Forward

I have the pleasure to furnish you herewith the Proceedings which herein contains a collection of the papers presented at Abuja International Conference on Human and Social Sciences (AICHSS2013) organized by African Society for Scientific Research and African Association for Teaching and Learning in cooperation with several partners and collaborating journals in the international community. The conference was held November 25-28, 2013 at FCT Education Resource Center, Abuja-Nigeria.

The AICHSS series is an academic activity for interested scholars, educators, scientists, technologists, policy makers, corporate bodies and graduate students. The aim of the conference is to diffuse research findings and create a conductive environment for scholars to debate and exchange ideas that lead to development in social, political, technological and economic spheres of the global community.

Following the call for papers by the International Scientific Commission, papers we received more than 250 proposals from 30 different countries from all continents. As a commitment to the vision and mission of academic excellence and integrity, each paper was anonymously reviewed by two members of the editorial sub-committee of the Commission. This book of proceedings contains a selection of the papers presented at the conference. Not all papers were included.

Our sincere thanks go to the FCT Education Resource Center, Abuja-Nigeria for providing the venue and facilities for the conference and many other agencies for being committed to towards ensuring the success of the conference. We thank the management and staff of our institutional partners for their cooperation and support for the project. We express our profound gratitude to all and sundry especially our Special Guests, delegates, reviewers, the media, the Nigerian foreign missions and all the cooperating partners for their contributions in promoting academic excellence.

Please read on!!!

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THE ROLE OF NIGERIA IN PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS,1960-2013

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Abstract

Peacekeeping is a peaceful third party intervention which operates with a set of guiding principles that include the consent of the parties to the conflict, impartiality and the non use of force except in self-defense. This paper examines peacekeeping operations across the globe, particularly, in Africa and West African sub-region, with emphasis on Nigeria’s role in the Liberian and Sierra Leone crises. It also analyzes the costs and benefits of the operations to the country within the period under review. The idealist theory was adopted as the tool of analysis, while the methodology was the systematic qualitative content analysis derived mainly from secondary sourced materials. The paper found out that keeping peace in one country is invariably saving an entire sub-region or region from possible spillover effects. More so, the resources expended on peacekeeping operations by Nigeria are at the expense of the country’s domestic imperatives—welfare of citizens and infrastructural development. The paper concludes by recommending reduction of financial cost of peacekeeping and prioritizing the welfare of citizens.

INTRODUCTION

This paper seeks to assess the role of Nigeria in peacekeeping operations within the West African sub-region, since the country’s attainment of independence in 1960, with focus on Liberia and Sierra Leone. Nigeria has played and continues to play pivotal roles in support of countries challenged by political instability. This big brother role lends credence to the assertion that Nigeria remains a significant actor in peacekeeping, particularly within Africa. However, while the country is being commended by the United Nations missions across the globe, a sizable number of Nigerians hold reservations regarding the huge resources expended on peacekeeping operations at the detriment of the country’s domestic needs. The idealist theory would be adopted as the tool of analysis for this research work. Idealism, as propounded by Immanuel Kant, P.R. Sakar and Hegel assumes that war and international anarchy can be reduced by strengthening the institutional arrangements that encourage its disappearance; also, war is a global problem requiring collective or multilateral, rather than national effort to control it. (Hegel, 1991).

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION OF PEACEKEEPING

Peacekeeping is a term mainly used to describe actions sponsored by the United Nations charter with primary responsibility of maintaining international peace and security. Agwu (2007) indicated that peacekeeping consists essentially of observer missions and lightly
armed forces monitoring ceasefire, operating in an essentially static mode with the consent of the parties involved.

In its traditional sense, peacekeeping meant conflict containment and it adopted the form of neutral outside assistance to mediate and encourage belligerent parties to disengage. (Dokubo, 2005: 253). For peacekeeping operation to succeed therefore, it needs to secure not only the cooperation of the conflicting parties but also of the international community-regional and sub-regional organizations like African Union, Economic Community of West African States, as well as United Nations.

Nigeria became a member of the United Nations immediately after its independence. It actively participated in ECOWAS Monitoring Group, African Union, as well as United Nations Peacekeeping Operations. The principles and objectives of Nigerian Foreign Policy made it mandatory for the country to be an active participant in African as well as global peacekeeping operations.

More so, as a non-aligned country during the cold war years, Nigeria maintained a neutral position, which made her a dependable mediator and courted participant in the forces raised to restore and maintain peace in conflict zones. This paper highlights the Liberian and Sierra Leone crises as well as the challenges that Nigeria faces in peacekeeping operations.

**NIGERIA’S ROLE IN PEACEKEEPING OPERATION IN LIBERIA**

Nigeria contributed immensely to the ECOWAS Monitoring Group (ECOMOG), an interventionist mediation force to end the protracted Liberian civil war, where the government of Nigeria put the financial cost at 8 billion (over N800 billion) apart from a large number of lost and maimed soldiers in 1987. The civil war in Liberia is significant for two reasons. First, it served as an important example of a new type of external intervention – intervention by a sub regional organization. Second, it has led to a re-examination by African leaders, of the policy of non-interference in the internal affairs of states.

Non-intervention in the internal affairs of states is one of the principles underlying the OAU (now AU). African leaders are, however, far more aware of the threat to regional security posed by internal conflicts. This was reflected in the second principle of the 1991 Conference on Security, Stability, Development and Cooperation in Africa which stated that the security, stability and development of every African country is inseparably linked with those of other African countries. Consequently, instability in one African country reduces the stability of all other countries. Nigeria shared the joy of the return to democracy by Liberia. Additionally, The then Nigeria’s president, Gen. Babangida served as the Chairman of ECOWAS thrice while the community’s secretariat in Abuja - a project mainly funded by Nigeria was completed (Yakubu, 2011:101)

**NIGERIA’S ROLE IN PEACEKEEPING OPERATION IN SIERRA LEONE**

Following a long period of military rule, Ahmad Tejan Kabbah was elected president of Sierra Leone on 17th march, 1996. Little more than one year later, On 25 May, 1997 he and his democratically elected Government were overthrown in a bloody coup led by dissident military officers and rebels from Sierra Leone’s long standing insurgency. In March 1998, A peace keeping force under Nigerian leadership with considerable help from a British/Africa mercenary from a local paramilitary (the (Kamajor), entered freetown, and restored Kabbah and his government. The motives of the Nigerian intervention were two fold: there was a natural desire for regional security, but General Sani Abacha also wanted international
legitimacy for his regime which was being discredited by the international community. The initial success of the peace keepers helped obscure some of the troubling aspects of intervention - the lack of an international mandate, the use of mercenary in peace keeping operations and the very undemocratic nature of the Nigerian regime.

At the peak of the operations, ECOMOG had 13,000 troops in the country which conducted the operations. Late in 1999 the disputants in the sierra Leonean conflict signed an agreement in Lome, Togo to end the crisis; thus paving the way for UNAMSIL. (United Nations Mission in Sierra Leone). (Anifowose, 1999).

Nigeria has every reason to be proud of her peacekeeping missions. Some of the peacekeeping operations in which Nigeria was involved include sending a battalion to Congo (UNOC) 1960-1964; Military observers to new Guinea (UNSF) 1962-1963; battalion to Tanzania by bilateral agreement 1964; Military observers during the India-Pakistan conflict (UNIPOM) 1965-1966; battalion and staff officers to Lebanon (UNIFIL), 1978-1983; battalion and staff officers to Chad (Harmony I, via bilateral agreement) 1981-1982; brigade to Chad (Harmony II, under the auspices of OAU) 1982-1983; military observers during Iran-Iraq conflict (UNIMOG) 1988-1991; division to Liberia (ECOMOG) 1990 to date; military observers for Iraq-Kuwait (UNIKOM) 1991, and to Angola (NAVEMII) 1991-1992; training teams for Sierra Leone (NATNG) 1992-1995; military observers to Namibia (UNTAG) 1989-1990; to western Sahara (MINURSO) 1991; and to Cambodia (UNTAC) 1992-1993.

The country also contributed a battalion and staff officers to Somalia (UNOSOM) 1992-1994; battalion and staff officers to the former Yugoslavia (UNPROFOR) 1992; military observers to Mozambique (ONUMOZ) 1992; a battalion to Rwanda; (UNAMIR) 1993; training teams to the Gambia (NATAG) 1993; military observers A ouzo strip (UNASOG) 1994; and to Israel (UNTSO) 1995; Liberia (ECOMOG) 1987; Sierra Leone (ECOMOG) 1996; Darfur (UNAMID) 2003. (El-Rufai, 2012.)

**CHALLENGES OF NIGERIA’S PARTICIPATION IN PEACEKEEPING OPERATIONS**

**Manpower**

The problem of manpower especially in the Nigerian Army became noticeable in the 1990s when the country began to experience insecurity. Troops had to be drawn from different units across the country to form up a complete battalion with the required strength that meets the UN standards for deployment to the mission area. In extreme cases, some personnel had been posted to deploying units as late as the time of their departure to the mission area. These individuals were deployed without pre-induction training. Obviously personnel of such ad hoc units that are filled at the last minute for a peacekeeping operation arrive in the mission area without adequate knowledge of each other’s capabilities and deficiencies. This also creates problem of command and control.

Standardization of Nigerian Army units in terms of manpower would be a positive step towards equipping the Nigerian Army for effective participation in peacekeeping operation. This could be achieve if all postings and marrying up of units are concluded 6 months prior to deployment. This would also ensure cohesion among the unit’s personnel. (Ahmed, 2010).

**Training and Doctrine**

Another major problem identified is that of training and doctrine associated with
Peacekeeping Operations. Different countries have different training doctrines for the training of its personnel. The Nigerian Army was faced with the problem of training doctrine for Peacekeeping Operations. This problem had manifested itself in various operations. In the case of ECOMOG, Anglophone oriented troops were operating alongside francophone troops which further compounded this problem. The armed forces of Nigeria should come up with a suitable doctrine for Peacekeeping Operation. This would impact positively on all aspects (organization, training, leader development, material, and selection of soldiers) of the armed forces of Nigeria’s preparations for and conducting peace support operations.

Logistics

Logistic problems are another set of hindrances impacting on Nigeria’s participation in Peacekeeping Operations. In the face of non-availability of centralized logistical support for ECOWAS sub-regional peacekeeping, participating countries suffered shortfalls in lift and other logistical capabilities. As a result most of them relied on Nigeria which was itself logistically hard pressed. There is the need to have adequate logistical support before embarking on peacekeeping operations. The nature of the logistic challenges faced by Nigerian troops deployed on Peacekeeping Operations include: lack of sufficient quantity of vehicles, lack of adequate medical facilities, insufficient communication equipment and individual soldier “kitting” the successful accomplishment of the tasks of devices (Ahmed, 2010).

Funding

Nigeria suffered financially during the first intervention in Liberia in 1990. It was always in search of financial support from other ECOWAS members for the mission. Nigeria established an “endowment fund” for the operation with an initial amount of 50 million dollars being proposed. This fund received no contributions. Generally, assistance from other sources was slow in coming. Eventually ECOWAS member states that contributed troops threatened to withdraw from the force for lack of funding. This situation caused Nigeria to single-handedly provide substantial financial support for further ECOMOG operations. The sinking of substantial financial resources to restore peace in other countries while Nigeria’s social and physical infrastructures were sorely in need of repair was difficult to rationalize with the public at large.

Most Nigerians feel the billion of dollars spent for Peacekeeping Operations could have been better used to reduce Nigeria’s foreign debt or better still, to alleviate poverty in the country where 70 per cent of the populace survives on less than 1 US Dollar per day. Use of substantial sums of money of pay for Peacekeeping Operations also helps to explain negative responses from Nigeria’s creditors when mention is made of possible debt forgiveness. Any major future involvement by Nigeria in peacekeeping would certainly be predicated on a firm commitment of financial support from either the UN or other international organization (Oni, 2002).

Administration

Nigeria’s participation in Peacekeeping Operations also surfaced problems in the areas of administration like medical care, medical evacuation, burial pay and allowance, misappropriation by selling of troops’ raw food and units. Soldiers in deployed units also complained of lack of promotion opportunities and such simple things as not being able to observe holidays. These shortcomings were largely attributed to poor unit and sub-unit leadership. The poor quality of administration in deployed units has caused significant embarrassment to the Nigerian army and the country in general.
The failure of political reengineering attempts in some countries, particularly African countries, violent border disputes, interstate aggressions, civil wars and insurgency are some of the circumstances that have been provoking large scale refugee flows in Africa, with the attendant threat to security and stability in many countries. The need for peacekeeping and sometime peace enforcement has therefore become paramount to Nigeria. Material and human resources of the armed forces have been continually committed to these operations.

The strategic role that Nigeria played in the process cannot be ignored or discarded with a wave of hand. One significant gain is that by participating in such operations, the armed forces have acquired new information, new technology and new skills that will be beneficial to attaining higher standards of professionalism. (Agwu, 2007.) Undoubtedly, as heralded by the United Nations, Nigeria is the fourth contributor to world peace. There is therefore, no gainsaying that as Nigeria maintains peace in other states it is curtailing the security threat which could consume it if not contained. Mention also must be made of Nigeria’s quest for permanent seat in the United Nations Security Council as one of the reasons for venturing into and over spending in such operations.

Nigeria has been involved in over 20 operations in and outside Africa, largely under the UN. The notable exceptions were the ECOWAS monitoring group (ECOMOG) which the country led in the 1990s to end the conflicts in Liberia and Sierra Leone and reportedly spent between 8 and 9 billion dollars, thus contributing more than 80% of personnel and finance. The huge resources committed to the operations in the face of ravaging poverty in the country are called to question. While at the end of each operation, Nigeria has virtually nothing to reap from it (Agbambu: 2010).

Apart from the fact that Nigeria lacks modern sophisticated military equipment to compete favourably with their peers in the international arena, the process of selecting troops to peace missions is also flawed. Some battalions are loaded with clerks, cooks, batmen and orderlies who can barely handle a weapon, but are ‘well-connected’. It is not unusual for those in position of authority to influence the selection process, so competence and capacity get compromised.

CONCLUSION

The recurrence of intra-State conflict in various regions of the world, most especially in developing states, seems to make the word “sustainable peace” an illusion. This paper examined the role of Nigeria in peacekeeping operations since the country’s attainment of independence in 1960. Nigeria played a prominent role in the peacekeeping and integrative efforts in the continent in places such as Sierra Leone and Liberia; the country’s efforts at maintaining peace in some trouble spots across the globe have also been and commended by the international community. However, it must be noted that the human, material and financial losses the country has incurred in these involvements have been significant; thus, having lost more than two thousand (2000) of its soldiers and expended about $10 billion, the country was considered to have lost more than it benefited.

RECOMMENDATION

Having examined Nigeria’s role in peacekeeping operation since 1960, this research work came up with the following recommendations:

1. Selection process for peacekeeping mission should be done based on merit and competence to ensure optimum result.
2. Part of the resources expended on peacekeeping missions should be channeled for the maintenance of internal security, as every nation has to survive before pursuing other interests in the international system.
3. Rather than paying much attention to peacekeeping operations, the country should prioritize the welfare of its citizens and infrastructural development.
4. Since Nigerian foreign policy can only be meaningfully conducted in a stable political environment, there is the imperative need to evolve a stable polity in the country.

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GENDER STUDIES AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

This paper looks at Gender Studies and Sustainable Development in Nigeria. The paper conceptualizes three key issues and they are gender, gender inequality/stratification and sustainable development. The relationship between gender equality and sustainable development is part of the discussion in the paper. However, the paper also discusses about different forms of gender inequality that are challenges to achieving sustainable development in Nigeria and other parts of the world. These are educational, professional, household, ownership and natality inequalities etc. The paper also has conclusion and recommendations. Some of the recommendations include the provision of equal educational opportunities for men and women by the government, mobilization programmes on the importance of gender balances, women empowerment, campaign against child labour and the roles of traditional and religious leaders in promoting gender equality in Nigeria.

Keywords: Gender, gender inequality, stratification, sustainable development, change.

Introduction

Gender studies is one of the interesting areas of research in many parts of the world including Nigeria. It is a multi-disciplinary field that is concerned with the socio-cultural construction of roles of male and female in the society and how such construction brings about changes in the socio-economic and political conditions of each sex. Gender studies attempts to explain the differences between men and women and implications of such differences in the societies. However, there is one critical point we shall understand about gender studies. It explains how inequality is produced and reproduced in human societies and also how gender becomes a discriminating tool in the distribution of labour, care, property, income, education and political process in general.

Nigeria is one of the developing countries of the world and the country is vast. It is blessed with abundant human, agricultural, solid mineral, atmospheric and water resources. But the country is facing many social, political, economic and religious challenges that are threats to achieving sustainable development. One of the challenges confronting the country is ‘gender disparity’ or ‘gender inequality’. Although the Federal Government is trying in taking some measures to correct gender balances in Nigeria through the efforts of UNESCO, UNICEF and some other national programmes such as Woman Development Initiative but gender inequality is a well known feature of Nigerian socio-economic and political landscape.

Conceptual Clarifications

Gender

The term gender has to do with socially constructed aspects of differences between men and women (John and Gordon, 2005:240). Gender can also be defined as the distinction created by societies between human beings on the basis of masculinity and femininity in relation to their expected roles in the society (Akinmade, 2000:148).
Gender also refers to the arrays of socially constructed roles and relationships, personality traits, attitudes, behaviours, values and relative power and influence that society ascribes to the two sexes on a differential basis (USAID, 2007). Bem (2010), talked about gender and for him, gender is how a person’s biology is culturally valued and interpreted into locally accepted ideas of what is to be a man or woman.

From the foregoing, it can be understood that gender is all about the disparities or differences between men and women in the society. However, the socio-cultural factors of the society also play important roles in showing the differences.

**Gender Inequality/Stratification**

This is one of the key concepts associated with gender studies. Gender inequality is a situation where there is structural discrimination, differential or unequal treatment on the basis of sex which is often rationalized by culture, institutional and administrative rules. When such kind of situation happens, access to resources, incomes and opportunities of particular sex may not be possible. On the other hand, stratification is the ranking of male and female, in terms of power, prestige, status or roles in the society. For example, in a typical African society and Nigeria in particular, men are entitled to make household decisions and the women have to conform to what they do.

**Sustainable Development**

The Bruntland Commission (1987), defined sustainable development as “the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.

In another definition by Munasinghe, (2004), sustainable development is a process of improving the range of opportunities that will enable individual humans and communities to achieve their aspirations and full potential over a sustained period of time while maintaining the resilience of economic, social and environmental system.

Age (2005:85); defined some objectives which sustainable development is expected to realize: increased capital incomes, employment, promoting human welfare, satisfying basic needs and protecting the environment.

For the concept of sustainable development, we shall consider that the path of future generation, achieving equity between the rich and poor and participation on a broad basis in development and decision making is very important in any society or nation.

**Gender Equality and Sustainable Development: The Relationship**

It can be said that there is a relationship between gender equality and sustainable development. The two concepts are interwoven, intertwined and interconnected. They are also important.

While on the other hand, development is geared towards producing or creating something new or more advanced for the society and its members. On the other hand, gender equality allows healthy rivalry and competition between men and women and also by so doing, it gives them the opportunities for achieving a sustainable development. According to Umoh (2005), gender equality and sustainable development are two sides of the same coin.
Gender equality helps in reducing marginalization and encourages the empowerment of women (Momadu and Bello 2001: 204). It is also through that sustainable development can be achieved in our societies.

Therefore, the sustainable development can be seen as the target goal since it is meant for the society and its members; gender equality remains the instrument for achieving and attaining the goal.

From the foregoing, it can be said that gender equality and sustainable development have a very strong relationship. Gender equality seems to directly determine whether the sustainable development can be achieved or not and therefore, there is the need for a good leadership in our societies that can enhance and promote gender balances for a sustainable national development.

**Forms of Gender Inequality**

There are many different forms of gender inequality in Nigeria and other parts of the world and they are also challenges to achieving a sustainable development.

Sen (2003), observes that there are over 100 million missing women in the world. They are missing because of bias in relative care. Besides, there are other studies conducted by (Coale 1984 and Das Gupta 1987) and the studies discussed about the prevalence of missing women. This has to do with embryos and foetuses that are aborted, femicide victims and those who lost their lives due to gender based violence. Sen (2001a, 2001b), identifies different forms of gender inequality. These forms of inequality are to be discussed in relation to contemporary situations in Nigeria and other parts of the world.

i) **Educational inequality:** Education has to do with a process of teaching, training and learning especially in schools or colleges to improve knowledge and skills. Education is also a tool for any meaningful development in societies. Inequality is common in the education sector. This is a wide disparity in school enrolment for boys and girls especially in Africa and Asia. Women that are denied education are usually married out at tender age as low as 10 years old. They are often denied vocational skills and hence they are not productive. Due to over dependence on male partners, women are vulnerable to all forms of abuse. There is growing interest in female education in Nigeria but the gap in school enrolment is still wide. The United Nations (2007), observes that girls and children from poorer or rural families are least likely to attend school.

ii) **Professional Inequality:** This is an inequality between men and women in terms of employment and promotion in work and occupation. It is very common in Nigeria and other parts of the world. According to United Nations (2007), over 60 percent of unpaid family workers are women worldwide. This simply means that women will continue to lack access to job security and protection. In northern Africa, for example, women’s participation in paid employment is very low and there has not been significant progress. Even in Nigeria, the women are most of the times denied leadership roles and this is because of some socio-cultural beliefs.

iii) **Household Inequality:** This is another form of inequality that is a challenge to achieving a sustainable development. Household has to do with all the people living together in a house. In Nigeria and other part of the world, there is a household
inequality. This is because the women are usually made to be in the subordinate position in terms of decision making and allocation of household resources.

iv) **Ownership Inequality:** Ownership has to do with the fact of owning something like a property such as a land etc. In Nigeria and other part of the world, the ownership of land is often unequal. This is because in extreme cases, women are not allowed to own or sell a property.

v) **Natality Inequality:** Natality simply means birth and natality inequality refers to inequality at birth that happens when the preference to make children is given to female ones.

