakiri and F.A. Amadi (Eds.). *Review of communication and media studies*, 39-47.
- Okon, G. B. (2001) Basic Dimensions in Mass Communication. Lagos: HDX Communications Limited.
- Okonji, Emma (2016). As Nigeria targets new digital switchover date. Retrieved Sept 16, 2016 from www.thisdaylive.com/as-nigeria-target...
- Olakitan, Y. (2012). Long walk to digitization of Nigeria's broadcasting. Retrieved May 25, 2016 from www.yemiolakitans.blogspot.com.
- Severin, W. and Tankard, J. (2001). *Communication theories: Origin, methods and uses in the mass media*. London: Longman.
- The 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Section 21.*
- Wimmer R.D. and Dominick J. R. (1987). *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*. California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.