Sen mentions that there are over 100 million missing women in the world. Most of those women lost their lives as a result of gender inequality. Two other different computations suggest that missing girls at birth and excess female mortality after birth add up to more than 6 million women a year. Of these 23 percent in the reproductive years (15-49 years) and 38 percent in the age 60 and older group....while excess male mortality accounts for 1 million a year (World Bank 2011-120). There are some countries of the world such as China, India and Sub-Saharan Africa that account for 87% percent of the world’s missing girls and excess female mortality among women of reproductive age in sub-saharan Africa especially due to high prevalence of HIV among them. Due to gender inequality, women are 3 times likely to be infected with HIV than men (Amzat 2010) and for that reason, more women die from HIV than men.

Going by the analysis above, it can be said that there is high value on male births than the females in our societies.

**Conclusion**

This paper has attempted to discuss about Gender Studies and Sustainable Development in Nigeria. It discussed about important issues on gender studies in Nigeria and other parts of the world. Some of the issues are the conceptualization of gender, gender inequality, stratification, sustainable as well as the relationship between gender equality and sustainable development. Different forms of gender inequalities that are challenges to achieving a sustainable development in Nigeria and other parts of the world have also been discussed in the paper.

Based on that, it can be noted that gender studies and sustainable development are important. As such, there is the need for the promotion of gender balances by the government and non-governmental organizations in Nigeria so that a good sustainable development can be achieved.

**Recommendations**

The paper has some recommendations that can also be considered important and they are as follows:

- There is the need for the governments in Nigeria at the Federal, State and Local Government level to give equal educational opportunities for men and women. This is because education is a tool that can bring about positive changes and with that, a sustainable development can be achieved.
A mobilization programme on the importance of gender education is needed in our societies and the programme can also be organized through the mass media. With that, majority of the people that live particularly in the rural areas of Nigeria can be enlightened on the value of men and women and how they can contribute to national development.

The empowerment of women is very important in Nigeria. They should be adequately equipped with vocational skills that can help them to be productive and also contribute to national development. The women development initiative is a programme that is introduced by the government of Goodluck Ebele Jonathan, the President of Nigeria and it can be a good example.

The fight against child labour and other related issues can bring about developmental changes in Nigeria. As such, there is the need for the government to give all the necessary support to organizations such as National Agency for the Prohibition of Trafficking in Persons and other Related Matters (NAPTIP). This is because it is an agency that fights against child labour and all other forms of men and women trafficking.

However, there is also the need for the support of traditional and religious leaders in Nigeria. They should all give their co-operation in making gender equality a priority so that a sustainable development can be achieved in the country.

References


EVALUATING THE USAGE AND INTEGRATION OF ITS AND ISS IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN A SPROUTING NATION

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ABSTRACT
This article explores the impact of the changing context of information technologies (ITs) and information systems (ISs) on teacher education (TE). ITs and ISs have influenced educational philosophy and classroom practices all over the world. Significant technological innovations over the last three decades have altered the environment in which educators operate, and profoundly changed the experience of both formal and informal education. The impact and pervasiveness of ITs and ISs have forced traditional Colleges and of Education and University Faculties of Education into a period of transition and transformation. Colleges and Faculties of Education have, for example, become sites of branding and rebranding. The policy makers associated with these programs reflexively look to market-based solutions without first giving serious thought to the challenges preventing the effective integration and use of ITs and ISs in TE, particularly in developing economies. Using a theory-based method of analysis, this paper gathers and analyzes contemporary views and ideas on education and technology. This paper finds that the impact of ITs and ISs on TE programs in Nigeria has shortchanged these programs. As a result, education consumers and stakeholders are dissatisfied with the slow integration and use of ITs and ISs in government owned institutions of higher education in general and in TE programs in particular.

Keywords: ITs and ISs, ITs and ISs Use, ITs and ISs Integration, Colleges of Education, Faculties of Education, Teacher education programs, Student teachers, Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION/BACKGROUND
The globalization of the education sector and impacts of globalization on the workforce require a different kind of education; one that enhances the ability of learners to access, assess, adopt, and apply knowledge, to think independently, to exercise appropriate judgment, and to collaborate with others to make sense of new circumstances. Much like globalization, emerging technologies have impacted all aspects of national economies and societies. Teacher education has been highly affected by global trends in technology, particularly its economics and business content (Singh & Papa, 2010). Among UNESCO’s recent strategic objectives for improving the quality of higher education are the diversification of content and methods, the promotion of experimentation and innovation, and the diffusion and sharing of information, best practices and policy dialogues (UNESCO, 2002, 2003). Many of these objectives relate directly to information technologies (ITs) and information systems (ISs) which have become critical personal and social tools and have had a revolutionary impact on how we see and love in the world (Ololube, Kpolovie, Amaele, Amanchukwu, & Briggs, 2013). In the context of teacher education, ITs and ISs involve the gathering, processing, storing, distributing and use of information in a range of strategy, management and operational activities with the aim of improving the effectiveness and efficiency of teachers.
Information capitalism and globalization have likewise impacted the ways in which teaching and learning are carried out in education programs around the world (Singh & Papa, 2010). Innovations in educational technologies are revolutionizing educational design and methodology (Miniaoui & Kaur, 2014). These trends, however, are not widespread and must be further strengthened if they are to reach a large percentage of the population, especially in the third world. In a complex society like Nigeria, many factors affect the use and integration of technologies in the teaching and learning process. As a result, a pro-active, interdisciplinary and integrated approach is required to ensure the successful development of teacher education and, in turn, the successful future development of the national economy (Ololube, 2014).

The global academic landscape includes research, teaching and learning. It includes educational programs and courses, the pedagogy or methodology of teaching, the research process (including dissemination and publication), library information systems and services, and administration and management. The integration of IT and ISs in teacher education programs has been the topic of a great deal of debate throughout this landscape. In Nigeria, the relationship between the development of ITs and ISs for teacher education programs and their diffusion into programs in Colleges of Education and university Faculties of Education is dependent upon governmental policies (Ololube, 2011).

Information technologies and systems are indispensable and have been accepted as part of the contemporary world especially in industrialized societies. In fact, many have already begun considerable adjustments to meet the challenges and opportunities of the knowledge age. The pervasiveness of ITs/ISs has brought about rapid changes in technology and attendant social, political, and economic transformations (Ololube, 2006a). The field of education has not gone untouched. Without a doubt, ITs and ISs have impacted the quality and quantity of teaching, learning, and research in teacher education programs globally and to some extent in Nigeria. ITs and ISs provides opportunities for student teachers, and academic and non-academic staff to communicate with one another more effectively during formal and informal teaching and learning (Yusuf, 2005). Consequently, student teachers and academic and non-academic staff now require training not just in basic computer literacy, but also in the use of various communication and educational software packages and applications (Ololube, 2006b).

Teachers today must begin to learn at the outset of their teacher training programs about how to effectively integrate ITs/ISs into their classroom activities and school structure. Given that the quality of faculty is known to be a key predictor of student learning (Ololube, 2011), teacher education faculty training in ITs/ISs use is thus critical. Both ITs and ISs can facilitate student teacher training and help student teachers to take full advantage of the potential of technology to enhance quality and student learning in their own future classrooms. ITs/ISs have also introduced a new era in traditional face-to-face (f2f) methods of teaching and learning and in blended learning (BL). It is therefore pertinent that Nigerian education settings open themselves to the benefits that these new trends have offer in terms of building capacity and improving access to information.

The ability to effectively manage and plan for ITs/ISs enhances the proactivity of authorities with respect to information relevant to teaching services, in line with global best practices. When properly approached, ITs/ISs management can provide some of the essential information needed to manage education systems in an efficient and productive
manner. This management effort must involve teachers and students as well as administrators and policymakers.

Figure 1: Image for Information Systems Management

Source: (http://www.leadership-idn.com/definition-of-information-system-management/)

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In a complex society like Nigeria, we recognize that a number of prominent factors affect the successful development of teacher education programs. As such, it is quite impossible to consider all such factors at present. The purpose of this study is thus to address, exclusively, ITs and ISs in relation to teacher education and the sustainable development of education in Nigeria. This paper asserts that the effective use of ITs/ISs in teacher education addresses both the problem and solution to technology-based learning. ITs/ISs enable synergistic results that benefit pre-service teachers as they graduate and carry out their duties as teachers. Nonetheless there remains a need to better design teacher education curriculum and programs so that pre-service teachers can better plan for unanticipated and unintended results that confront them in the classroom in terms of ITs/ISs. At the societal level, ITs/ISs help us to better manage complex information flows and to integrate these flows in effective policy formulation and planning towards the maximization of human capital and potential.

It is more important now than ever that teacher education programs recognize these and other positive ramifications of ITs/ISs and ensure their graduates are equipped with effective and integrated tools and training modules to lead the next generation of students in the dynamic and innovative use and further development of these tools. Despite efforts by
both the federal and state government, however, to establish effective teacher education programs in Nigeria, an ongoing lack of adequate ITs/ISs infrastructure on university and college campuses has reduced access to ITs/ISs instructional material for both faculty and students. Consequently, most teachers and student teachers rarely, if ever, come into contact with ITs/ISs aided instructional materials (Ololube, Umunadi & Kpolovie, 2014).

The desire to carry out this research arose from the need to examine the effectiveness of teacher education programs in Nigeria in relation to the role and usage of ITs/ISs. Theoretically, this paper aims to ascertain the degree to which ITs/ISs has impacted the development of teacher education. In general, the purpose of this study is to verify the research hypothesis as a basis for encouraging Nigerian institutions of higher education to maintain or improve the quality of their teacher education programs. This paper hopes to provide education administrators, planners and policymakers with the empirical models that will help them to better come to terms with the reality on ground in terms of the effective application of ITs/ISs in teacher education programs.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN NIGERIA

Nigerian Colleges of Education and Faculties of Education in universities are openly committed to excellence in teacher education programs. Excellence in teacher education can be taken to mean effectively providing teaching and learning experiences that prepare student teachers for the challenges of today’s multifaceted, ever varying, and varied workplace (Ololube, 2006). The guiding philosophy of teacher education is to produce student teachers with sharp intellectual minds capable of further critical intellectual inquiry (Ololube, 2011). Colleges and Faculties of Education are among several institutions in Nigeria that offer teacher education services to students who wish to specialize in subjects including agricultural science, arts, environmental sciences, health education, humanities, information and communication, management and social sciences, and the natural and applied sciences.

Colleges of Education offer post-secondary National Certificate in Education (NCE) training programs. The NCE is the qualification required to teach in junior secondary schools and technical colleges. In addition to training junior secondary school teachers, Colleges of Education now also train primary school teachers. The NCE has become the minimum qualification for primary school teaching as of 1998. Some of the Colleges also offer NCE pre-primary courses to produce qualified teaching personnel for the pre-primary level (Moja, 2000). Universities in Nigeria offer Bachelor of Education degree programs to both senior secondary school graduates and senior secondary school teachers who already have NCE qualifications. They also offer Masters and Doctorate degree programs in education.

Introduction to Computer Science is a fundamental course for student teachers in Nigeria either as part of their program or as a part of a previously completed major. Computer science is ideally taught in a general and applied fashion and produces graduates who are scientifically and technically skilled in information processing, data collection and analyses, and communication. All of this should be set in a problem-solving context where students learn about the planning and management processes involved in using computers. Introduction to Computer Science should also involve teaching and learning about the information needs of computers, the design of information management systems, and the principles and practices of system usage.
The successful completion of an introductory course in computer science is a critical accomplishment for undergraduate students who may one day be at the helm of decision making in their workplace and looking to keep pace with the demands of a globalized economy. This course is equally important for students who are planning to further their studies in the future and who, as graduates, will need to make informed professional development decisions using ITs/ISs. Introduction to computer science courses are challenging classes to teach because the technical complexity of the course material is quite high while student interest in this material can, unfortunately, be quite low. In most cases, take home assignments are given to students with basic instructions and sources for materials on the Internet. In some cases, assignments are submitted to faculty members via e-mail and feedback is provided to students’ days after the submission also via e-mail (Ololube, 2014).

In Nigeria, the need for well qualified teachers cannot be underemphasized. Teacher education is a means of providing teachers with the skills and knowledge needed to carry out their teaching responsibilities (Osunde & Omoruyi, 2004). Teacher education is concerned with the art of acquiring professional competencies and professional growth. It is designed to produce highly motivated, sensitive, conscientious and successful classroom teachers who will handle students effectively and professionally towards better educational achievement (Ololube, 2005a, b). According to Amedeker (2005), inadequate teacher preparation programs results in teachers’ inability to demonstrate adequate knowledge and understanding of the structure, function and development of their disciplines. An effective teacher education program is thus a prerequisite for a reliable and resilient education which leads to confidence among both teachers and students as a result of effectively and professionally coordinated learning (Lawal, 2003; Umunadi and Ololube, 2014).

Teacher education programs in Nigeria are under the supervision and control of governmental organizations. The National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) (2013) has responsibility for teacher education in Nigeria delivered by Colleges of Education. At present there are 74 Colleges of Education, of which 22 are controlled and funded by the Federal Government, 47 are controlled and funded by state governments, and 3 are owned by private agencies. The NCCE was established in 1990 to set minimum standards for all teacher education programs and accredit their certificates and other academic awards after obtaining the prior approval of the Minister. The Commission has also been given responsibility for approving guidelines and establishing criteria for accreditation for Colleges of Education in Nigeria. Nigeria’s 129 universities, in contrast, are under the direct supervision of the National Universities Commission (NUC) (2013). Polytechnics, of which 9 run Nigeria Certificate in Education (NCE) programs, fall under the National Board for Vocational Colleges and Technical Education (NBTE) (2013).

Table 1: Status and List of Institutions that Offer Teacher Education Programs in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>Numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Federal Colleges of Education (Regular)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Colleges of Education (Technical)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Colleges of Education (Special)</td>
<td>1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
The National Teachers Institute (NTI) was established to provide refresher and upgrade courses to teaching personnel, to organize workshops, seminars and conferences, and to formulate policies and initiate programs that will lead to improvement in the quality and content of education in the country. In pursuit of this, the Institute has initiated training and retraining programs to help unqualified primary school teachers receive the qualifications now required. Recently, the Institute also embarked on an NCE program through a Distance Learning System (DLS). Lastly, the Institute provides training for the Pivotal Teachers Training Program (PTTP) also by means of a DLS. The PTTP was introduced in 2002 as a means of producing teachers to fill the gap in teacher supply for the Federal Government's newly introduced Universal Basic Education (UNBE) (Osunde & Omoruyi, 2004).

The requirements for admission to teacher training differ depending on the type of institution. Colleges of Education require prospective candidates to have at least three credits in senior school and two other passes. At the university level, prospective candidates must have five senior school credits that include the chosen major teaching subjects. Prospective College of Education and Polytechnic students are required to sit for and pass the Polytechnic/College of Education Matriculation Examination, while prospective university students are required to pass the Joint Admission and Matriculation Board Examination (Moja, 2000).

**ITs/ISs AND TEACHER EDUCATION**

Many Nigerian teachers have been unable to find effective ways to use technology in their classrooms or any other aspect of their teaching and learning life. In terms of an explanation, teachers often note that cite their use of technology in the classroom has not been encouraged and that they have not been well trained in the use of ITs/ISs as teaching tools and a means for educational sustainability (Ololube, 2006), notwithstanding the specifications in the National Policy of Education (FRN, 2004). Nigeria as a nation has come late and slow to the use of ITs/ISs in all sectors, particularly education. This is a result of chronic limitations brought about by both economic disadvantages and government policies. These factors have a direct impact on the nation’s educational development.

In a 2005-2006 study by Global Information Technology (2005), the Networked Readiness Index (NRI) was used to measure the degree of preparation of 115 economies for participating in and benefitting from ITs/ISs development. Nigeria ranked 90th out of the 115 countries surveyed. The United States of America topped the list, followed by Singapore, Denmark, Iceland, Finland, Canada, Taiwan, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. In a similar study of 104 countries in 2004 Nigeria ranked 86th (Global Information Technology, 2004). Thus rather than showing improvement, Nigeria’s readiness is declining. Slow or limited access to basic ITs/ISs equipment, low Internet connectivity, inadequate computers, and poor use of audiovisual materials and equipment (films, slides,
transparencies, projectors, globes, charts, maps, bulletin boards, programmed materials, information retrieval systems, and instructional television) in teacher education programs are very real barriers to the effective and professional development of teachers in Nigeria (Ololube, 2006). Administrators and instructors must thus make educational technology an integral part of teaching and learning so as to provide a clear demonstration of how the use of instructional technology tools can address the personal and general objectives of teaching and learning in Nigeria.

In recent years the integration of ITs/ISs in university teaching, and particularly in teacher training programs, has been the topic of much discussion (Larose et al., 1999) as ITs/ISs has impacted the quality and quantity of teaching, learning, and research in traditional and distance education institutions around the world. In concrete terms, ITs/ISs literacy has enhanced teaching and learning through its dynamic, interactive, and engaging content, and has provided real opportunities for individualized instruction (Newhouse, 2002a). Information and communication technology has the potential to accelerate, enrich, and deepen skills, motivate and engage students in learning, help to relate school experiences to work practices, help to create economic viability for tomorrow’s workers, contribute to radical changes in school, strengthen teaching, and provide opportunities for connection between institutions and the world. ITs/ISs can make education more efficient and productive by engendering a variety of tools to enhance and facilitate teachers’ professional activities (Yusuf, 2005). To Newhouse (2002b), technology is further developed to solve problems, improve living standards and to increase productivity. It is reasonable to expect educational technology to be developed with similar objectives. That is, if a teacher selects the most appropriate educational technology, student learning can be optimized and an increase in the value of the outcome obtained (Ololube, 2014).

Newhouse (2002a) explains educational productivity as a concept most happily found in economics textbooks where the productivity of a worker or economic unit is defined by dividing the output (revenue) by the input (costs). This is generally more difficult to define for the education industry since the output is not easily measured, particularly in monetary terms, to enable its comparison with costs. Nonetheless, Newhouse offered a helpful definition of output as the quality and quantity of learning demonstrated by students, or learning outcomes.

The concept of teacher ITs/ISs literacy is theoretically unclear and changing in that the precision of the definition depends on whether it occurs at the level of operational abilities or at other levels. Most contemporary authors tend to center the definition of ITs/ISs literacy on a few core competencies or abilities, which might then determine whether teachers know or do not know how to use ITs/ISs instructional material. Ideal definitions go beyond this to include the ability to prepare and use a selection of appropriate and operational ITs/ISs materials, and the ability to identify and efficiently affect specific student purposes in order to build knowledge and develop critical and creative thinking. Teachers committed to improving their competence in ITs/ISs are likely to contribute, directly or indirectly to the growth of student’s achievement (Ololube, 2014).

Teacher education and training is a means for professional updating, which deals with all developmental functions, directed at the maintenance and enhancement of one’s professional competence and literacy. Teacher education and training must support the idea that ITs/ISs is an important factor in teachers’ job effectiveness and professional development. Studies concerning staff training and education clearly demonstrate the need
to offer teachers better opportunities to develop their ITs/ISs based knowledge in order to support this effectiveness (Kautto-Koivula, 1993, 1996). Teachers need techniques, tools and assistance that will help them to develop ITs/ISs based projects and activities designed to elevate the level of teaching in required subjects and in turn improve student learning and academic achievement (Aduwa-Ogiegbaen & Iyamu, 2005).

Newhouse (2002b) has classified the educational impacts of the use of ITs/ISs along five dimensions. These are:

- Students Attributes [ITs/ISs Capability, Engagement, Achievement of Learning Outcomes]
- Learning Environments Attributes [Learner-centered, Knowledge-centered, Assessment-centered, Community-centered]
- Teacher Professional ITs/ISs Attributes [Vision & Contribution, Integration & Use, Capabilities & Feelings]
- School ITs/ISs Capacity Attributes [Hardware, Connectivity, Software, Technical Support, Digital Resource Materials]
- School Environment Attributes [Leadership & Planning, Curriculum Organization, Curriculum Support, Community Connections, Accountability]

In contrast to many of the studies citing the benefits of ITs/ISs teacher training, Larose et al. (1999) argue that regardless of the quality of ITs/ISs equipment available to teachers and independent of the quantity of courses they have taken in their undergraduate studies, the transfer of acquired competencies and learning into practice is poor. The major impact of education on the educated, in fact, remains at the level of the “private” use of these technologies and not in their integration into daily teaching practices. In their findings, many of the educated, no matter the level of education, are computer literate but do not use technologies in their teaching because of their fear that the rate of obsolescence of the hardware and/or software will make their task more complex and interminable.

DISCUSSION

Theoretical and personal observation evidence suggests that teacher training programs provided by Nigerian institutions of higher education are hindered by their ineffective use and provision of ITs/ISs instructional materials. Although, based on observation, teacher preparation programs have slightly impacted the level of performance of Nigerian teachers this has not been to the extent needed to meet UNESCO’s (2005) Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for education. It might be deduced that there is a considerable relationship between ITs/ISs integration and usage and the poor standard of teacher education programs in general which invariably affect the student and in-service teachers’ classroom performance. Yusuf’s (2005) study, for example, found that most teachers in Nigeria do not have the needed experience and competence in the use of computers for educational or industrial purposes. Most, in fact, lack competence, skills and knowledge in basic computer and software operations. Yusuf found no significant difference between male and female teachers in their experience in using ITs/ISs materials, their levels of proficiency in computer operations, and their use of common software. Furthermore, the introduction of computer education into Nigerian secondary schools in 1988 has largely been unsuccessful as a result of teacher incompetence. Studies (e.g., Yusuf, 2005) have recognized that teachers’ ability and willingness to use ITs/ISs materials and integrate these into their teaching is largely dependent on the quality of professional ITs/ISs development received.
Teachers trained in today’s teacher education programs are not technologically equipped to meet the challenges of the 21st century and carry out their duties in line with global transformations in science and technologies. Existing curriculum designed for the training of student teachers in Nigeria does not include the practical usage of ITs/ISs materials such as computers, software, slides, and overhead projectors. In situations where computers are provided, training is based only on theoretical models. Student teachers rarely come into contact with ITs/ISs instructional materials, including those in the department of educational technology proper.

The institutions responsible for the provision of teacher education programs provide programs within the confines of the mandate given to them by federal and state governments through various bodies that coordinate their activities. Their ability to be effective is dependent, for the most part, on the policies set by these bodies and the availability of funds for the purchase and maintenance of much-needed ITs/ISs equipment. According to Osunde and Omoruyi (2004), the greatest problem faced by teacher education programs is inadequate funding coupled with a lack of library facilities and inadequate teaching/learning materials. This may account for much of the limited effectiveness of the teacher training programs. It is possible as well that some of the hardship faced by these institution, and their inability to develop an effective and proficient ITs/ISs literate teaching cadre, is as a result of corrupt practices by both federal and state government officials on the one hand, and the regulatory bodies and officials in teacher education institutions on the other.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Technological changes over the past three decades have rendered teacher education and training more important than ever. Teacher education programs around the world, however, are struggling to keep up with the new demands placed on them by the 21st century classroom. They are working, albeit slowly, towards providing their graduates with the knowledge and skills needed in evolving marketplaces and sophisticated learning environments, and to prepare teachers for lifelong learning. In order to meet these challenges, many countries have begun to focus concurrently on expanding access, improving internal efficiency, promoting the quality of teacher teaching and learning, and improving system management (Haddad & Jurich, [n.d]).

Quality education is seen as the main instrument for social, political and economic development of a nation. Thus the strength, security and well-being of Nigeria rest squarely on the quality of education provided for its citizens. Education has enabled a steady supply of human resources for national economies, especially in the west where education is seen and accepted as an effective instrument for success. It is thus essential that we recognize that teachers are indispensable for successful learning about ITs/ISs, and learning and teaching through ITs/ISs to improve the standard of education in Nigeria.

ITs/ISs is an important instrument in the development of quality teaching and learning in educational systems around the world, as well as a means for fundamentally transforming existing school principles and practices to better prepare students to meet innovations in the global arena. Achievements in ITs/ISs penetration and usage in Nigeria teacher education programs are dependent on the recognition, by federal and state governments and educational authorities, of the importance of ITs/ISs application to education for sustainable
development. This recognition must manifest as useful policies and the provision of sufficient funds on the one hand and the implementation of policies by coordinating bodies and the institutions themselves on the other. It is clear that secondary school students in Nigeria are already far behind their peers in developed countries and that the digital divide continues to grow (Aduwa-Ogiegbaen & Iyamu 2005). Federal and state governments, through The National Universities Commission (NUC) and the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE), must thus invest heavily in the institutions that offer teacher education programs. Such an effort will create an enabling environment in which teacher education programs can strive to produce highly qualified and ITs/ISs literate teachers that will help to make the integration and use of ITs/ISs in schools a success.

Teacher education institutions in Nigeria must assume leadership role in revolutionizing education or be left behind in the wake of rapid technological changes. Accordingly, for Nigerian education to reap the full benefits of ITs/ISs in learning, it is essential that student teachers and in-service teachers are able to effectively use ITs/ISs tools for learning. As noted by Newhouse (2002a, 2002b) and UNESCO’s (2002) with emerging technologies, the teaching profession is evolving from emphasis on teacher-centered, lecture-centered instruction to student-centered interactive learning environments. Designing and implementing successful ITs/ISs enabled teacher education program is thus the key to fundamental, wide-ranging educational reforms.

Teacher education institutions and programs must provide leadership in new teacher education models, pedagogies and tools for learning through an effective strategic plan. That is, leadership in teacher education programs should be visionary about conceiving a desired future state, which includes the depiction of where and what the teacher education program should be in the future, without being constrained by such factors as funding and resources. It must then work backward to develop an action plan to bridge the gap between the current and desired state (Ololube, 2014).

This paper sought to provide an understanding of the impact of ITs/ISs on teacher preparation so as to support the nurturing of a new caliber of teachers whose professional abilities are key to the development of a struggling economy. This is so because the purpose of teacher education is no longer simply to convey a body of knowledge, but to teach how to learn, how to problem-solve and how to blend the old with the new. It is therefore imperative to establish innovative programs and curriculum that will address the challenges of teacher education in a globalized world.

This study proposes that Colleges and Faculties of Education undertake a strategic planning analysis to determine their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT). As part of this analysis, they should first determine the intellectual capabilities needed to cope with current complexities in teacher education programs. Second, they will need to set priorities for teacher education programs according to the present and future needs and demands of Nigeria’s citizenry. Third, they must be on the lookout for opportunities to improve and guarantee the quality of education. Finally, Colleges and Faculties of Education must be creative and prepare themselves for the challenges of the 21st century in line with the MDGs for both education and sustainable development.
REFERENCES


AUTOMATION AND DIGITIZATION OF PRIMARY/POST PRIMARY SCHOOL LIBRARIES AS AN IMPETUS FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING

Suleiman Bello

Abstract

This paper focuses on Automation and Digitization of school libraries as an impetus for effective teaching and learning. This is to facilitate information searches and retrieval with the use of computer hardware's and software's necessary for this action. The paper also discusses school libraries with its sole objective of improving teaching and learning in primary and post primary schools by providing necessary materials that will complement and supplement school curriculum. The resources and services available in school libraries such as, print and non-print were also enumerated. The paper also highlighted the concept of digitization Automation as it enhances effective use of library resources. Challenges encountered in Digitizing school libraries as inadequate funding, lack of qualified manpower to operate the computer system, inadequate facilities and equipment e.t.c. were also emphasized. Conclusively, the paper proffers recommendations as a way forward to the challenges encountered in school libraries.

Keywords: Automation, Digitization, School Libraries, Teaching and Learning.

Introduction

The impact of effective library services to the achievements of the academic aspirations of institution cannot be over stressed. Undoubted quick access to relevant information has been considered one of the crucial factors for success in any man's numerous activities. For instance in modern society no wise man would take any socio-economic matter without adequate supply of relevant information. Similarly, it has also been realized that in fields of human activities, there are jobs and duties requiring speed and accuracy for their performances. A library service is one of such human activities. Hence the new manifestation of interest for computer by librarian in Nigeria with desire for promoting effective library service across the country (Abdullah, 2002). It has also been observed that at the international level, information has become an unprecedented crucial factor in the race for who rules the world. It is little wonder then that countries like United State of America invest abundant resources in the storage and dissemination of information in the firm believes that he who runs the information runs the show.

Chan (2002) argued that to consider survival without information is to think of surviving without food, water and protection. Knowing who your enemies are, where they are, their numbers and weapons are basic to survival. Modern intelligence systems and the application of computers are based on discovering and accessing this information in much sophisticated way than our ancestors. It is valueless to find out after the battle even if, it helps you to justify why you lost.

In a recent survey study conducted, the Education Sector Analysis (ESA) of the Federal Ministry of Education, the following information is known concerning the state of school
library services in Nigeria schools. There were libraries in some primary and secondary schools providing some form of services to support teaching and learning in the schools. The learning resources collections consist mainly of books reference, fiction and non-fiction. The services also include provision of materials to support the curriculum and to promote reading.

The school library provides not only varied resources for learning but also be a conducive environment. The library setting encourages self-directed learning, as students conduct independent searches for information, utilizing available resources or survey other possible sources. The library environment fosters cooperation and group work, as students work together on project (Cohn, Kelsey & Fiels, 1997). In addition to this the school library also provides services such as:

a. Teaching the skills of using an appreciating book
b. Developing interest in reading through story hour, book talks and group activities
c. Creating awareness for library collection through displays and preparation of book list
d. Working with teachers to plan class assignment and project that will require the use of library resources to complete the assignment
e. Encouraging the use of skills in design, creative writing, production and use of instructional media to teachers and pupils
f. Creating a circulate system that will facilitate the effective use of learning resources in the school library
g. Production of instructional materials

How we care for our collection is the natural reflection of the value we place in them. For some time, our preservation efforts have been static and dependable: binding for journals, binding for paper back monographs, regular repair of heavily – used items, specialized repair for valuable items and decent environmental conditions have formed the standard. Predictably, as collections are changing so is the issues attendant to preservation. Perhaps the biggest dynamic is the change in scholarly publishing, fueling the discussion over what preservation is and should be in an increasingly digital world. At present, preservation librarians point out that a digital surrogate to an item in print item through less handing, but it does not provide the long term protection to which school libraries generally aspire. Thus the use of acid-neutral paper and microform continue to provide the best preservation available to school libraries.

A computer is a fast and accurate electronic device that has the ability to automatically accept data, process data and produce results under the influence or direction of stored program of instructions. According to IFLA/UNESCO (2000), a computer is a “machine which will accept data and series of sequenced instructions and which will then process by data according to the instruction by a human being”. Gbaje (2007) sees the computer as nothing more than a glorified calculation. It has no intelligence of its own, and only does what you tell it to do, for a computer to be meaningfully used; the librarian or the operator must learn to speak the computer how to do a job.

The term automation refers to a wide variety of systems and processes that operate with little or no human intervention. In the most modern automation systems, control is exercised by the system itself, through control devices that sense changes in such conditions as
temperature, rate of flow, and volume and then command the system to make adjustments to compensate for these changes. The applications of automation are widespread indeed; most modern industrial operations are too complex to be handled manually, or even with simple machines under manual control.

Digitization refers to all of the steps involved in the process of making collections of materials available online. This includes selection of collection/materials based on the collection development policy of the institutions, scanning material, transcribing, creating mark up and index, creating metadata, quality control by subject specialist, processing images, uploading to the web, preservation and maintaining archival media and online collections. (Gbaje, 2007). Similarly, Kasbon (2001) said digitization involves the process of making none digitally borne materials available into digital format. The retrospective conversion of printed library cards into Machine Readable Catalogue (MARC) represents one of the earliest digitization processes. Digitization process includes selection collection/materials, as soon as selection is made scanning of the materials selected follows. And then transcribing and creating mark up and index, creating meta-data quality control by subject specialist, processing images, populating the appropriate digital asset management software (DAMS), Digital asset management software such as Dspace, Fefora, Greenstone collect, index and provide queries over a catalogue of meta – data records accessible locally and remotely. The advantage of Digital library includes:

- It allows one copying of information resources to their user’s desired destinations, diskette, CD, or stored in the users’ personal computer.
- Electronic information resources can be sorted, transmitted and retrieved easily and quickly.

Primary/Post-Primary School Libraries

The library is one of the busiest and most important parts of a school. The purpose of primary or elementary school libraries is to provide materials to supports the school curriculum and to promote reading. It has three basic jobs in helping children learn. First, it provides books and other materials for the school’s educational program, carefully fitting them in with the needs of the children. Second, it helps the children develop an interest in many subjects. Third, it teaches how to use a library (Khalid, 1997).

Cohn, Kelsey & Fiels, (1997) views the school library as the heart of the school around which the school programme revolves. This perception makes the school library look like an entity, an institution in its own right that offers library services to students, teachers, and members of the school community and friends of the library.

Fatimah (2002) observes the school library as a media centre, a learning laboratory and resource centre where school children are entrusted to a specialist who directs learning activities to their benefit. Other schools also share this view.

Early school libraries concentrated on enriching textbook teaching with supplementary materials and introducing children to the wonderful world of imaginative literature, reforms precipitated by the extraordinary increase in knowledge, proliferation of communication technologies, and findings of educational research. School libraries emerged as the places
where students or pupils would learn from a range of information sources and media, using “discovery” and problem-solving learning procedures.

In 1945, the American Library Association published postural standards, school libraries for Today and Tomorrow, which defined the educational purposes of the school library as follows:

- Participate effectively in the school program as it strives to meet the needs of pupils, teachers, parents, and other community members.
- Provides boys and girls with the library materials and services most appropriate and most meaningful in their growth and development as individuals.
- Stimulate and guide pupils in all phases of their reading so that they may find increasing enjoyment and appreciation.
- Provide an opportunity through library experiences for boys and girls to develop helpful interests, to make satisfactory personal adjustments, and to acquire desirable social attitudes.
- Help children and young people to become skillful and discriminating users of libraries and printed and audio-visual materials.
- Introduce pupils to community libraries as early as possible and cooperate with those libraries in their efforts to encourage combining education and cultural growth.
- Work with teachers in the selection and use of all types of library materials which contribute to the teaching program.
- Participate with teachers and administrators in programs for continuing professional and cultural growth of the school staff.
- Cooperate with other libraries and community leaders in planning and developing an over-all library programs for the community or area.

Library Automation

Khalid (1997) defines automation as a process in which mechanical or electronic devices are employed to carry out tasks without human intervention. Fatimah (2002) however, defined library automatic and semi-automatic data processing machines to perform such traditional library activities as acquisitions, cataloguing and circulation.

The rise of computer development can be traced to Hermon Hollireth who invented to punch card. An idea he borrowed from John Shaw Billings, the Director of the Surgeon General library (now the National Library of Medicine), and Dictionary of American Biography (1964).

Automating a library can be divided into 3 different types:

I. Word Processing Automation
II. Spread Sheet Automation
III. Data Management Automation

Word Processing Automation

Word processing is the process of moving text or information from the originator to paper through an electronic device. The word processor store text, sorts them, print them and even process the text. There are stands – alone word processor that perform the world processing tasks alone. In recent times, most of word processing in the libraries is done with
the help of computer word processing software like Microsoft words, word perfect, word star, page maker, print master, etc. According Meckler (2001), when a library starts using computer as word processor to type, store, retrieve and print documents that library is considered to be partially automated.

Meckler (2001) further classified the word processing tasks in libraries into the following groups:

- Production of common library documents, such as library newsletters, library management reports, new book list, special bibliographies, etc;
- Production of overdue book notices;
- Production of statistical reports;
- Use of optical scanner to read data from sources, this is especially if you find yourself re-keeping from documents and use of an optical scanner to scan pictures, groups, images etc
- Managing text and hypertext;
- Compilation of indexes and
- Using CD-Room and printing information from them

Spreadsheet Automation

Spreadsheets are typically used to automate functions in libraries requiring manipulation of numbers. For many tasks, the spreadsheet table formats serves a useful purpose. The information is formatted as one goes along entering data to be processed for easy manipulation. The row and column format is usually an enough structure to give one a place to start. A spreadsheet can function as a small database with the advantage of easy calculations. Spreadsheet products have taken advantage of the popularity of spreadsheet programmes by adding word processing, printing and report 5 writing functions. Data management options are relatively sophisticated including selection and sorting. Some of the soft wares use in projects/this operation are Lotus 123, excel etc.

Database Management System (DBMS) Automation

A database is a collection of logical related files with minimum redundancy, organized in a manner to satisfy the information needs of an organization. In another dimension, Gbaje,(2007) defined a database as “group or records or a file of information in library, either automated or manual”. The software developed specifically for managements of database are called Database Management System (DBMS).

Library management database management software like NLAS, XLIB, TINLIB etc. and the one developed for ZCS library are used in school libraries in the following areas:

1. Catalogue for general/special collections of printed information resources videos, music serial holdings, reference materials, computer software, etc.
2. Inventory or equipment
3. A list of pupils/students, such as mailing list
4. Vertical files or pamphlet index

Process of Digitization

Digitization involves the process of making none digitally borne materials available into digital format. The retrospective conversion of printed library cards into machine readable
catalog (MARC) represents one of the earliest digitization processes. Digitization process includes selection collection/materials as soon selection is made scanning of the materials selected follows. And then transcribing and creating mark up and index, creating meta-data, quality control by subject specialist, processing images populating the appropriate digital asset management software (DAM), Digital Asset Software such as Dspace, Fefora, Greenstone collect, index and provide queries over a catalogue of meta-data records accessible locally and remotely.

**Advantages of Digitization**

1. While conventional library system allows the removal of the information resources from the shelves for use whenever later returned, the contemporary digital information system and services allows for the copying of information resources to the user's desired destinations, diskette, CD, or stored in the User's personal computer.
2. Apart from providing information resources, the digital information system and services also allows the users to perform and enjoy other services such as e-publishing, e-mail, e-journal, e-books, e-commerce etc.
3. Electronic information resources could also be linked and interactive with cheaper access.
4. The digital library could be seen as a two way system of information delivery and transfer.
5. The ideal library cooperation is much more realizable with Electronic Information Resources (EIR) typical examples of these trends are the applications of the internet and the World Wide Web (WWW) to electronic publishing and access to online information.
6. Digital information system and services reduce cost significantly especially in terms of building/extension of librarians, space, personal and redundancy of collection
7. Storage capacity: the amount of information that can be stored in a digital library cannot be realized in the manual system.
8. Speed computers (in digital library) are capable of executing millions of instructions per second. Calculations and comparisons that would normally take several days of human labor could be done in an hour by the computer. This means that, it gives timely information.
9. Accuracy: as computer are strictly on instructions and data, all information in or given by the computer is correct and the data are the result of processing will ever be accurate.
10. Security: There is high level of security in the digital information system and services. This is because computer software has facilities for password and other controls that reduces or eliminates case of insecurity to the computer system and data bases (MOE, 2001).

**Application of Automation in School Libraries**

School library automation is the application of information technologies to library operations and services, Zainab & Abrizah (2002) identified the application in libraries in the following areas:

i. Ordering and acquisitions

ii. Cataloguing
iii. Circulation control

iv. Serials control the Ordering process is particularly suited to computerization as it is a relatively simple clerical process, where similar operations are applicable to all categories of library (Zainab & Abrizah, 2002). The functions of an ordering or acquisitions systems are:

i. To receive records of information materials to be acquired

ii. Establish whether information materials required are already in stock or on order

iii. To print orders

iv. To check when orders are overdue and follow up overdue orders

v. To note the arrival of ordered information materials and prepare for payment

Some ordering systems also notify individuals the receipt or information materials, and produce a list of recently acquired information materials which will be placed on notice board. The details of the information material to be acquired need to be stated. That is the title of the information materials to be acquired need to be stated. That is the title of the information materials, ISBN/ISSN, name of author(s), number of copies ordered, publishers, vendors etc.

Cataloguing systems- computers are aids in producing catalogues most effectively and efficiently. This remain the reasons for computers being part of the cataloguing system is to create appropriate catalogues that can be drawn from any of the following sources.

- A union files of the stock of several school libraries or other share database
- The library’s ordering or acquisition system
- A file of records held by the school library

The advantages of computer base catalogue systems are:

i. The records in the catalogue database can be used not only in the catalogue subsystem, but also in order systems such as circulation control and acquisitions.

ii. Easy and effective interchange of catalogue records

iii. More effective interlibrary lending, cooperative acquisitions policies and cooperative storage ventures.

i. No filing or other routine catalogue maintenance is required of cataloguers, except where it is necessary to alter stock records as the stock itself changes.

ii. Different catalogues forms can be chosen for different catalogue locations

iii. Extract from the main catalogue database may be printed or consulted on line.

Online Public Access Catalogue (OPAC)

All library automated application systems offer online access to the catalogue or bibliographic database in some form or the other (Zainab & Abrizah, 2002). Most systems offer both phrase and keyword searching with the phrase searching there is usually implicit right-hand truncation; for keyword searching, a truncation symbol is normally input if required.
After searching, once records are identified, there are number of ways in which they can be displayed. Some systems display the index or a listening of brief records before a full record is displayed; others, if there is only one match, will show the record directly. In addition to the online access to catalogues which can be used as a backup for security or at busy times, and which are useful in locations such as small branches. Hard copy can typically be produced the form of cards, printed catalogues, indexes and computer output on microform (CM).

**Circulation Control Systems**

The application of computers-based library systems in circulation is in registration of library users, keeping track of movement of publications including charging, Discharging, renewal, and reservations of information materials. In addition, automated library circulation systems generates report of transactions by the user such as a list of publications at his/her possession, the data he/she I suppose to return them, and in the case of commercial libraries, any outstanding payment Raw Materials Research and Development Council (RMRDC, 2000:19). The main purpose of computers based circulation system is to make library materials, including books and non-book materials to all users/patronizers immediately or as soon after the demand arises as in practicable. In other to achieve this, all school libraries must control circulation, by keeping records to specify.

i. Which information material is on loan

ii. What information material is in the library stock

iii. When material on loan will be available in the library for other users?

In addition to these basic functions, most school libraries also like their circulation control system to:

i. Recognize and possibly trap reserved books;

ii. Prepare overdue and recall notices;

iii. Facilities renewals

iv. Be reliable

v. Be economical

**Serial Control**

A serial, as defined by the International Serials Data System (ISDS), Paris is “a publication issued in successive parts and intended to be continued indefinitely” (Zainab & Abrizah, 2002). Serials are distinguished from monographs by their ongoing nature. Serials control computer based system; usually have fewer titles to handle, but must record a greater number of transactions per title. Development of computerized serials control systems lagged behind similar systems for monographs. This slower progress was in part due to the essential complexity of a complete serials control system, but also derived from the lower priority associated with serials control as compared with monographs control. More development of serials-control systems has never been undertaken in academic and special libraries, where serials represent a larger proportion of the stock, than say in school libraries.
In Nigeria there are some indigenous computer base library systems like the X-lib, visual library, virtual library which have the capabilities of handling both monographs and serials.

Problems Militating Against Automation and Digitization of School Libraries in Nigeria

Nigeria school libraries are lacking behind in library automation and digitization as a result of certain factors which are both internal and external (Zainab & Abrizah, 2002), Mohammed, technical, economical, sociological and political changes that have taken place in Nigeria. The first and most important according to them is finance. The adequate financial resources and the severe economic recession have made it prohibitive to purchase, operate and maintain new technologies needed for automation and digitization. A high rate of new technologies needed for automation and digitization. A high rate of inflation, low and unpredictable nation income, the effect of global economic depression and local currency devaluation continue to water down whatever budgetary provision is made for school libraries in Nigeria.

Any of the school libraries are not computer literate. This is a great setback in computerization. Many of the librarians are reluctant to jettison third old mindset which resists change. Many are conservative and traditional, and suffer computer phobia. Research result shows that, although the use of electronic information increases job satisfaction, confidence, and the effectiveness of librarians in their work, lack of technical expertise can be very frustrating to the librarians (Singh, 1996). There is also lack of technical support. Only one librarian is formally trained to initiate, develop, implement and maintain computerized application in the entire school library system. Those who had been trained gain only limited, or no access, to the packages in which they had been trained. Inquisitive users with information technology (IT) skills cause serious dissatisfaction to the library staff (Khalid, 1997).

Poor State of Power Generation

Regular power generation remains a problem in Nigeria. Frequent power outages constitute a serious bottleneck to automation and digitization. The cost of running generating plant is prohibitive.

The lack of information technology skills and the view slow process of automation mean that the school library staff will take a very long time to become very familiar with the ALICE package, if the library staff find it difficult to get comfortable, the situation is worse for pupils or students, who depend so much on the school librarians for continuous orientation. Unfortunately, the library orientations programmed and the entire user education package do not fully address information technology skills.

Poor Funding of School Library Service

Poor funding is a major challenge to school library in Nigeria. School libraries in Nigeria mainly derive their funds from their parent authorities or organizations. A high rate of inflation, low and unpredictable nation income, the effect of global economic depression, and local currency devaluation continue to water down whatever budgetary provision is made for school libraries in Nigeria. Many school libraries in Nigeria have not initiated viable income generating strategies to supplement the parent organization funding.
Education and Training

Most staff in school libraries in Nigeria were trained in traditional librarianship. They are finding it difficult to cope with the requirements of the electronic age. Staff training and retraining have not been given a pride of place. The attitude is a great deterrent to the computerization of school library services. The challenges have far reaching effects on the implementation and sustenance of the automation and digitization of school library service in Zaria Children’s School.

Recommendations:

1- Adequate funding should be provided to enhance effective teaching and learning.
2- Training and Retraining of school librarians should be emphasized and encouraged so as to enhance the productivity of school librarians in providing effective services to school library users.
3- Provision of necessary facilities and equipments for Automation and Digitization of School libraries.
4- Nigeria school libraries policies should be enacted, checked and evaluated.
5- There is the need for constant power supply to make effective use of facilities and equipments.

Conclusion

School libraries are institutions, where books and other types of printed and non-printed information resources are housed in organized manner for the use of bonafide members only. Their functions are to serve the pupils and students, as information centers. School libraries have limited coverage of users, of same ages and educational backgrounds, which they have to cater for. Automation is the process of employing mechanical or electronic devices to carry out tasks without human intervention, cataloguing, circulation and serials control. The state of art of automation in Nigerian school libraries is sympathetic.

Digitization involves the process of making non-digitally borne materials available in digital format. The retrospective conversion of printed library cards into machine-readable catalogue represents one of the earliest digitization process librarians have been involved with. According to Ezra (2007) digitization includes selection of collection/materials based on the collection development policy of the institutions, scanning materials, transcribing, creating mark up and index, creating metadata, quality control by subject specialist, processing images uploading to the web, preservation and maintaining archival media and online collection.

The problems militating against automation and digitization of school libraries in Nigeria are; Psychological, technical, economical, sociological and political changes that have taken place in Nigeria. The first and most important factor according to Fatimah (2002) and (Abdullah, 2002) is finance. The inadequate financial resources and the severe economic recession have made it prohibitive to purchase, operate, and maintain new technologies needed for automation and digitization.

According to Fatimah (2002), most of these computerized systems failed because of administrative bottle neck from the parent organizations, insufficient coordination, and breakdown of communication between the libraries and computer centers: another factor is the devaluation of naira, which resulted to escalating cost of information technologies. Lack
of qualified computer staff in school libraries, and inconsistent power supply by the present power holding company of Nigeria (PHCN) “Former NEPA are also factors that contributed to the poor state of automation an digitization in Nigeria school libraries.

The present fuel intermittent and tax charges by the Nigerian government is another major factor that contributed to poor state of running automation and digitization in school libraries in Nigeria.

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EDUCATION AND NATIONAL SECURITY: 
CHALLENGES AND THE WAY FORWARD

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Abstract
This paper critically examined the many security challenges bedeviling the nation government has tried in many ways to contain the situation including increased budgetary allocation of funds to the security sector, to “ensure the security of lives and property”. However, the extra budgetary expense on “security” has not succeeded in dousing the security challenges in the country. The paper identifies reform of the education system as a panacea to the lingering security challenges confronting the nation in the long run. Useful recommendations were made.

Introduction
National integration covers all activities and arrangements put in place to ensure free movement, mixing and interaction of a people of a nation with other people of the same nation without any form of gender, racial, tribal or religious discrimination. Happenings in recent times in the nation have once again called for sober reflection by all particularly, in view of the dynamics of our federation. National security is in jeopardy. Insecurity comes in different coloration and magnitude among which include the spate of bombings in some parts of the country, election related crises, kidnapping, human trafficking, militancy, assassination, hunger, armed robbery, environmental degradation and other untoward acts now being experienced in the country. All these have thrown up the need for all and sundry to be more retrospective, introspective and proactive on issues of national security so as to arrest this negative drift currently impacting our national psyche. Some of these security issues have been with us for sometime now without fizzling out despite concerted efforts to the contrary. There is therefore the need to try the education option as a panacea for assuaging the drift thereby guaranteeing national security.

Education has been defined as a process by which individuals are assisted formally through proper direction and guidance to develop their capacities for their own benefit and that of the society (Okeke, 2003). It is geared towards developing the individuals for them to live effectively and efficiently in the society and to contribute to its advancement and upliftment. Hence, through education the behaviour patterns of the citizens could be changed in the desired direction. In other words, with sound education people will start to understand and appreciate one another better and try to restore the dignity of man. Hence, we have to recognize the role education plays in equipping individuals with requisite knowledge and skills for survival and societal progress.

Successive Nigerian governments have evolved different policies and programmes to promote education and develop the nation’s human resources, (Matawal, 2007). Often, these reforms in education fail to provide broad-based education in the development of the mind, in comprehending the environment and development of appropriate skills, abilities and competencies to co-exist with and contribute to the development of the society. It is meaningless to talk of development in the absence of national security. In other words, insecurity in a nation is a threat to development. There is therefore, a nexus between national security and development. In a state of insecurity, development is as elusive as a mirage.
National Security Challenges

National security is a top public issue today. It is a matter of national importance that should be of concern to all stakeholders in the Nigerian State and one that requires comprehensive and committed contribution of all groups and interests that make up Nigeria. National security can not be narrowed down to defense and military might alone. It is wider than that. It is this narrow conception of national security that forms the basis for the disproportionate budgetary allocation of funds as the case is, to "ensure the security of lives and property", however, to the utter neglect of other equally important sectors of the economy that bear directly or indirectly on national security. Such sectors as education, health, agriculture etc become poorly mobilized.

Iredia (2011) defined national security as the ability of a State to overcome any form of its challenges no matter what the challenge is. He averred that national security is wider than military might, defense or law enforcement and pointed out other rather basic dimensions like job, water and food security. It is appropriate therefore, to state at this juncture that a national security policy would be of no use to the unemployed and hungry citizens that constitute the majority of the population in a poor country like ours. To lay credence to the all inclusive nature of the meaning of national security, the American President Barack Obama in 2010 canvassed an all-encompassing world view in his own definition of America's national security interests which include, "a strong, innovative and growing U.S. economy in an open international economic system that promotes opportunity and prosperity".

Similarly, Abubakar (2005) averred that recent international debates have raised the need to see security in the broader sense as "the struggle to secure the most basic necessities of life such as food, fuel, medicine and shelter". This broader view of security from the perspective of human physiological needs is important for the attainment of physical and national security and overall peace and development, as social unrest arising from the absence of such basic-human security can indeed lead to security problems and conflicts. Apart from the socio-economic security challenges, Abubakar (2005) identified some of the major security challenges confronting the nation to include political and electioneering conflicts, ethno-religious crises, ethnic militias, boundary disputes, cultism, criminality and organized crimes. In the same vane, Oshio (2009) opined that Nigeria is today plagued with social disorder, insecurity, poverty, illiteracy, balance of payment deficit, poor health statistics, ethnic and religious conflicts, corruption, crime and criminality and political crises. All these mean that we are very insecure in terms of human wellbeing. The problems, individually and collectively constitute threats to the peace, security and development of the country. Invariably, they have implications for the continuity and survival of the nation's nascent democracy.

Oshio was of the view that the term "national security" does not appear to lend itself to any precise definition partly because its nature and concept may vary from one state to the other. He however identified two main tendencies in defining it:

a. The first is the state-centered concept which views national security in terms of defense and survival of the state.
   This conception according him-
   i. Equates “defense” with “security” and bestows its protection to the military as the custodians of national security and
   ii. Equates national security with the security of the state.

Iredia (2011) sees this conception as microscopic and quickly points out that national security cannot be equated to military might, defense or law enforcement alone. It goes beyond that to accommodate far more reaching issues. Elaborating more on
this, Esiemokhai (2010) averred that in states where the interest of the ruling elite is put above that of the people, the police, the army and security formations are expected to defend the government, its personnel and its property.

b. The second tendency in the definition of national security, according to Oshio (2009), involves the factoring of the state and individual into the constituents of the definition. Here, security involves freedom from danger or threat to a nation's ability to protect its cherished values and well-being of its people.

This second conception takes into consideration the significance of human well-being in the security considerations of a country. In states where the people's welfare, well-being and wholesomeness are the paramount concern of the state, the government, determinedly weaves a security network around the people in the various villages, towns and cities. Oshio opines that it is advisable to view security in a state with nationality crises in terms of contending groups, organizations and individuals, as prime object of security. This dispenses with the narrow-minded conception of a national security primarily from its military-strategic dimension particularly in terms of defending its territory and sovereignty.

Recent social unrests in various African countries no doubt have roots in the failure of the government policies to provide or manage the basic human physiological needs of their citizens. In recent times, Nigeria has witnessed increasing number of security challenges that constitute threats to the cooperate, existence of its citizens and to the maintenance and survival of its democratic political system. These security challenges are diverse and complex, ranging from political disagreements to criminal activities with alarming dimensions and consequences. The spate of target bombings by the Boko Haram sect is a big security challenge to the Federal government, the affected states and the entire nation. This position was attested to by the declaration of Inuwa Bwala (Borno State Information Commissioner) in a recent interview granted by the Daily Sun (2012) that “the Boko Haram issue is not just a Borno problem. It is a Nigerian problem, it is a sub-regional problem”.

When Boko Haram first started their attacks in some parts of the North, some leaders explained away their actions but now, the stark reality seems to have dawned on all. The Boko Haram crises are moving from one dimension to another, destroying human lives, properties and the economy of Nigeria. Major among them are the suicide bombing of the United Nation's building in Abuja, the Police Force Headquarters bombing, the 25th December 2011 bombing of St. Theresa's Catholic Church, Madala in Niger State, the 2012 Easter bombing in Kaduna, the recent massacre of innocent students at college of Agriculture Yobe State and so many other target bombings and shootings in Kaduna, Kano, Bauchi, Plateau and Gombe states. Analysts are quick to blame the Boko Haram catastrophe on unemployment, hunger and deprivation. Specifically, the U.S government submitted that illiteracy, unemployment and inexorable demands of survival from the effects of poverty make the northern youths vulnerable and ready for recruitment into crime and social vices including terrorism of the Boko Haram genre.

The catalyst for violence in the Niger Delta, where the country's energy sector is concentrated could be grouped into two:

1. The indigenous populations dissatisfaction with their impoverished condition despite the wealth generated by the area's resources, and
2. The environmental degradation caused by energy-related development. This disenchantment has spawned many militant groups prominent of them being the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND). MEND is seeking a more equitable distribution of Nigeria's oil wealth so that it benefits the local population, particularly the indigenous Ijaw tribe. In early 2006, MEND militias started attacking oil installations and kidnapping foreign oil industry workers in an effort to press home their...
demand. These actions led to a 20 percent reduction in Nigeria's oil production, [http://www.mongabay.com/reference/new-profiles/344.html](http://www.mongabay.com/reference/new-profiles/344.html) and have since been short-circuiting the government's budgetary projection from the oil sector.

Another form of internal security challenge in Nigeria is sectarian violence. It has been estimated that this alone has wasted over 10,000 lives since 1999. Every little event triggers off suspicion, hatred and killing between the Muslims and Christians in the northern part of the country and among the various ethnic nationalities. For instance, the recent communal clashes in Nasarawa and Plateau States.

Iredia (2011) citing the National Bureau of statistics, stated that there are about 35 million unemployed youths in the country who are forced to resort to anything that can serve as a means of livelihood. Former President Obasanjo in recent time raised the alarm that Nigeria may witness the type of revolution sweeping across the Arab world if nothing was done to redress the problem of youth unemployment. President Jonathan laid credence to this when he stated at the governorship election campaign in Lokoja that a revolution by the youths was imminent if elected public officials took no steps to initiate policies that would create jobs. Job security is important so that citizens can live meaningful lives and secure their homes, children, wives, ageing parents and other dependent relatives. Unfortunately, low priority which social security is getting now over issues like job creation shows that for us, prevention is not better than cure and we prefer to deal with the symptoms instead of the root causes of the challenges.

There are also security challenges from food, water and health. National security starts with the social security component as represented by health care, food, shelter and clothing. The worsening economic conditions have been generating a mix of domestic, social and political tension. Governments are often expected to provide their citizens with political stability and socio-economic security including health care and shelter. Lack of these basics often breeds discontents and social unrest. Tranquility and well-being of a society are necessary components of national security. Oshio (2009) observed that the Fundamental Objectives and Directive Principles of State Policy under the 1999 constitution of Nigeria contain many social-economic and political rights which, if fully implemented, would go a long way towards ensuring national security and development. These rights, he went further to state, are comparable to the Economic, Social and Cultural Right adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1966. Despite availability of resources the Nigeria State has failed to take necessary steps to give effect to these rights. This accounts in part to the intractable conflicts in the country.

Water resources management would yield more security dividends to the nation than many other sectors. It is a very essential requirement. When it is too much, it causes flooding and erosion with its trail of catastrophe. When it is scarce, it can cause drought and have a significant toll on agricultural production. These two conditions necessitate judicious and prudent management of our water resources.

At the political level, desperate, intolerant and ruthless contests among politicians and their followers have often resulted in violence, security breaches, killings and destruction, all of which threaten the existence of the Nigerian State. There are violent and desperate politickings among political parties, electoral fraud and money politics. The table below presents a tip of the iceberg into an aspect of electoral fraud in two states using the 1991 governorship election
Table 1: An Aspect of Electoral Fraud in 1991 Governorship Election.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>1991 Eligible Census voters</th>
<th>Registered voters (Including children)</th>
<th>Excess voters / over Registration</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>2,359,736</td>
<td>1,061,881</td>
<td>3,895,623</td>
<td>2,176,824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>2,485,499</td>
<td>1,118,474</td>
<td>2,541,962</td>
<td>1,423,488</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: There were a total of 24,448,488 excess voters nationwide.


Electoral fraud poses a major challenge to democracy in Nigeria and by implication, a threat to the security of the nation. It generates resistance from those who believe they have been cheated out and they often will resort to violence. Money politics breeds a set of violent able-bodied young men riddled with poverty, illiteracy and half education being used as thugs to rig elections for monetary reward at the risk of their lives.

Kidnappings are now daily routine that attract little media attention or coverage unless high profile targets are involved. Armed robbery reigns in many parts of the country and big target hits like banks are not rare anymore. Land disputes and other ethnic upheavals have created a lot of security breaches in different parts of the country. To read our National Dailies is to read a “manifesto” on insecurity. All these have led us to where we are now today - mass poverty, insecurity of life and property, violent conflicts, armed robbery, kidnapping, poor quality of infrastructure and decay of social services.

Proper Education: Panacea for Security Challenges in Nigeria

Education has earlier been defined as a process by which individuals are assisted formally through proper direction and guidance to develop their capacities for their own benefits and that of the society. It therefore follows, by a simple logic, that if a nation bequeaths the right type of education to its citizens, the citizens will not turn against their fatherland. Daily Sun (2013) recently reported the former minister of Education, Professor Ragayyatu Rufai as having identified reform of the education system as the solution to the security challenges confronting the nation. There is need for a total overhaul of the curriculum at all levels of education with a view to providing its recipients, broad based education in the development of the mind, soul and body; and in comprehending the environment and in the development of appropriate attitudes, skills, abilities and competences to co-exist with and contribute to the development of the society. This calls for a synergy between liberal education, vocational and entrepreneurship education.

A liberal education is one that frees the minds of its recipients from their preconceptions. It broadens the possibilities for greater understanding of others in our nation and around the world (Forum Futures, 2007). Institutions should try to train future workers to help States' economies and to offer liberal education so as to produce informed citizens who can contribute to our democratic way of life.
Every sovereign, independent state must train, sustain and nurture men and women to serve in its security and intelligence out fits. According to Esiemokhai (2005), in Europe and America, these men and women are selected from the best and the brightest citizens, who are endowed with keen and subtle intellect. Recruitment into defense and military intelligence outfits needs scrupulous assessment of the recruit’s educational background, intellectual sharpness, smartness and patriotism. Graduates with the best grades should be deployed not those who got ranks by the federal character formula.

Education helps to create informed citizenry which is vital to our democratic society. It increases the potential for individuals to perform as citizens. There are many examples of the public being misinformed and making bad decisions. However, without education, the situation would be vastly worse. It gives one the ability to critically examine an issue and articulate a reasoned position about it. Nurturing critical thinking is a key component of education.

The introduction of Vocational and Entrepreneurship programmes into the curriculum at the various levels of education in Nigeria is a welcome innovation that goes a long way to strengthening the popular liberal education. What is required by the government at various levels now is to adequately provide the needed human and material resources to make these programmes effective and functional. It is no longer news that liberal education alone has failed to equip recipients / youths with requisite skills and attitudes for leading a productive life. It is also no news that graduates of our institutions of higher learning have been populating the crime world due to their inability to secure meaningful employment upon graduation. This scenario calls for the intensification of the emphasis on Vocational and Entrepreneurial education to equip graduates with occupational survival skills - to be able to identify and even create and exploit investment opportunities that abound in the society. The present global economic crises and rising waves of unemployment have greatly emphasized the need for functional entrepreneurship and vocational education.

There is also the need to introduce Nigerian History, Moral and Civic education into the curriculum. Graduates should actually be found worthy first in character and then in learning. Every youth should see himself / herself as a stakeholder in the Nigerian project, by exercising all requisite citizenship roles and responsibilities. It should be inculcated in our children at the early age the respect for human life and the dignity of labour. Civic education will place youth on a sound pedestal to defend our nascent democracy instead of being destructive agents. A poor knowledge of our national history will hinder informed citizenry which is required for rapid development of the nation. A citizen who does not know his country cannot really situate himself within the effort to build a better nation (Daily Sun, 2011).

**Recommendations**

Sequel to the revelations and implications of this discourse, the following recommendations become imperative.

1. Stakeholders in the education industry should form a more lasting synergy to guarantee adequate funding of the system since all aspects of the curriculum from time to time need some innovations which introduction is cost intensive.
2. Regular revision and introduction of innovative curricula such as in Family living Education, Entrepreneurship Education will go a long way to assuaging some of the existing gaps in pupils acquisition of the right attitude to life and work.
3. There is need for a review of our education curriculum to include critical subjects that are necessary for development of informed and well rounded citizens. There is no doubt that a good knowledge of certain subjects such as our national history and
civics will help in the development of more socially aware youths, truly literate and educated citizens who understand and appreciate the nation’s peculiar challenges and can situate themselves within the search for solutions to the problems. Through the curriculum used in our schools, we need to develop citizens that are truly Nigerians at heart and care about the challenges facing our country.

4. There is the need to devise strategies for effectively controlling of all forms of examination malpractice in both internal and external examination to ensure quality graduates.

5. Following from all the above, there is the need to urgently reform the nation’s education system with a view to making it more qualitative and responsive to emerging global issues as well as to the current national economic reform agenda. The restructuring should aim to achieve increased depth in content, incorporation of ICT in the curriculum, strengthening the entrepreneurial education component of the programme, removing areas that are not very important in achieving the desired goals and extending time for practical teaching.

6. Government/agencies should reassess the position of private school entrepreneurs taking cognizance of the roles of the “magic” or “miracle” centers that have contributed in no mean way in exacerbating the problem of examination and certificate racketeering.

7. Youth unemployment should be addressed through creation of data bases that can furnish economic planners strategic options in employment creation.

8. Government - private partnership should evolve a strategy for re-awakening most of our moribund industries to create employment opportunities for youths.

9. There is the need for re-inventing the agricultural sub-system of the economy, through emphasis on food and cash crop production as well as ways of adding value to farm products through processing.

10. School-industry linkage should be strengthened as a way of giving meaning and effect to the current drive on Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) to encourage acquisition of work skills.

Conclusion

There are unrests of various shades and hues in different states of Nigeria, borne out of equally diverse causative factors. This paper has identified different national security challenges. All these threaten the very existence of the nation. The country cannot afford to be indifferent and non-committal to these issues of national security challenges. In response, the government has continued to allocate the lion share of our nation’s budget to security. The generous security budget gives the impression that what we need to worry about is the security problem caused by deviants. There are security problems posed by natural disasters e.g. flooding, desertification etc; and from youth unemployment. We also have security threats from hunger and filthy environment which can lead to such deadly diseases as malaria, diarrhoea, typhoid and Lassa fever etc.

The security of the high ways and bye-ways will enable mobility and free movement of people. The extra-budgetary expense on "security" has not succeeded in dousing the security challenges in the country. Security must insulate security bigots, illiterates, haters of their own people, so that they do not cause trouble. A State must manage its resources well to provide the basic needs for its citizens.

There is no doubt that the security situation in the country calls for extraordinary measures to combat it. It will need a transformation in the way we think and in the way we look at one another. The education option comes in handy for the desired transformation. It
may take a long time and huge resources to achieve but the end is certainly going to justify
the means. Nigerians should perceive the education option as a new way to reduce the
sophistication of crimes and violence that are threatening national integration and security.

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AN ANALYTICAL STUDY OF DETERMINANTS OF POVERTY LEVEL AMONG HOUSEHOLDS IN ADAMAWA NORTH SENATORIAL DISTRICT AS ALTERNATIVE TO NIGERIAN ECONOMIC POLICIES

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Abstract

The study focused on analysis of poverty determinants among households in Adamawa North Senatorial District. Primary data were generated through structured questionnaire and interview. Using a multistage sampling approach, a total of 400 households were selected and interviewed. Data collected were subjected to Foster Greer and Thorbecke (FGT) and linear regression analysis. Considering some poverty indicators, the study revealed that using the FGT model of assessment, 86.3 percent of the households covered by the study were poor and would have to mobilize financial resources up to 41.80% of $2 US (₦300) per day (for each household member) to be able to escape poverty. Result of linear regression also showed that coefficients of educational levels of household, occupation, energy of household are 0.068, 0.36 and 0.25 respectively, while dependency ratio, sources of water, poor feeding shown inverse relationship of -0.19, -0.10, -0.19 respectively. These are factors that exert significant influence on household per capita income in the study area. In order to reduce poverty and promote peoples' income, policies that would promote employment opportunities, educational status of household, as well as efforts to enhance women access to more productive resources and investment in infrastructural development are recommended.

Keywords: Determinants, Poverty, Mubi region, Adamawa State

Introduction

The global call for sustainable development has coincided with an emphasis on poverty alleviation in the 1990's. This is more pertinent to Sub-Saharan Africa where on the average, 45% - 50% of the people live below the poverty line, a much higher proportion than in any other region of the world except South Asia (Mbaku, 1994 and World Bank, 1996). Poverty is one of the main manifestations of underdevelopment and its reduction is generally considered synonymous with development (Karaosmanoglu, 1989). It has an adverse effect on the people, its national economy and the political/social development of the affected countries. Thus, poverty is currently attracting varying degrees of attention.

In particular, poverty is increasingly being studied by International Organizations such as the World Bank and some specialized organ of the United Nations Organization i.e., the United Nation Development Programme (UNDP). Nevertheless in Nigeria there is still a considerable lapse in the concept, measurement, and determinants of poverty. In the 1980’s, there were few analysis on the causes of poverty in Nigeria (World Bank, 1990; Ogwumuke & Ekpenyong, 1996). Despite the intellectual leadership of the World Bank, there is still a considerable amount of work to be done. Developing a consistent poverty oriented policy depends on understanding the concept of poverty and analyzing its determinants with a view to providing practical ways of alleviating it.
Based on statistical analysis, one billion people in the world are living on less than a dollar/day; 2.7 billion people in the world are living on less than two dollars a day; 11 million children die every year as a result of poverty; 114 million children are not able to acquire basic education and 584 million women are illiterate. Every year, 6 million children die as a result of malnutrition. Every day, 800 million people stay hungry in which 300 million are children. About 2.6 billion people (38% of the world’s population) are deprived from basic sanitation and 1 billion people do not have access to safe drinking water (United Nation Development Programme, 2002 Survey).

In Nigeria, the incidence of poverty has been on the increase. It rose from 28.1% (18.26 million) in 1980 to 46.3% (34.37 million) in 1985 and to 65.6% (68.70 million) in 1996 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2006). Even though it fell to 54.4% in 2004, the population of Nigerians within the poverty line has been on the increase with the number of urban poor taking the lead (Ruel, 2008).

Analyses on geo-political zones basis showed that the North West and North East zones accounted for the highest poverty rates with 77.7 per cent and 76.3 per cent respectively. The South West, with 59.1 per cent, recorded the lowest poverty rate in the country. A further analysis of the poverty level on state-by-state basis showed that Sokoto had the highest number of poor in the country with 86.4 per cent of its population recorded as not enjoying good living standards compared to Niger State which had the lowest poverty rate of 43.6 per cent by end 2010. Thus, using the relative, absolute and dollar-per-day poverty measures, NBS estimates that poverty may have further risen slightly to 71.5 per cent, 61.9 per cent and 62.8 per cent respectively in 2011,” (National Bureau Statistics 2011).

Several ambitious programs and projects have been adopted in the past to check the increasing poverty rate in Nigeria. It is also worthy to note that most of these projects failed to achieve their specified objectives and targets. Mubi region with its unique socio-economic group, different sources of income and determinants of poverty, research has not been carry out in this life threatening area especially using quantitative analysis as this study trying to do. In view of these, this study was set out to analyze the determinants of poverty among households and the impact in the study area.

**History of the Study Area**

Mubi region of today was the then northern part of old sardauna province which now forms Adamawa Northern Senatorial District. The region lies between latitude 9° 30’ and 11° 33’ N of the equator and longitude 13:00° E and 13: 45° East of the Greenwich-meridian. The region is bounded in the north by Borno State, in the west by Hong and Song LGAs and in the south and east by the Republic of Cameroon. It has a land area of 4728.77km² and a population of 681,353 in the 2006 National population census.

Mubi region was part of Northern Cameroon under the Germans until 1922 when the area was placed by the United Nations under Britain as a “Trusteeship Territory”. The area was then subjected to the administration of Northern Nigeria. It remained so until 1961, when a plebiscite was conducted for the people to decide either to be part of the Independent Nigeria or they join the Cameroon Republic. The people voted in favor of Nigeria and hence the Northern-Cameroon was incorporated into the Federation of Nigeria on 1st June, 1961 (Nwafor, 1982).
Thereafter, the erstwhile Trusteeship Province was renamed Sardauna Province in honor of the then premier of Northern region, Sir Ahmadu Bello. The region is now the Mubi Emirate Council. Today, the region consists of five LGAs namely, Madagali, Maiha, Michika, Mubi North and Mubi South (Adebayo 2004).

The inhabitants of Mubi region are mainly farmers and few civil servant as well as those with private businesses. As an agrarian community, virtually all the households in the area engage in one form of farming or the other, but mostly at subsistence level. Generally, the bulk of the crop production takes place under traditional system without the use of mechanical power.

Research Method

The data for this study were generated from primary source. The data were collected through general household’s survey and administration of structured questionnaire. The survey covered notable areas in each local government, like, Michika town, Maiha town, Sabo-laye, Wuropatuji, Madagali town and Yeluwa in Mubi town.

Sample sizes of four Hundred (400) respondents were randomly selected and Questionnaires were administered to obtain the information required, out of which 389 answered were returned. Stratified Random Sampling Technique was used. This was achieved by dividing the population into stratum or sub-population of the households in the study area to allow good degree of representation.

Analytical Techniques

Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) Poverty Model

Although a large literature on approaches to poverty measurements exists, however, the chosen measure of poverty must be able to capture a range of judgments on the extent and significance of poverty, at the same time it must be easy to handle and interpret. One set of measures that have been found to be appropriate are those proposed by (Foster, et al 1984).

The analysis of poverty status using FGT measure of poverty involves the ranking of incomes in the ascending order of magnitude such that:

\[ Y_{i1} \leq Y_{i2} \leq \ldots \leq Y_{iq} \leq Z_{i} \leq Y_{(q+1)i} \leq \ldots \leq Y_{ni} \]

The FGT measure for the ith sub-group is given by:

\[ P_{\alpha} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} ni(1 - Y_{i}/Z)^{\alpha} / N, \quad \text{for } \alpha = 0, 1, 2 \]

Where,

\[ \alpha \text{ is a non-negative parameter;} \]

\[ Y_{i} \text{ is income per person in the ith household;} \]

\[ ni \text{ is the size of the ith household;} \]

\[ q \text{ is the number of households below the poverty line;} \]
When \( \alpha = 0 \), it implies zero concern for poverty incidence or depth. Equation (1) then reduces to a headcount of poverty. That is,

\[
P_{0i} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} ni(1 - Y_i / Z)^0 / N
\]

(2)

When \( \alpha = 1 \), it conveys the information that there is uniform concern for poverty depth. Consequently, equation (2) becomes,

\[
P_{1i} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} ni(1 - Y_i / Z) / N
\]

(3)

Where \( P_{1i} \) is the poverty gap between the \( i \)th poor household and the poverty line.

Following from equations (2) and (3), the income gap ratio, which measures the proportionate distance of the mean income of the poor below the poverty line is estimated as the ratio of \( P_{1i} \) to \( P_{0i} \) (i.e. \( P_{1i} / P_{0i} \)).

Finally, when \( \alpha = 2 \), it implies that a distinction is made between the poor and poorest. Equation (1) then reduces to the FGT index, which is a distinctive index of the severity of poverty. FGT for the \( i \)th group is given as:

\[
P_{2i} = \sum_{i=1}^{q} ni(1 - Y_i / Z)^2 / N
\]

(4)

A regression analysis was estimated to establish the determinant of household poverty by using per capita household expenditure/consumption as dependent variable, and also other household characteristics or community factors as the independent variables.

The explicit form of the equation is specified as;

\[
Y = F(X)
\]

\[Y_1 = a_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 + b_5x_5 + b_6x_6 + b_7x_7 + b_8x_8 + b_9x_9 + b_{10}x_{10} + b_{11}x_{11} + b_{12}x_{12} + bx_{14} + u_i \ldots \ldots \]

Where \( Y = \) Dependent variable

\( X_1, X_2 = \) Independent Variables

\( a_0 = \) constant/slope

\( b_1, b_2 = \) coefficient of regression
\( Y_i = \) Household per capita income (N)

\( X_1 = \) Gender of household (0=female, 1=male),

\( X_2 = \) Marital Status, \( X_3 = \) Household age (years),

\( X_4 = \) Dependency Ratio (member in family),

\( X_5 = \) Educational Qualification,

\( X_6 = \) Occupation of Respondents, \( X_7 = \) Expenses on food (N),

\( X_8 = \) Living Apartment, \( X_9 = \) Toilet (Types),

\( X_{10} = \) Sources of Drinking Water,

\( X_{11} = \) Sources of Energy, \( X_{12} = \) Rate of Death

\( X_{13} = \) Poverty Alleviation Programme,

\( X_{14} = \) Rate of Beneficiary PAP,

\( U_i = \) Error term.

**Results and Discussion**

The Foster, Greer and Thorbecke model employed in this study for measuring impact of poverty on households in Mubi region. The international poverty line of US$ 2 per day per person is adopted for this study. This will translate to N\(300.00\) per day at exchange rate of N\(150\) per dollar (this was the prevailing rate during the period of survey). Thus, any respondent whose per capita income per month falls below N\(10,000\) is considered poor.

**Table 1: Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) class of poverty measures for the study sample, 2012.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FGT Measures</th>
<th>Poor Households</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When ( \alpha = 0 ), ( P_0 = \sum_{i=1}^{a} ni(1-Y_i/Z)^0 / N )</td>
<td>327 / 389 = 0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. When ( \alpha = 1 ), ( P_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{a} ni(1-Y_i/Z) / N )</td>
<td>334 / 389 = 0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. When ( \alpha = 2 ), ( P_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{a} ni(1-Y_i/Z)^2 / N )</td>
<td>338 / 389 = 0.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey, 2013
N – Number of people (i.e. household members) in the sample or respondent-population = 389.

Z – Poverty line value = ₦10,000.

To determine and describe the extent and manifestations of poverty among all respondents (i.e. poor and non-poor households), the FGT measures of poverty were also employed. The FGT model allowed the estimation of the headcount, the poverty incidence and the poverty gap for the sample. Table 1. presents the results of the poverty analysis using the FGT model.

When \( \alpha = 0 \), it implies that there is zero concern for poverty incidence or depth. The poverty measure given by \( P_0 \) then reduces to the headcount measure of poverty. For the poor respondents, the \( P_0 \) value was 0.84. This implies that 84 percent of the respondent households were actually poor. This proportion invariably represents the poverty incidence among the sample, and expectedly agreed with the earlier estimation of the proportion of the poor households (i.e. 84 percent) in the sample based on the poverty line definition. When \( \alpha = 1 \), it conveys that there is uniform concern for poverty depth among the study sample. The \( P_1 \) value for the poor households in the sample was 0.85. This implies that poor households required 64 percent of the poverty line to get out of poverty. The value of the poverty gap for the poor households in the sample is thus ₦102,000 (or 0.85 multiplied by ₦120,000 p.a).

Finally, when \( \alpha = 2 \), it implies that a distinction is made between the poor and the poorest. This follows since the poverty gap or depth is not sensitive to re-distribution among the poor. The assumption with the poverty gap is that a Naira gained by the poor would have the same effect on poverty as that gained by the moderately poor. As such, to capture the sensitivity to income re-distribution among the poor and non-poor, there exists the need to estimate the severity of poverty among the study sample. The \( P_2 \) value for the poor using the FGT model was 0.86. This conveys that the severity of poverty among the poor households in the study area is 86 percent. This result concurs with the work of John and Salami (2011) on poverty gap, severity and incidences.

**Determination of the Factors Affecting the Per Capita Expenditure of the Sampled Households**

As mentioned in the analytical procedure, a functional relationship was formulated to ascertain the determinants of household per capita income on basic needs using the multiple regressions run with Statistical Package (SPSS 15.0 version). In order to analyze the determinants of poverty among households in the study area, the regression function of the form below was fitted to the study data using the ordinary least squares method.

\[
Y_1 = a_0 + b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + b_3x_3 + b_4x_4 + b_5x_5 + b_6x_6 + b_7x_7 + b_8x_8 + b_9x_9 + b_{10}x_{10} + b_{11}x_{11} + b_{12}x_{12} + b_{13}x_{13} + bx_{14} + b_{15}x_{15} + u_1 \quad \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots \ldots 7
\]

**Table 2: Result of Regression model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictors</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>t-values</th>
<th>Probability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

57
The result of the estimated regression model is presented in Table 4.5 The coefficient of multiple determinations ($R^2$) with value 0.684 implies that the regressors in the equation explain 68.4% of the systematic total variation in the household income per capita. The significance of the F-value (20.0) implies that all the explanatory variable jointly exert significant influence on household welfare (as proxied by household income per capita). The F-value of 20.00 is significant, easily passing the significance test at the 1% level.

Thus, there is no doubt that there exists a significant linear relationship between per capita income of respondent in Mubi region and the regressors used. Out of the fourteen (14) explanatory variables used in the regression model, only seven (07) were significant at different percentage level. They are gender of household, educational level of respondent, dependency ratio, toilet, and energy, housing facilities plus poverty alleviation programme. The other important variables that measuring poverty level in Mubi region includes Poverty Alleviation programme, sources of energy and sources of drinking water which have negative signs, confirming that poor per capita income of the people in Mubi region can be traced to unavailability of these variables. Therefore, there is overwhelming evidence that poverty alleviation scheme like credit facilities and promotion of small and medium scale enterprises are positive factors in addressing menace of poverty in the study area.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>8.905</th>
<th>2.34</th>
<th>4.996</th>
<th>0.56</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>8.905</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>4.996</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification of Respondents</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>1.719</td>
<td>0.010***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Status of Respondents</td>
<td>0.161</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1.731</td>
<td>0.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of household</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>-0.00</td>
<td>-0.238</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>1.537</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>0.363</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>1.143</td>
<td>0.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependency ratio</td>
<td>-0.197</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>-2.080</td>
<td>0.051**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>-0.19</td>
<td>-0.001</td>
<td>0.886</td>
<td>0.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>0.172</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>1.562</td>
<td>0.015***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilet</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.0451</td>
<td>1.934</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water Sources</td>
<td>-0.107</td>
<td>-0.012</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy Sources</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>-2.42</td>
<td>0.015***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAP</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>0.050**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dearth Rate</td>
<td>0.046</td>
<td>0.021</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R – Square</td>
<td>.684</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F – value</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DW Statistic</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The result shows that there is a positive and significant relationship between the gender of household respondent and economic welfare of the household which suggests that an average male household in Mubi region seems better in terms of their economic welfare or living conditions than female household in the study area.

Empirical study by Adeyeye (2004) in Nigeria indicates men have more access to formal education and other productive resources in Nigeria than their women counterpart (although great deal of efforts are now been made to close the gap). This disparity, among others, is the reason for better economic advantage being enjoyed by men in the country. Ability to work, become more productive, earn higher income and improve the standard of living of household members is contingent on access to productive resources. Limited access to these resources has however, constrained women to remain for long on low-paying jobs and especially in the informal sector with its attendant negative implication on their welfare and the households headed by them.

Educational level of respondents and that of marital both have positive influence effect on household welfare (measured by household per capita income). This implies that an additional year gained by the respondents in acquiring education would lead to rise in household income and by implication, the welfare of household members. Educational attainment enhances human capital and participation in labour market and has been widely accepted as a veritable tool for poverty reduction and improving peoples’ welfare.

The coefficients 0.068 and 0.161 of households suggest that an additional year in their education level is expected to result in 6.8 and 16.1% increase in household per capita income. Dependency ratio exacts a negative impact on household per capita, suggesting that increase in dependency ratio (an increase in household size which translates to increases in the number of dependants) would result in reduction in the income resources available to cater for the needs of each household member.

The decline in the per capita income (resource) availability is an indication of down spiral living conditions of household members. The coefficient -0.197 of dependency ratio implies that a unit increase in the dependency ratio will lead to 19.7% decrease in the household consumption per capita. This scenario also poses a serious threat on the welfare of members of households in the study area, especially among the low-income poor.

Conclusion

The definition of poverty by residents of area under study was about the same. They see poverty in terms of hunger, not occasional but perpetual hunger, living in poor housing conditions without water, kitchen and toilet facilities, inadequate income, malnutrition, lack of access to social services, and lack of social and political status. Generally, they see poverty as a lack of command over basic consumption needs like foods, clothes, and shelter, as well as lack of certain capacities, such as being able to participate with dignity in society. It is a situation in which one suffers because of lack of basic needs of substance.

From our analysis, It was found that the urban households, especially the poor were functionally literate as the study reveals that only about 35% of the poor had no formal education while about 65% either had primary, secondary, tertiary or informal education. Out of the total households in the study area only 18% had no formal education while 82% are educated. Though the some of the households are educated, it showed from the study that 49% are either unemployed or self-employed. About 71% of the poor households lived
in either single rooms or rooms and parlor. Most of these houses do not have adequate conveniences like running water, toilet and kitchen and in place where they had; many household had to share the facilities. Many cooked their food in their room or in the corridors and used polluted well water as drinking water.

For the residents of Mubi region of Adamawa State to be able to cope with poverty, the poor among them dependent mostly on re-adjusting their expenditure patterns and savings, feeding, clothing and education of children. Infact, majority of the households either fail to save at all or save less than 10% of their income. The regression result showed education and Income as determinants of monthly or annual households’ per capita expenditure on basic needs, however, the relatively low $R^2$ is indicative of the effect of omitted variables.

The inequality in income or wealth distribution and the existence of different poverty levels can be accounted for by unequal opportunities to get the same level of education, the type of occupation of the household, and partly due to the difference in the number of household size and the number of people working in the household; totality of which resulted in difference in the level of poverty among the households.

**Recommendation**

i. The Government Poverty Alleviation Programme should be restructured if not re-designed and should be centered on the ‘basic needs’ approach. This approach emphasizes the importance of separating generalized increase in income from the more significant attainment of the requirements for a permanent reduction of poverty through the provision of health services, education, housing sanitation, water supply and adequate nutrition.

   The rationale of this approach was that the direct provision of such goods and services is likely to relieve absolute poverty more immediately than alternative strategies. Since growth strategies usually fail to benefit the intended target and the productivity and income of the poor depend in the first place on the direct provision of health and education facilities. In the same vein, there is no guarantee that increased income will be spent on essential services, since, households vary in their ability to spend wisely and effectively. They may irrationally prefer ‘better’ consumption goods that contribute less to family welfare than other goods that might serve as inputs to higher productivity.

ii. Therefore, efforts to reduce poverty are unlikely to succeed in the long run unless there is greater investment in the human capital of the poor. Based on the finding of this study, education is strong determinant of poverty, apart from Government and NGO’s efforts towards improvement in education; the stake holder in the study areas needs to embark on establishing community primary and secondary schools. And educative forum where aggressive campaign and encouragement towards reasons for acquire education should be organized in Mubi, Michika, Maiha and Madagali town for the youth.

iii. Since good health and adequate nutrition directly address the worst consequences of being poor. And also raise workers productivity and earning; there is poor medical facility in the surveyed. Apart from state hospital Mubi and in Michika, any complications have to travel to neighboring cities like Yola or Maiduguri for treatment. More health centres should be constructed and maintained by Government and communities of the study area respectively.
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 There has been increasing concern over the years by the scholars and writers on how the world is being compressed into a single space now referred to as 'a global village'. Countries at various stages of development are increasingly forced to take account of an ever expanding interconnection of socio-cultural issues and economies in the management of their national affairs. The states are increasingly losing their capacity to govern and to regulate in an increasingly borderless world; with an increasing homogenization and domination of traditional African cultures. Africans traditional cultural values are being replaced by the global cultural values. Scholars and writers often focus attention on economic aspect of globalization, while neglecting other aspects, more importantly its cultural aspect. This paper seeks to examine what exactly is globalization, and how can we best conceptualize this phenomenon? Lastly what are its impacts on the development of African cultural norms and values? These amongst others are the questions, which this paper seeks to examine using cultural convergence perspective as a guide.

Introduction

Globalization is a critical tool for cultural homogeneity and end to cultural diversity in the world. The cultural and linguistics differences accompanying ethnic divisions in Africa have been weaken by the forces of globalization. Africans traditional cultural values are being replaced by the global cultural values. Scott and Marshall (2005) argue that global culture is brought about by varieties of social and cultural developments which include the existence of world satellite information system, the emergence of global patterns of consumption and consumerism, the cultivation of cosmopolitan life-styles, the emergence of global sport such as the Olympic games, the spread of world tourism, the decline of the sovereignty of the nation state, the growth of global military system, recognition of a worldwide ecological crisis, the development of world-wide health problems such as Aids, the emergence of world political systems such as the League of Nations among others.

Perhaps one can say nearly every nation and the lives of billions of people throughout the world are being transformed, often quite dramatically, by globalization. The degree and significance of its impact can be seen almost everywhere.

Concept and Perspectives of Globalization

Different authors and scholars depending on their perspectives have viewed globalization in various ways. Giddens, (1997) defined globalization as the intensification of world-wide social relations, which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice-versa. Abdurrahman and Kura (2013) conceptualized globalization as a complex phenomenon that underlines a multiplicity of linkages and interconnectedness surpassing the nation-state. It is a process that brings
various agents, issues, events, actions, into a complex web of relationships and interactions. Here, emphasis is simply on the integration of politics, economics and homogenization of global cultures. Similarly, Ritzer (2008) defined globalization as the spread of worldwide practices, relations, consciousness and organization of social life. Globalization has also been defined “as a coalescence of varied transnational processes and domestics’ structures, allowing the economy, politics, culture and ideology of one country to penetrate another. The chain of causality runs from the spatial reorganization of production to international trade and to the integration of financial markets” (Mittleman, 1997:3)

Globalization therefore, has a multi-dimensional process whereby cultural, economic and political relations increasingly take a global basis. It involves many agents or actors that are instrumental or are direct players in the process; these actors or agents according to (Ritzer, 2008; Liman and Onyetube, 2013) include Transnational Corporations, the multilateral institutions like the World Bank, IMF, WHO, WTO, etc. and the media.

It is this multifaceted nature of globalization that makes it perhaps the most important and pervasive phenomenon facing humanity-western and non-western. Globalization is like an uncontrollable wildfire it has started and nobody knows where it is taking us. What is evident is that no person, family, religion and society are immune to it. It is therefore shaping our society's labor markets and its pattern of inequality, its consumption and its health as well as its political stability and legitimacy. Globalization is a reality for all of us because; we are forced with no any option but to live in a global village.

Perspectives: there are different perspectives in understanding and analyzing globalization depending on the focus of the paper/study. However, globalization can be analyzed culturally, economically, politically and institutionally. Culture is the dominant perspective in this study. Jan Nederveen Pieterse (cited in Ritzer, 2008) has identified three major paradigms in theorizing the cultural aspects of globalization in 2004, specifically on the centrally important issue of whether cultures around the globe are eternally different (cultural differentialism), converging (cultural convergence) or creating new hybrid forms out of the unique combination of global and local cultures (cultural hybridization).

According to Ritzer (2008) those who adopt cultural differentialism argue that among and between cultures there are lasting differences that are largely unaffected by globalization in this perspective, globalization occurs only on the surface, and the deep structure of cultures is largely, if not totally, unaffected by it. In contrast, the cultural convergence paradigm is based on the idea of globalization leading to increasing sameness throughout the world. This is to say cultures changing, sometimes radically, as a result of globalization. While the cultural hybridization emphasizes the mixing of cultures as a result of globalization and the production, out of the integration of the global and the local of new and unique hybrid cultures that are not reducible to either the local or the global cultures.

Cultural convergence is the most relevant perspective in this study, therefore, it is adopted to serve as a guide in understanding the impact of globalization on African cultures. The reason is that the cultures of the world are seen as growing increasingly similar, at least some degree and in some ways. There is a tendency to see global assimilation in the direction of dominant groups and societies in the world especially western and Americans. This is simply cultural imperialism, westernization and Americanization of the weaker societies.
Impact of Globalization on African Cultures

What we describe today as Africa does not exist as one entity during the pre-colonial days. The various communities which make up Africa today were developing in their own ways before the colonial factors intervene. Indeed, what existed then were various types of state organizations at various stages of development. These included empires, kingdoms, clans/villages, organizations among others. Such communities have already had their developmental process socially, economically, politically and medically but retarded by the European imperialism, which has manifested itself now in the form of globalization. What follows below is a discourse on the central theme of the paper, i.e. how globalization impacted on the traditional African cultures, considering its adverse effects on: traditional African family; indigenous/traditional medicine; education as well as its economic and political dimension in Africa.

Traditional African Family

Family is the backbone and basic unit of every society. Some form of family exists in all human societies. The forms, process, and rules which govern family, however, differ from one society to another. Alubo, (2012) defines family as a group of people who are united by blood relationship and/or marriage which functions as a social and economic unit.

In the traditional African society, just before the rapid widespread of western imperialism and contemporary globalization, there was one type of family: the extended family system, which included a man, his wife or wives and their children, relatives and in some sense, children of the man’s friends (UKA. 1969). There was good understanding, unity and feeling of oneness among the traditional African families. UKA (1969) maintained that the relationship among siblings in African culture was generally very cordial and that extended family system made it possible for members to help one another and contribute to the support of the extended family. This shows that the relationships between a child and another child was not one of dominance of one member by the other, but one of love, protection, care and respect. Obidi (2005) is in support of the assertion that extended family encouraged the development of we-feeling and members were conceived as a team, working together for the welfare and prosperity of the family. Interdependence was stressed and the welfare of all superseded the welfare and interest of the individual. In fact, traditional African families were well built, well fed, well dressed and well-to-do based on their customs and traditions.

Influx of western imperialism into Africa changed the African social structure and the pattern of family life. The western societies were ethnocentric in their belief that African cultural traditions are inferior and primitive and should be de-emphasized. And that still many Africans have it somewhere at the back of their minds that; the more their buildings, music, dressing and even food appear western. The more civilized they think they are. To be civilized then will mean to be able to think, eat, walk and speak like Europeans and Americans which is simply cultural imperialism and globalization.

We as human are shaping and affecting globalization and globalization is shaping and affecting us. One of the consequences of globalization is the end of cultural diversity and the triumph of a homogenized culture serving the needs of transnational corporation. Hence, the world eats tinned food, drinks Coca-Cola, works in industry, watches European champion leagues, World Cup, African Cup of Nations, American movies, whilst the African traditional values decline in importance. Such global commodities imply the emergence of
global culture, modernity and westernization. The impact of globalization is demonstrated in situation where the socio-cultural organization of African societies such as kinship, community organizations etc. that used to bind members together were weakened by the forces of globalization. The Nike Sport Fashion and other sport wears and unsuitable tight dress have become the standard dress of the youths; the rich have become most prestigious members of today's society. Extended family system is characterized by misunderstanding, disunity, hostility, dominance of one member by the other and self-interest rather than family interest. The subsistence agricultural production was left for capitalist mode of production. The implication is not only in terms of its negative impact on our customs and traditions but also detrimental to economic development process of African societies.

Indigenous Education: - education is essential for the transmission of society’s norms and values. Haralambos (1980) maintained that in small scale, non-literate societies, such as hunting and gathering bands, formal education was unknown. Young people learned their lessons for life largely by joining in the daily round of the social group. Similarly Obidi (2005) observed that children’s education began in the nuclear and extended family circles. During family meetings and visits to relatives, children learned about their origins, ancestors, gods, heritage and the origin of annual festivals. One may add that every member was taught to acquire positive personality traits like honesty, hard work, courage, endurance and sociability.

According to Obidi (2005) the majority of people in traditional society were given education at childhood level which enabled them to participate in various occupations, ranging from agriculture and allied activities to manufacturing, craftsmanship and trading. This indicates that most of the people in the traditional African societies farmed, some hunted for fames, some fished and others used local and imported resources to produce goods distribute and sell commodities. In this way we have seen that indigenous education played a vital role in the transmission of culture from one generation to the next, and in the ordering and regulating of social life as well as in leading people to know how to contribute to the economics development of their societies just before the introduction of formal/institutional education.

The introduction of western/institutional education in Africa was part of the globalizing process of western expansion. Today we receive education in the class room, using laboratories equipped with chemicals and internet facilities produced by the transnational cooperation. The implication here is our resources that would have been used for other developmental activities have now been diverted to the purchase of the internet and laboratory facilities. Furthermore, much of our knowledge of the world is gained directly through the media especially, about people, places events and how to make sense of the world. Mass media as an agent of socialization has become an integral part of our everyday life, reaching our children, organizing their entertainment and social life. A source of information and ideas regarded as authoritative and trustworthy, Hollywood, CNN, BBC e.t.c. are examples of such media houses whose main interest is westernization and Americanization of other societies.

Traditional Diagnostic and Therapeutic System of Care in Africa

A number of scholars (Mbiti, 1969; Gusau, 1981; Oke, 1982; Tahzib 1983) have shown that Africa had its own system of health care before the advent of colonialism and the introduction of western medicine. Mbiti (1969) observed that “every village in Africa has
a medicine-man within reach, and he is the friend of the community. He is accessible to
everybody and at almost all times, and comes into the picture at many points in individuals
and community life.” In other words the various cultures had developed their medical
system in line with their needs. There were various categories of practitioners of the art
within these cultures. These traditional practitioners maintained the health needs of the
population and included specialists like bone-setters, herbalists, midwives, diviners,
magician-healers, oracle men (Mbiti, 1969; Oke, 1982; Tahzib, 1983.) these practitioners
were traditionally compatible with their client (patient). For instance, Gusau (1981) noted
that Hausa/Fulani people of Nigeria share the belief that traditional bone setting is generally
believed to be better than the one done in hospitals. While Mbiti (1969) observed that
Azande is an ethnic group in the East Africa, whatever the nature of disease, illness,
misfortunes, the Azande attribute the cause to witchcraft while requires a witch doctor for its
care. These observations support the fact that the traditional practitioners were highly
ubiquitous and the services rendered were in consonance with the socio-economic
conditions of the African as it is with other parts of the developing world.

In spite of these, the liberalization and globalization policies of the United Nations
Institution continue to hinge on free market forces which have continued to negatively affect
the structures of the developing economies-Navarro (1976) argued that health and medical
care are inextricably linked with the capitalist system of production brought about a
commodity production of health care giving rise to various form of inequalities in the
distribution and access to health care and medical resources. In addition to the social
inequality, one can add that hospitals are globally organized into medical departments, each
requires global equipments produced by the Multinational Corporations (MMCs), so as to
improve the economic development of Europe and America. Navarro (1976) observed that
illness is open to exploitation by the practitioners of medicine and the transnational
corporation in the manufacture and distribution of drugs and hospital equipment. State’s
intervention has involved the establishment of policies and programs which do not conflict
the interest of health service producers and medical industrial complex involved in the
production and selling of drugs and hospital supplies.

The implication of the efforts made by the colonial administrators to suppress
traditional medicine is enormous for the fact, that there are countless number of people now
in Africa striving for better health at every level of the global health care system but it
remains difficult. The widen gap between the rich and the poor has denied the poor one
access to better health and this adversely affect our development process. Navarro (1976)
asserted that the exploitation of Africa, Asian and Latin American countries by the core
capitalist nations of Europe through colonial and non-colonial linkages like globalization is
identified as the root cause of underdevelopment of health and medical care resources of
those nations.

Economic and Political Dimension of Globalization in Africa

The traditional African societies were well known as skilled craftsmen engaged in the
production and trading of different types of goods prior to the advent of colonialism.
Among these were agricultural activities like chair making, pottery, leather goods, wood
carvings, baskets e.t.c. These created job or employment opportunities for people. For these
reason, according to Onyetabe and Liman (2013) there are indications that the pre capitalist,
social formations have experienced a high level of productivity that might have been
distorted by imperialism which manifests itself in the form of westernization, liberalization and now globalization.

Economic globalization has to do with increased economic interdependence and integration of all national economies into one global economy. Abdurrahman and Kura (2013) noted that globalization has two important dimensions: the first is concerned with economic aspects, which comprises trade, investment, technology, cross border production systems, information flows and communication; and the second deals with increased homogenization of policies and institutions in the international system on trade and capital market liberalization, standardization of policies and so on. Here, emphasis is simply on economic interests that profess breaking down of national economic barriers; the international spread of trade, financial and production activities, and the growing power of transnational corporations and international financial institutions.

Since it is the US, Western Europe and Japan that continue to account for the bulk of capital that propels globalization, then it can be argued that countries of the periphery, Nigeria and other African countries can reverse the underdevelopment tendencies under the new international division of labor and power (Ugwukah and Michael, 2010). The emergence of World Trade Organization (WTO) in 1995, world leading industrialized countries began to expand the scope of trade and investment agreements primarily to strengthen their position and dominance in a hitherto global world of inequalities. Ogunlana (2004) stated that the justification for expanding WTOs scope by the developed countries was chiefly to secure foreign investment and ensure free and unrestricted access to market through application of the general agreement on tariffs and trade.

From the foregoing, globalization with unrelated and unequal component cannot be said to be global effort to unite or foster even development. Rather, it is a calculated attempt to subdue and dominate others by western society. This has fundamental implications for the developing countries in general and Africa in particular that on one hand are being asked to open up, while on the other find the world market place impossible to penetrate this brings us to the world without borders.

Another dimension to the globalization debate is the political. Those that adopt political approach tend to emphasize the near importance of the state in the era of globalization. According to Ugwukah and Michael, (2010) the tread of globalization in its dynamics, in the integration of capital, goods and services is likely to undermine not only the sovereignty of states, but also make it less important in the conduct of foreign relations.

One of the most important issues in the globalization process is the question of boundary and identity as they relate to economic, social and political process. For instance, the borderless of globalization can create serious problem for national government that may find it difficult to control the Transnational companies (TNCs) on behalf of their national interests.

Furthermore, the universalization of western form of democracy has increasingly become the final form of government across the globe. This can also be demonstrated in series of protests demanding for democratic government in the Arabian nations. In addition and related to the above, is that the rise in importance of such transnational bodies as World Bank, IMF, UN and AU introduces new agents into decision making process of which the nation-states have to negotiate and contend with. Thus, the incursions of international
organizations upon national sovereignty is restricting the ability of the state to uphold its own fundamental values which of course is the situation in Africa.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it is argued in this paper that globalization of culture in Africa is nothing but cultural imperialism manifesting through the domination of the indigenous culture both in the materials and non materials modes by the foreign cultures. The paper also shows how cultural imperialism adversely affected the indigenous family structure, traditional diagnostic and therapeutic system of care in Africa and how African pre-colonial economies were destroyed or incapacitated by the forces of globalization. Though western civilization has many good things to appreciate, overemphasis on it at the detriment of our cultures is not good for our development derive, to neglect our cultural heritage is to abandon a good chunk of the criteria that determine our wholeness and originally. Therefore, there is need for proper education on the African cultural heritage in the continent. To be educated is to be intellectually, morally, physically, psychologically, socially, spiritually as well as culturally balanced.

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QUALITY ASSURANCE IN BROADCAST STYLE AND CONTENT IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

People's voices are critical instruments in the development and sustenance of any society. In this era of democracy there is need for quality assurance in broadcast style and content in order to communicate government policies to the people as well as elicit and encourage Nigerians to ensure sustainability on issues such as nation building. To maintain standards in broadcast content and presentation, the language and accent of broadcast programming should reflect and interpret the people's interests, and make important contributions to the development of the cultural heritage and economy of the society. Quality assurance in broadcast style and content should fulfill social and cultural needs of the people through decent programme offerings that have good taste for public interest. The writer recommends that broadcast producers should uphold editorial values and maintain technical and artistic standards to promote and preserve quality assurance in broadcast style and content in Nigeria.

Keywords: Quality. Assurance. Broadcast. Style. Content.

Introduction

Since the 1930s, when the British Empire Broadcasting Service of the colonialists floated the relay re-diffusion system in which subscribers had access only to channels on off on their radio sets, broadcasting, the transmission through space by means of radio frequencies of signals capable of being received either aurally or both aurally and visually by the general public has metamorphosed from colonial government monopoly in Nigeria into regional governments’ domination. According to Duyile, (2004), in late 1950s and early 1960s, broadcasting has passed through the era of Federal Government annexation and monopolization to contemporary liberalization that accommodates private participation. Momoh, (2002) notes that; like other segments of society, media reflect the population of the people. Broadcast stations provide contents to audiences in English. A multiplicity of media voices can be found in Nigeria largely because of the diversity of the population of the country and the history preceding its independence. The large number of different voices created something of a marketplace of ideas. Such ideas and voices are to be articulated to promote the unity and diversity of Nigeria (Salihu, 2004),

In this era of democracy where freedom of information, the rule of law, assertion of human rights, empowerment and development of the people at the grassroots thrive, there are competing influences and interests on how the broadcast media construct legitimacy for the Nigerian people. Agbaje, (1998) cited in Oketunmbi(2007), describes it as a "battlefield of representations." Engaged in this battlefield are such segments of society as the competing power bases, the educational system, the work environment, popular culture, the mass media, the languages of the various groups, sports, and other competing forms of entertainment.
Agbaje goes on to describe the problem being exacerbated by the colonial heritage and non-Africans trying to explain the realities of the nation’s complex social structure. Various cultural, religious, and tribal groups continue to be at odds over how the country should be governed. Even reaching an agreed political ideology signifies challenges to the various interest groups within the country. According to (Nwanwene, 2005), this ongoing battle can be seen throughout the country’s history. Presently, there are political, economic and security challenges that threaten the very fabric of the nation. It is against this background that broadcast media are urged to disseminate messages that foster unity and peaceful co-existence in Nigeria.

What is broadcasting?

Over the last eighty or so years broadcasting has become an integral part of modern life. Through it we are witnesses to the secrets of the world, humanity’s greatest achievements, inventions, as well as disasters. Due to the ever-expanding realms of digital technology and the proliferation of communications media, such as the internet, on-line newspapers and the like, it is increasingly difficult to pin down a precise definition of broadcasting. For the purpose of this paper, Goodwin (2000) defines broadcasting as communication between one person or organization with many others - point to multi-point through electronic delivery over the airwaves.

Mr. John Reith, the first Director-General of the BBC, which was founded in 1922 and which became a public corporation in 1926, said his idea of public service broadcasting involved a mission to “inform, educate and entertain” every citizen – to uplift them morally and culturally, and to represent a single national culture.

The History of Broadcasting in Nigeria

From 1932, when Radio Broadcasting Service started in Nigeria, as Empire Service of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) to 1992 when Broadcasting in Nigeria was deregulated, the broadcast media were owned either by the National, Regional or State Governments.

The Federal, Regional and State governments continued to monopolize 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.

It was not until the promulgation of Decree 38 of 1992, under the leadership of General Babangida, now an Act of the National Assembly that Government really took a decisive step to part with its long-drawn monopoly of the broadcast sector. That decree established the National Broadcasting Commission and charged it 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.

Expectedly, the emergence of the Commission heralded a wave of requests from the Nigerian entrepreneurs for broadcast licenses that would enable them to set up private broadcasting stations in the country. This has changed the broadcast landscape tremendously, as it allowed the ownership of radio and television by private companies and organizations in the country.
By the middle of 1992, 27 broadcast licenses, 14 for terrestrial television and 13 for cable television, received presidential approval. Although not all those whose applications for license were initially approved took advantage of the approvals, leading to the lapse of such unutilized approvals, many more licenses were subsequently approved for applicants, including those for radio and DTH transmissions.

Today, as a result of that revolution in the Nigerian broadcast industry, the number of broadcasting stations in the country has, at the last count, risen to 394, from less than 30 before deregulation. These include the following number of Private Operators 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 service.
- 34 Wireless Cable (MMDS) Companies.
- 5 Direct to Home (DTH) Satellite Television Platforms operational in the country.

**Definition of Quality Assurance:** According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2010), quality assurance is the practice of managing the way goods and services are provided to make sure they are kept at a high standard. Rouse (2007) defines quality assurance as follows: in developing products and services, quality assurance is any systematic process of checking to see whether a product or service being developed is meeting specified requirements. Many organizations have a separate department devoted to quality assurance. A quality assurance system is said to increase customer confidence and an organization's credibility, to improve work processes and efficiency, and to enable an organization to better compete with others. Quality assurance was initially introduced in World War II when munitions were inspected and tested for defects after they were made. Today's quality assurance systems emphasize catching defects before they get into the final product.

This is why this paper is concerned with the defects, flaws and lapses in broadcast style and content so that listeners and viewers confidence and enjoyment are guaranteed. But the media are generally seen to pander to the needs and aspirations of the elites in the society. The Media Institute of South Africa (MISA) states that there is a need for a paradigm shift to participatory and dialogue journalism by talking more to other listeners and viewers, and talking less to newsmakers. This new experience can make listeners and viewers become partners in the process of exploring solutions while exposing problems.

We can seek to extend the work of the broadcast media through quality assurance in broadcast style and content. This can be done by taking in to account the concerns, problems, needs and worries of ordinary citizens and getting real people’s voices in to stories to, “reflect the pluralism of ‘the world out there’, based on realization that the points of views available within media may not be broad or comprehensive enough.”

Even though the literacy level in Nigeria is still low, nowadays there are critical listeners and viewers who know how to deconstruct the broadcast media. So it is important for broadcasters to consider their audience and not take the arrogant view that they are creative professionals and know best.
From the foregoing, Goodwin (2000), states that the tasks and duties of broadcast journalists entail identifying, researching, recording, writing and sometimes presenting news stories and other programmes scheduled for the day’s broadcast. Broadcast journalists are expected to acquire technical broadcast skills and a thorough understanding of copyright issues and the law as it affects journalists. Broadcast journalists require excellent written and verbal communication skills. They must have a pleasant voice and speak fluently and clearly (sometimes without a script or any preparation). They must be able to condense complex (and sometimes conflicting) information into concise, informative and interesting written reports. They must be logical, analytical and clear-thinking, and also possess good people skills. Broadcast journalists must be able to spot good stories, and they should be innovative, inquisitive and dynamic. They must have a broad knowledge of current affairs, at local and international levels.

Broadcast Style: The type of news content determines the style or delivery or presentation of the news. For example, a sports programme is presented in a racy, lively style in contrast to news broadcast that is structured in to segments, and the narrative format of a documentary.

Broadcast Content: This is the subject matter of a broadcast programme that is aired be it news or a talk show. For electronic media, content determines programming. There are exciting possibilities in content sharing among commercial stations in the broadcast industry. It is to be noted that broadcast media have important issues characterizing their content as well as their socio-political and economic relationship with the society.

Broadcast Programme: According to Sambe (2003), a programme is a message, which a broadcast medium offers to the society to justify the reasons for its existence or social function. Such a message must be broadcast on radio or television and is creatively and freely crafted not only to justify some taste but also to influence people or create awareness.

Onabajo (2001), defines a programme as a material created to meet certain specific needs or attain some set objectives, and transmitted to some predetermined target audience. He adds another dimension to the programme concept. Programmes produced on the broadcast media do necessarily have target audiences whom the programme builder predetermines (determines before the actual production of a programme). In other words, a programme is an individual performance designed for a particular or targeted audience, slated for a particular time in the broadcast media.

Broadcast Programming: You cannot discuss quality assurance in broadcast style and content without mentioning programming because through successful programming, broadcasting must fulfill its social, cultural, economic, political, technological and professional objectives. Programming is the process of determining and scheduling of the contents of broadcast operations. Programming is the planning and execution of what radio listeners would hear, and what television viewers would see on their sets in a predetermined order. Programming is about the contents of radio and television signals that have increased in terms of varieties and durations. Clearly, quality assurance in broadcast style and content is the issue of what would be on air, when, and for how long?

The role of programming is crucial to successfully attract and hold the wavering attention of the audience to the medium. Successful programming depends on the audience for survival.
thereby attracting a large number of advertisers who contribute greatly to the financial strength of the broadcast stations. So quality assurance is to take into consideration the audience factor which is as crucial to broadcasting as programming.

**Issues of Quality Assurance in Broadcast Style and Content**

It is pertinent for us to note that some issues are considered universal, as such, every society gives them considerable attention. According to Watson and Hill (1993) cited in Ugande (2005); issues are those social, cultural, economic or political concerns or ideas which are, at any given time, considered important and which are the sources of debate, controversy or conflict. What is an issue for one social group may not be considered as such by another. Therefore, the critical issues at stake in this paper are quality assurance in broadcast style and content.

To buttress the writer’s argument, the views of two seasoned journalists in print and electronic media are represented here. Firstly, the *National Mirror* of Thursday, April 4, 2013, reported the 8th anniversary of Unilag FM, where Mrs. Eugenia Abu, Deputy Director, Training and Capacity Building, Nigeria Television Authority (NTA), said, “I have been largely disappointed over the years by the way in which professionalism within the broadcast industry has been thrown to the dogs. But I am getting ahead of myself.” She spoke on the topic: “Professionalism in Contemporary Broadcasting: The Way Forward for Campus Radio and Television Stations in Nigeria.”

She stated that what is killing broadcasting at most broadcast stations is Reality TV, which is impacting negatively on young people because it is about back-stabbing. On faulty hiring of most personnel in the broadcast industry, she said: “Let us take our young broadcasters today who because they are not properly processed by their establishments arrive on the scene very green as we all did, but they are unleashed on the hapless public within two weeks without any training. A good voice is not necessarily a professional broadcaster; there are processes of becoming one.”

Mrs. Abu does not consider herself a star. She says she is a public figure or just a role model. She pointed out that: “we put the cart before the horse. A lot of young people come in to become stars in two weeks and deepen their illiteracy. Most people join because they want to become stars.” She lamented the deplorable state of professionalism in the broadcast industry and recommended that broadcasters should acquire more training for the demanding job of broadcasting.

The veteran newscaster, motivational speaker and media strategist said that: “a professional broadcaster is one who is skilled in his task, good at communication, good at analysis, an expert at interviewing, has good judgment, has a good sense of fair play, is sensitive, is polite and understands how to report a tragedy. She stressed that a broadcaster does not form an opinion on air or has his own, but delivers the facts accurately with a sense of social responsibility and then allows the public to form their own. He is also an agenda-setter, allowing his audience to follow an issue of great national concern.” She emphasized that the broadcaster with a professional pedigree helps to shape national policy by affecting it positively and bringing the people’s voices to bear in matters of national interest.
Secondly, the *Saturday Sun* of April 20, 2013, published an interview of Mr. Nosa Igiebor, Editor-in-Chief of *Tell Magazine* and *Broad Street Journal*, who lamented the dearth of quality reporting in both the print and electronic media. “Unfortunately, these days either in our newspapers or magazines or even broadcast media, you hardly see any effort geared towards serious reporting. That, to me, is very sad.” He said the journalist plays a constructive role in the governance of the country. He recommended ingenious but legitimate ways to improve the image of the journalist, his profession as well as boost the revenue base of journalism practice in Nigeria. He pointed out that journalism practice is “dangerous and therefore every journalist must have a life insurance cover; not just a life insurance cover, but the one that can provide adequately for that person’s family, in the event of his demise. It is a good initiative by all journalism external bodies in Nigeria. And I think it is one initiative that should be vigorously pursued and implemented across the entire industry.”

From the above discussions, we have brought to the front burner the issues of moral and professional distress in the media industry which affect quality assurance in broadcast style and content. In another vein, in the *Leadership* newspaper of April 25, 2013, an article titled, *How Journalism Students can Thrive in Knowledge-Driven Economy*, Mr. Ezra Ijioma, observed that: “As the internet shapes and reshapes physical and social realities, journalists have to learn and unlearn media skills not just for filing stories but for delivering media contents and engaging the individual and mass audiences. Media organizations continue to face the dilemma of reallocating resources to attract new readers and viewers while still trying to hold on to their existing, and usually aging, print or broadcast audiences. The digital technology presents an often bewildering variety of choices for journalists and survival requires understanding all these new technologies and how to utilize them. This is the burden of the aspiring and experienced journalists."

Obi (2012), observes that public attitude to the Nigerian broadcast industry, especially TV stations, is that of lassitude and weariness due to what some of them described as boring programmes. Although, most TV viewers have the choice to remain with the boring TV programmes or go for a pay TV with multi-channels, they cannot afford it, a situation that has imposed no other option than viewing terrestrial TV station.

Another issue that affects quality assurance in broadcast style and content is the “indignant commercialization of news by these TV and radio stations” thereby raising great concern to the public. “Almost every corporation’s news and events are seen by these stations from commercial perspective.” An industry watcher states that: “It is the job of all the news media to tell the people what is going on in their community – locally, nationally or globally. In this sense, the news media provide a valuable public service.”

A media analyst argues that if everything is said to have commercial news value for the broadcast industry, do the stations then air proper news? What is the thin line between news and commercial news? If they have more commercial news than what they consider as proper news in a day, will there be news that day, he asks. When the broadcast industry, “especially TV stations, charge corporate organizations to report their events and programmes,” it is unethical and goes against the basic concept of what is news.

The broadcast industry in Nigerian is today faced with multi-faceted challenges from the profession itself, which according to Zayyan (2013), is low in Nigeria as employment is not necessarily incumbent upon qualification, skill or merit but rather is often a function of the
patronage consideration. The challenges are so many that it can take a decade to elucidate. Digitization is perhaps the most intimidating or fazing challenge of all those facing our broadcast media. This is so because over time there has been a lot of confusion in the country due to ignorance. Unfortunately even the media do not give the process the proper publicity. Mr. Zayyan stresses that: “basically, the essence of this process called digitization is to enhance sound and picture quality and to also make multi-channel viewing easily accessible. It represents the most significant innovation since the advent of television itself. No doubt digital terrestrial broadcasting will affect all segments such as content production, transmission and reception.”

Mr. Zayyan reminds us that by the year 2015, all television sets owned by Nigerians and the world over will cease to operate; these sets will be obsolete unless otherwise a digital set-top box decoder is used or new television sets were bought by television viewers through pay TV subscriptions. The implication to this switch over is that most Nigerians are unaware of this situation and many do not know that their fantastic television sets may no longer be in vogue in 2015. He emphasizes that broadcasters equally know that for successful transition, they need to overcome the challenges of digitally non-compliant studio equipment, content provision, new coverage planning, training for its personnel and public awareness.

Sunmonu(2013), believes that when fully implemented, digital broadcasting would go a long way in enhancing the nation’s broadcast industry in terms of quality in audio and visual input. Stakeholders are of the view that a more advanced, value-laden digital technology would enable consumers, especially those in the rural communities, explore the opportunities of quality broadcast signals and choice channels numbering up to one hundred on their television sets.

Umeibe (2013), reports that one of the many advantages of the digital migration would be the availability of more radio frequency spectrum for broadcasting, thereby providing opportunity for more programming content and channels to the viewers. As the digital migration draws near, he says it is pertinent for stakeholders and regulators to properly identify and establish proper guidelines for channel/contents acquisition and distribution. His opinion is that emphasis should be on providing more quality contents and channels to Nigerians at an affordable or better still no cost, rather than pay- TV operators striving to lockdown channels and contents exclusively to their platforms, thereby depriving millions of Nigerians who do not subscribe to their services of quality content. He states that TV viewing is not a social class thing, and should not be encouraged as such. The more quality information is made easily accessible to Nigerians, the better our society and the economy. Quality assurance in broadcast style and content can project our positive values and image of Nigeria to the world.

Finally, the National Broadcasting Commission and Broadcasting Organization of Nigeria should provide a level playing ground for operators in the broadcast industry and enforce strict compliance with the institutional, legal and regulatory framework.

Conclusion

The advent of liberalization of the broadcast media industry has brought some gains in terms of creativity and expansion of the media enterprise yet there are still areas of improvement especially in quality assurance. The emergence of private broadcast stations is a formidable
challenge to the dominance of the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria (FRCN) and Nigeria Television Authority (NTA) over the years. Healthy competition among public and private media outfits is necessary to improve the quality of broadcasting content and coverage, to positively affect the lives of listeners and viewers. A competitive broadcast media will enhance operations and improve the image of the industry. Also broadened scopes of broadcasting, sustained entertainment and public service programmes that cut across political and tribal divides will enhance and consolidate democracy, and promote good governance and economic development.

In spite of the futuristic vision of the potential of the digital technologies, we cannot ignore the many powerful social, economic and political factors which preserve the traditional broadcast media. No matter how far and fast the digital revolution and convergence go, the long traditions and vast expertise in providing mass information and entertainment will guarantee that broadcasting continues be the centre of developments.

Those who can anticipate the huge changes the broadcast industry will experience in the coming years can adapt traditional broadcast practices to meet such challenges.

Broadcasting will continue to be an area of widespread popular discussion and political controversy because of its enormous influence, and because it is near the centre of wider developments.

Despite concerns with budgets, programme costs, viewing figures and ratings, “broadcasting still retains its place as a subject of national interest, national concern, and government intervention”. In future there will be exciting times in the broadcast industry even as changes in broadcasting over the last twenty years have been much affected by new digital technologies in satellite and broadband cable. However, the new wave of technological developments will not see the end of broadcasting but, transform it as a distinct activity.

Perhaps, there will be a convergence—a merging of broadcasting, telecommunications and computing industries into one big digital information industry, which would involve film, print publishing and video games.

**Recommendations**

In order to give vent to quality assurance in broadcast style and content, the following recommendations are made:

As the Executive, Legislature and Judiciary are institutions which mediate relations between the individual and the state, so the mass media should mediate relations between the governed and the government by ensuring that best practices and standards are orientated to the satisfaction of society.

The broadcast industry must strive to achieve excellence in programming, uphold the tradition of professionalism and preserve values and ethics in its reportage.

There should be a structured on-the-job programme to train broadcasters to develop their voices and improve their diction and standardize their first language interference on accent and pronunciation.
The broadcasting profession should have established rules on broadcast programmes, methods of addressing and communicating with their audience.

Broadcast programmes like game shows, soap operas, drama series, talk shows and news bulletins are distinct from each other, yet belong collectively and distinctively to the activity of broadcasting. Professionalism means producing these programmes according to constantly rising standards of technical and artistic quality in broadcast style and content.

In addition, broadcast media should be conscious of broadcasting’s public service ethos, and observe the principle of impartiality, objectivity, balance and fairness in matters of political controversy and religious difference.

The British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) editorial values of truth and accuracy, impartiality and diversity of opinion, editorial integrity and independence, serving the public interest, fairness and openness, respect for people’s privacy and protection of children and being accountable to the audience are also worthy of note.

References


Quality Reporting is in Decline: Saturday Sun, April 20, 2013. Vol.10 No. 538, P18 -20.


COPING STRATEGIES AMONG FARMERS AND HERDERS DURING POST CONFLICT SITUATION IN THE KAINJI DAM AREA OF YAURI EMIRATE, KEBBI STATE NIGERIA

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Abstract
This study examines the coping strategies among farmers and herders during post-conflict situation in Kainji dam area of Yauri Emirate, Kebbi State Nigeria. The study was conducted in the 3 Local Government Areas of the Emirate. Purposive sampling was used to select twelve villages in the LGAs (4 villages/ LGA). 16 respondents were randomly selected for data collection, to obtain a total of 192 respondents. The result of the study reveals that the average use of problem-oriented coping strategies score among farmers were 51.8%, Herders 50.5%. The use of emotion-oriented coping strategies score among farmers and herders were 38.4%, 59.7%, respectively and the average use of social support coping strategies among farmers and herders were 30.0%, 28.5% respectively. The study recommends that Government and other donor organizations should assist the conflict actors with relief materials during conflict situation, so that they can cope with the stress and resume normal production activity.

Introduction
The field of stress and coping emerged more than three decades ago from the recognition of the dynamic interaction between person and environment (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). In recent years, the field has been trying to introduce more realism to stress and coping research, as the contextual research of the last two decades yielded few solid findings that made a difference in people’s lives (Somerfield and McCrae, 2000). One of the most important neglected contexts is culture. We believe that culture is a fundamental context that helps to shape both the individual and the environment.

Scholarly definitions of stress highlight that it is a combination of psychological and physical reactions to events that evoke individual responses (Franken 1994). Research on stress has focused on the physiological expression of stress and its impact on the individual as well as on models of interaction between the environment and the individual coping and resilience (Franken 1994; Somerfield and McCrae 2000). Immediate physiological responses to stress involve reactions from the autonomic nervous system, which is believed to allow a person a chance to react quickly to perceived danger (Mitchell and Everly 1996).

Conflict actors employ coping strategies in order to protect their psychological intactness. Effective strategies should enhance their psychological adaptation despite the traumatic stress. Research has not, however, provided a generally valid differentiation between effective and ineffective coping strategies. Some evidence shows that problem-focused and active coping correlates negatively, and emotion-focused coping correlates positively, emotional and behavioral problems (Compas, Worsham, Ey and Howell, 1996). Yet others have not found beneficial effects of problem-focused and active coping in
predicting psychological adjustment (Rogers and Holmbeck, 1997). Similarly, the findings on the role of avoidance versus approach coping in enhancing psychological adjustment are somewhat mixed. Some researchers obtained evidence that avoidance coping strategies, especially denial and distraction, are associated with poor psychological and social adjustment (Kliweer et al., 1998), while others maintain that coping effectiveness depends on the nature of stress (Band and Weiss, 1988).

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) conceptualized two broad response dimensions among people facing stress: emotion focused coping involves modifying one’s own feelings and controlling distress, and problem-focused coping activities are aimed at changing the stressful situation. Critics have noted that emotion- and problem-focused distinction between coping strategies may be simplistic (Lazarus, 2000). Multidimensional theory, involving the orientation and modality of coping, can correspond more accurately to resource use conflict actors’ various efforts to deal with adversities and demands in their lives. Active coping involves direct problem solving, cognitive decision making, and restructuring. Distraction refers to replaced action and physical release of emotions. Avoidance involves behavioral (withdrawal) and cognitive (denial and refusing to think about the trauma) strategies. Support-seeking consists of emotional sharing and solving the problem with the help of others.

Methodology

The Kainji hydroelectric dam project was Nigeria’s largest project in the 1962-68 National Development Plans, which was completed in 1968. Kainji dam is 136 kilometers long and 24 kilometers at the widest section with a surface area of 1.25 million square meters and a storage capacity of 15 billion cubic meters, of which the useable storage is 11.5 billion cubic meters of water (Hybrid Design Associates Environmental Consultants, 2002).

Yauri Emirate comprises of three Local Government Areas, namely Yauri with headquarters at Yelwa, Ngaski with headquarters at Wara and Shanga with headquarters at Shanga. The area falls within about 80% of the total area of the Kainji Lake. It is located on latitude 11°15’-12°30’N and longitude 5°18’-11°20’E. The area is situated in the Guinea Savanna vegetation zone of Nigeria where the average annual rainfall is about 1000mm. It has a minimum temperature of 32°C (Yauri Meteorological Station, 2012). The Emirate has a population of 353,808 people. Out of this figure 100,564 reside within Yauri local Government LGA, while 127,142 and 126,102 were found in Shanga and Ngaski LGA respectively (National Population Commission, 2012). Farming is the major occupation of the inhabitants of the Kainji lake area, although they also engage in herding, fishing, trading and other informal sector activities.

Sampling Technique and Data Analysis

The study was conducted in the three Local Government Areas of Yauri Emirate. Purposive sampling was used to select twelve villages in the LGAs (4 villages/ LGA). Sixteen respondents (10 farmers, 6 herders) were randomly selected from each village to obtain a total of 192 respondents. The data collected for the study was analyzed using descriptive statistics.

Results and Discussion

Coping Strategies among Farmers Involved in Conflicts

Coping strategies of resource users were classified into three namely: problem-oriented coping strategies (POCS), emotion-oriented coping strategies (EOCS) and social-support coping strategies (SSCS). The use of each strategy among farmers, herders and
fishermen were investigated. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the use of problem-oriented strategies among the farmers. Farmers generally used a combination of strategies, as no single strategy is enough to bring the needed succor to the harm caused by conflict. Ten strategies were identified, out of which ‘buying foodstuff for the family’ was found to be the most often used coping strategy by the farmers (79.2%), while herders most often used working harder (83.4%) and fishermen most often used abandoning fishing for other jobs (75.0%). The herders generally used less of problem-oriented coping strategies than the farmers and fishermen. This perhaps is an indication that farmers and fishermen considered the conflict situation from the ‘problem’ perspective more than the herders. The herders probably faced less problems or direct consequences of the conflict than the farmers and fishermen.

Other most often used POCS by the farmers are: use of previous farming experience (73.3%), abandoning farming and taking up alternative occupation (70.8%), working harder (69.2%), and taking loans from friends and families (58.3%). The fact that majority of the farmers claimed to buy foodstuff for home consumption may indicate the severity of the effect of destruction of their crops. The importance of job experience came to the fore, as respondents claimed to rely on their previous experiences to cope with the conflict situation. It could imply that respondents with long experience may be able to cope better than those that possessed lesser experience. Abandoning farming to take other jobs was also found to be the next adopting strategy by farmers. The outcome of focus group discussion with farmers revealed that this strategy, coupled with other problem-coping strategies as indicted in Table 4.23 ‘sowed less’ (40.8%) and sold farm (36.7%) was found to cause declining crop production in the area, which might be an indication of food insecurity in the communities. Other farmers (35.8%) prepared for worst, to attack herders whenever their crops were subsequently destroyed, and 29.2% used charms. The least used POCS was tightened of farm security (24.2%).

The result of focus group discussion further revealed that abandoning farming and herding for illegal gold mining was found to be a common practice among some people in Yauri Emirate, particularly the youth. This people troop in hundreds at Laka, Tungar Bature, Mararraban-Yauri, Kambu and Kimo villages during the rainy and dry seasons and engaged in illegal gold mining.

Farmers most often used prayer for peace (79.2%) as the first EOCS during the aftermath of conflicts, indicating their level of religious attachment in the study area. Accepting the conflict situation/consequences as an act of fate (77.5%) was found to be the second most commonly used emotion-oriented coping strategy among farmers. The ability of the farmers to accept the situation with equanimity is not only a psychological coping strategy, but is also capable of reducing the escalation of violent conflict between the aggrieved groups.

Pretending that the conflicts was not bad (25.0%), appease of the other party (25.0%), Transfer of aggression (14.2%) and use of drugs/alcohol (9.2%) are found to be the least EOCS adopted by the farmers in the study area. Some farmers that indicated that the conflicts were not bad attributed their reasons to the exploitative nature of the monetary compensation they receive from the herders that destroyed their crops. It is instructive to observe that most of the farmers do not use drug/alcohol as a coping strategy because they became aware that they portend undesirable health consequences and worsen the conflict situation by affecting the behavioral orientations of persons concerned.

Table 1: Distribution of the Farmers According to Coping Strategies (n=120)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping strategy</th>
<th>Used</th>
<th>Uncertain</th>
<th>Not used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

82
### Problem oriented

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working harder</td>
<td>83(69.2)*</td>
<td>12(10.0)</td>
<td>25(20.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using experience</td>
<td>88(73.3)</td>
<td>23(19.2)</td>
<td>9(7.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrowing money</td>
<td>70(58.3)</td>
<td>18(15.0)</td>
<td>32(26.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing for the worst</td>
<td>43(35.8)</td>
<td>11(9.2)</td>
<td>66(55.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling farm</td>
<td>44(36.7)</td>
<td>13(10.8)</td>
<td>63(52.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying food stuff</td>
<td>95(79.2)</td>
<td>6(5.0)</td>
<td>19(15.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sowing less</td>
<td>49(40.8)</td>
<td>7(5.8)</td>
<td>64(53.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shifting to another job</td>
<td>85(70.8)</td>
<td>6(5.0)</td>
<td>29(24.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tightening farm security</td>
<td>29(24.2)</td>
<td>46(38.3)</td>
<td>45(37.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using charms</td>
<td>35(29.2)</td>
<td>29(24.2)</td>
<td>56(46.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average %</strong></td>
<td>(51.8)</td>
<td>(14.2)</td>
<td>(34.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Emotion-oriented

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accepting conflict as fate</td>
<td>93(77.5)</td>
<td>6(5.0)</td>
<td>21(17.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praying for peace</td>
<td>95(79.2)</td>
<td>6(5.0)</td>
<td>19(15.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretending the conflict wasn’t bad</td>
<td>30(25.0)</td>
<td>18(15.0)</td>
<td>72(60.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transferring of aggression</td>
<td>17(14.2)</td>
<td>16(13.3)</td>
<td>87(72.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using drugs\alcohol</td>
<td>11(9.2)</td>
<td>24(20.0)</td>
<td>85(70.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appeasing other party</td>
<td>30(25.0)</td>
<td>16(13.3)</td>
<td>74(61.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average %</strong></td>
<td>(38.4)</td>
<td>(11.9)</td>
<td>(49.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Support seeking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help from relations</td>
<td>86(71.7)</td>
<td>0(0)</td>
<td>34(28.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help from local leaders</td>
<td>27(22.5)</td>
<td>8(6.7)</td>
<td>85(70.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help from local government</td>
<td>20(16.7)</td>
<td>6(5.0)</td>
<td>94(78.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought litigation</td>
<td>11(9.2)</td>
<td>5(4.2)</td>
<td>104(86.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average %</strong></td>
<td>(30.0)</td>
<td>(3.9)</td>
<td>(66.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Source: Field survey 2011

Table 1 also illustrates that seeking assistance from friends and relatives was found to be the most commonly used SSCS among the farmers (71.7%) to ameliorate the effects of conflict. It was followed by seeking help from traditional institutions (22.5%) and local government (16.7%). Discussions with the farmers revealed that referring to traditional leaders and the local government for assistance to cope with the conflicts is usually regarded as a last resort, because they do not offer such assistance. A small proportion of the farmers (9.2%) used litigation as a coping strategy, despite the fact that there are regulations regarding the use of agricultural land in the study area. This might be attributed to the findings of UNIFCPA, (2010) who reported that in conflict-affected areas, resource use managing institutions have often been weakened, politicized, and de-legitimized, and may not play a constructive role in the resolution of disputes.

**Coping Strategies among Herders Involved in Conflicts**

The results from table 2 shows that majority of the respondents (83.4%) employ working harder as a coping strategy among herders, might indicate the comparative resilience of the respondents in the face of unfavorable situations. It is worrisome, however, that as much as 79.2% of the herders adopted ‘reduced size of herds’ as coping strategy. Outcome of the focus group discussion with herders revealed that herders sold certain part of their herds to either pay compensation to the farmers for the crops destroyed, used the money to bribe conflicts management institutions or to engage in litigation. The herders attributed the continuous declining size of their herds to conflicts. They added that some herders’ size declined while that of other herders were completely lost, thus they resorted to engage in herding contract as laborers (bibo) i.e. herding for other herders/cattle owners. The herders therefore concluded that in recent days, some of the Fulani (most especially youths) engaged in robbery as a result of loss of means of their livelihood. As a result of the alleged criminal records of the herders’ youths, Migrant herders are mostly denied access to settle in the study area until a confirmation was received from the community leader of the previous location of the herders exonerating them from any criminal activity.

The results further show that the herders were perhaps more security conscious (73.6%) than the farmers. Herders tighten the security of their herds in anticipation of reprisals from the farmers for destruction of their crops, thus the herders used charms (63.9%) and prepare for the worst (66.7%) to attack the farmers. This scenario tends to indicate that herders were probably more bellicose or inclined to fight than the farmers. The herders most commonly perceived that the conflict was not bad (75.0%) as EOCS during the aftermath of conflicts. The farmers attributed this position of the herders to the superstitious belief that if the herders’ flocks feed on the farmers’ crops, the productivity of the herders’ animal would increase. Regarding the conflict situation/consequences as an act of fate (65.3%) was found to be the second most commonly used emotion-oriented coping strategy among the herders.

<p>| Table 2: Distribution of the Herders according to coping strategies (n=72) |
|-----------------|----------------|--|
| <strong>Coping strategy</strong> | <strong>Used</strong> | <strong>Uncertain</strong> | <strong>Not used</strong> |
| Working harder   | 60(83.4)* | 6(8.3)  | 6(8.3)  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Strategy</th>
<th>Herders</th>
<th>Farmers</th>
<th>Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using experience</td>
<td>45 (62.5)</td>
<td>7 (9.7)</td>
<td>20 (27.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrowing money</td>
<td>16 (22.2)</td>
<td>9 (12.5)</td>
<td>47 (65.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing for the worst</td>
<td>48 (66.7)</td>
<td>7 (9.7)</td>
<td>17 (23.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling herds</td>
<td>14 (19.4)</td>
<td>4 (5.6)</td>
<td>54 (75.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buying food stuff</td>
<td>18 (25.0)</td>
<td>4 (5.6)</td>
<td>50 (69.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reducing stock</td>
<td>57 (79.2)</td>
<td>4 (5.5)</td>
<td>11 (15.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shifting to another job</td>
<td>6 (8.3)</td>
<td>5 (6.9)</td>
<td>61 (84.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tightening herd security</td>
<td>53 (73.6)</td>
<td>4 (5.6)</td>
<td>15 (20.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using charms</td>
<td>46 (63.9)</td>
<td>6 (8.3)</td>
<td>20 (27.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average %</strong></td>
<td><strong>(50.5)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(7.7)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(41.8)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Emotion-oriented**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Strategy</th>
<th>Herders</th>
<th>Farmers</th>
<th>Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accepting conflict as fate</td>
<td>47 (65.3)</td>
<td>3 (4.2)</td>
<td>22 (30.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praying for peace</td>
<td>43 (59.7)</td>
<td>3 (4.2)</td>
<td>25 (34.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretending conflict wasn’t bad</td>
<td>54 (75.0)</td>
<td>3 (4.2)</td>
<td>15 (20.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transferring of aggression</td>
<td>28 (38.9)</td>
<td>3 (4.2)</td>
<td>41 (57.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using drugs\alcohol</td>
<td>40 (55.6)</td>
<td>5 (6.9)</td>
<td>27 (37.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appeasing other party</td>
<td>46 (63.9)</td>
<td>5 (6.9)</td>
<td>21 (29.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average %</strong></td>
<td><strong>(59.7)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(5.3)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(35)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Support seeking**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coping Strategy</th>
<th>Herders</th>
<th>Farmers</th>
<th>Farmers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Help from relations</td>
<td>46 (63.9)</td>
<td>3 (4.2)</td>
<td>23 (32.0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help from local leaders</td>
<td>14 (19.5)</td>
<td>5 (6.9)</td>
<td>53 (73.6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help from local government</td>
<td>11 (15.3)</td>
<td>4 (5.6)</td>
<td>57 (79.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sought litigation</td>
<td>11 (15.3)</td>
<td>23 (31.9)</td>
<td>39 (52.8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average %</strong></td>
<td><strong>(28.5)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(12.2)</strong></td>
<td><strong>(59.4)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figures in brackets are percentages of the coping strategies*

Source: Field survey 2011

Use of appease of the other party/payment of compensation for the crop destroyed to avoid litigation (63.9%) was found to be higher among herders than farmers. This might
indicate that farmers were more at the receiving end and needed to be appeased by the herders, and other conflicts actors involved. It also, perhaps, shows that the herders and other conflict actors might be willing to compensate the obviously aggrieved farmers. But the outcome of focus group discussion with the herders revealed that some herders are not always willing to pay compensation to the aggrieved farmers, but rather prefer giving bribe to the traditional leaders to dismiss the case or using the money to engage in litigation.

The farmers added that the herders hold the view that if the compensation was paid to the farmers, they will keep reporting subsequent destruction of their farm crops. The traditional leaders reported however, that they devised a strategy of assessing the farmers’ crop damages for payment of compensation without the knowledge of the herders, and forward same amount for collection as bribe to the farmers. This arrangement clearly indicates the weakness of the traditional institutions in managing resource use conflicts. Some herders (mostly elders) prayed for peace (59.7%) as a coping strategy. Other coping strategies that are found to be adopted by herders include use of drugs/alcohol (55.6%) and transfer of aggression (38.9%). Focus group discussion confirms that some herders resorted to destroy other farmers’ crops as reprisal for payment of compensation.

Table 2 further illustrates that the use of seeking assistance from friends, relatives and the herders’ association (Miyetti Allah Cattle Breeders Association (MACBAN) was the most often used SSCS (63.9%) among the herders. It was followed by seeking help from traditional institutions (19.5%). Engaging in litigation and seeking assistance from the local government were found to be the least coping strategies adopted by the herders.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The stress coping strategies employed by the resource users were classified into three namely: problem oriented (POCS), emotion oriented (EOCS) and social support seeking coping strategies (SSCS). The average uses of problem-oriented coping strategies score among farmers were found to be 51.8%, Herders 50.5%. While the uses of emotion-oriented coping strategies score among farmers and herders were 38.4%, 59.7%, respectively and the average use of social support coping strategies among farmers and herders were 30.0%, 28.5% respectively.

The study recommends that it is imperative to mainstream the peculiarities of the conflict actors/victims’ coping strategies into the management of natural resource conflicts through the following:

- Yauri Emirate should establish Co-management Committee on natural resources that would ensure that farmers, herders and fishermen adhere strictly to the laid down rules and regulation governing the use of the natural resources in the study area.
- Government and other donor organizations should assist the conflict actors with relief materials during conflict situation, so that they can cope with the stress that results from the conflict and resume normal production activity.

References


THE IMPERATIVE OF THE PROVISION OF INFRASTRUCTURE AND IMPROVED PROPERTY VALUES IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Property development in most cases will not be attempted beyond the level of owner occupation at regions where infrastructure are not provided; talk less of property so developed having enhanced value. This research examines the imperative of infrastructural provision on property values. The research beamed its light on the relationship between property values and the development of infrastructure; the factors that influence property values; and assessing the trend of infrastructural development in Akwa Ibom State in recent past. It recommends that government should provide more infrastructure in rural areas to harness development and ginger property values; urban neighbourhoods to be landscape, with site and service schemes provided; allocate budgetary provisions adequately for the maintenance of the infrastructure; and private individual beneficiaries in the various communities where these facilities are provided to maintain sufficient security to avoid theft and vandalisation, so as to continue to improve values of properties in such domains.

Keywords: infrastructure provision, property value, neighbourhood, development, and budgetary provision.

INTRODUCTION

Infrastructural decay occasioned by the neglect by governments has bedevil most of our towns and cities in Akwa Ibom State, until recently when the present regime took over the mantle of leadership in the state by Governor Godswill Akpabio in 2007. The scenario is not perhaps totally different from what is tenable in other states of the federation.

The term infrastructure refers to all the physical, social and economic elements needed to support the population, in addition to other municipal services which include sewer, water supply, natural gas and electric services, schools and police stations, roads, airports, etc.

According to Fox (1994), as quoted in Yomi (2003) “Infrastructure is seen as including those social services derived from a set of public works traditionally provided by the public sector, to enhance private sector production and to allow for household consumption. They include services like roads, hospitals, schools, water supply, sewage, etc. All these services largely determine how healthy and prosperous an individual would be and how long he will live”.

The Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (2000) defines Infrastructure to mean basic system and services that are necessary for a country or an organization. Examples are buildings, transport, water and power supply, and administrative system. Donald (1972) defines Infrastructure as the physical structure and facilities that are developed or acquired by public agencies to enhance governmental function and provide water, power, waste disposal, transportation or similar services to facilitate the achievement of common social and economic objectives.

As seen above, the main characteristic in the definition involves physical features, facilities or utilities which are usually put in place by public involvement and expenditure, and are aimed
at facilitating the efficient functioning of a society. As society develops, the need to provide basic infrastructure for the well-being of their inhabitants arises. Most of the infrastructure are capital intensive in the procurement and perhaps also in their maintenance, and these services are usually provided by the different levels of government in the federation although private sector participation is now gradually becoming noticeable due to the liberalization policy of some aspect of the national economy by the present administration (Iseh 2003).

Infrastructural development refers to the bringing into existence of the basic amenities and services which must be in place for a particular activity or pursuit. However, no nation can boast of significant development or an enhanced economy without providing the basic infrastructure for the citizens' well-being. Amis and Kumar (2000) argued that infrastructure helps individuals cope with the different dimensions of poverty. It follows therefore, that whenever people are deprived of basic infrastructure, the result is impoverishment. It also follows that cities with the greatest number of poor people are those whose citizens lack infrastructure the most.

**INFRASTRUCTURE IN THE PRE-COLONIAL NIGERIA**

The provision of infrastructure or what is known as social services began in the pre-colonial period among the various ethnic groups in Nigeria. Since social services are services rendered to individuals, groups or communities either by government or non-governmental or voluntary agencies in order to cope with the social problem and to enhance the welfare of people individually and collectively (Sanda 1981:8), then each of these ethnic groups in pre-colonial days devised means of enhancing the welfare of their people. It should be recalled that each of the tribes were organized under diverse rules that saw to the welfare of the entire citizenry.

The advent of colonialism brought a new phase in the provision of local services. It must be pointed out that the two principal objectives that guided the British policy in West African dependencies were associated with the idea of trusteeship and the welfare of the masses (Okafor 1981:5). The colonial administration also proposed that for self-government to be granted to Africans, they should be trained in the art of democracy. This necessitated Earl Grey in 1840s to advocate the creation of a system of municipal government and to use same to train the inhabitants of dependencies in civil responsibility. It was Grey's proposal that made Sir Cornelius Alfred Moloney, the administrator of Lagos colony from 1886-1890, to establish during his tenure, a Health Board in the colony. Specific social problems brought about new ordinances to combat them. For instance, new legislations were promulgated following the outbreak of post-world war I epidemics and the bubonic plague of 1924 in Lagos. Also the outbreak of fire in Lagos in 1877 led to the public ordinance which specified the space required between houses with thatches roots. This was put at not less than seven feet apart. By 1877, the first “inspector of Nuisance” was appointed and by 1897, Lagos had both a sanitary and medical department. During Governor Clover’s term, an organization called Lagos Ladies League operated as a health organ to combat the rate of malaria (Iseh 2003).

The activities of the missionaries in the provision of infrastructure or social services cannot be forgotten to be mentioned here. Such activities complemented that of the British government who actually restricted her own social services in Nigeria because, it believed that each dependency must be self-supporting (Okafor 1981:38). The missionaries placed much emphasis on education and strove frantically to train the Africans under their care.
One Mr Henry Vern, the famous CMS secretary brought into existence the “Native Agency Committee” which was dedicated to training out European artisans to work in African alongside the missionaries (Olusanya 1975:2), but as the northern Nigeria was closed to the missionaries because of the fear by the British government that they might pollute and consequently poison the minds of the northern against the British government, the impact of the missionaries became greatly felt in the south (Bamgbose 2003); especially in the provision of infrastructure/social services. These were all in attempt to provide the people with basic infrastructure, or what is called social services.

INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA TODAY

In the words of Frank Iseh in his write-up, “urban finance and infrastructural development in Nigeria”, edited by Yomi, pages 35-40; ‘urban infrastructure propels the socio-economic growth of a city. To be able to do this, not only should the physical structures be put in place, they must also be properly maintained. Also, they must always be seen to be in good performance conditions’. Key among urban infrastructure are electricity supply, water supply, road transportation, communication, drainage, sewage disposal, and housing.

ELECTRICITY SUPPLY

Nationally, the supply of electricity has been the sole responsibility of the power holding Nigeria limited. Regular supply of electricity is very necessary for the all-round development of any nation. Aside domestic uses, commercial and industrial concerns need constant supply of electricity for their businesses. However, our electricity supply is characterized by frequent power cuts; sometimes some communities may remain without electric power supply for hours, weeks and even months (Iseh 2003). Owing to the ‘epileptic’ electricity supply, many consumers have resorted to using alternatives such as lantern, kerosene stove, gas lamps, and generators. The irregular supply of electricity has caused many industries or some other commercial concerns to produce below capacities and, in some extreme cases, fold up, thereby forcing many employees into the labour market. Also the use of these alternative sources of power supply have sometimes caused explosion resulting in loss of lives and properties.

WATER SUPPLY

One of the foremost needs of man for his daily survival is water. Realizing man’s need for water, governments over the years have created one agency or the other to ensure adequate supply of water to the people. The agencies include several state water boards and corporations. Past water supply from public taps was free. According to Nubi (2002), government’s inability to sustain the free lunch led to commercialization of water corporations, thus restricting water supply to people that could afford it at the commercial rate. Consumers who cannot afford the commercial rate have their supplies cut off. Irregular electric power supply has often been blamed by the water corporations for irregular water supply. He maintained that despite the commercialization of the water corporation, supply is still irregular and purchase of water and long queues at public taps (where any is found) and drawing of water from wells are common sight in many parts of Nigeria. Even where provision is made for public water supply, private arrangement are still made for boreholes and deep wells. However, drinking of water from these untreated supply sources have been blamed for frequent occurrence of typhoid fever, cholera and other associated diseases. Olawole (1997) argues that many taps are dry in the urban centre and water-borne diseases,
which used to be synonymous with the rural areas in those days have now become prevalent and the scourge of the urban dwellers (Iseh 2003).

ROAD TRANSPORT

Road transport refers to the conveyance of people, goods and services from one place to the other via roads. In almost all urban centres, the road is the commonest means of transport. For the economic, social and political development of the urban centre, there is need for efficient and effective urban transport network. Towards the end of the military administration in the country in the 1990s, many of the intra-and inter-city road networks built during the oil boom of the 1970s had fallen into unimaginable state of disrepair. Hence, traffic congestion and accidents have become common sight in most urban centres, especially during the peak hours, thereby threatening their economic lives.

COMMUNICATION

According to Iseh (2003), the importance of effective communication in the economy cannot be over emphasized. He said that communication is a verifying factor; it is a means of interaction between individuals, groups and even nations. Through effective communication, information, messages and ideas are easily conveyed from one place to another. Effective postal and telecommunications systems, including the telephone, telegraph, telex, cellular phones, postal services, and others will reduce the burden on the urban roads as many urban dwellers would be able to transact their businesses through the available communication systems rather than face the congested roads. In such a situation, commercial and industrial lives can operate more efficiently. Telecommunication today has taken a new dimension with the liberalization policy of the industry by the federal government to break the monopoly of NITEL, the federal government’s agency responsible for providing telephone services. Before now, the poor performance of NITEL has contributed to the public outcry for its privatization and liberalization of the telecommunication sector. Before now, with NITEL, solely providing telecommunication services, it was not unusual for prospective subscribers to wait for several months or even years to be allocated telephone lines while those already enjoying such services are often interrupted with frequent disconnection even when they are not in arrears of bills (Iseh 2003).

DRAINAGE

A major problem which confronts many urban centres today in Nigeria is yearly flooding after every down pour. This is caused by drainage canals which have been blocked purposefully by people carrying out unauthorized construction or by share negligence of the urban dwellers to clear the drainages of debris as well as dumping of refuse and sachets of water in the drainages; or total abuse of drainages in the consigned neighbourhood. Uncoordinated physical planning, especially in some slums and new development centres within the suburban areas is another important contributor to flooding.

SEWAGE (SOLID) DISPOSAL

The incessant accumulation of solid waste along the roads in towns and cities in Nigeria is alarming. Waste deposit, especially along streets and even along highways has become an environmental hazard. In some urban centres, there may be no designated spots to deposit the wastes for their onward disposal; therefore, people throw them about indiscriminately,
even into the drainage canals, hoping that the flood water will carry the waste away when rain falls. Unfortunately, some of these waste deposits end up clogging the drainage channels and turning the flooding of our roads into permanent scenery in the environment. However, in Akwa Ibom state, specific spots are created a long road and some streets to facilitate the collection and disposal of waste by refuse disposal contractors in recent times.

**HOUSING**

Shelter forms part of the three basic needs of man. Therefore, the shortage of decent and comfortable accommodation in urban areas is one of the greatest problems confronting urban dwellers, especially in the low-income neighbourhoods. This situation is factored by many contributors which include:

1. The high cost of housing development.
2. The problem of securing land.
3. Poverty
4. The difficulties associated with obtaining appropriate titles.
5. Over population and the resultant pressure on available accommodation, and

Due to this shortage of housing accommodation in most urban centres in Nigeria, many urban dwellers, especially, the low-income groups now resort to houses characterized by overcrowding, noise pollution, frequent change in use, insecurity, over utilization of available facilities, poor drainage system, inaccessibility, absent/inadequate recreational facilities, high rentals, poor maintenance, substandard construction and inadequate services. In the words of Iseh (2003), the above description of the state of some of urban infrastructure merely illustrates the problem; the reality in most urban centres in Nigeria is much worse than we have indicated here’.

**CONSTRAINTS OF EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY OF URBAN INFRASTRUCTURE IN NIGERIA**

From the analysed situation above, it could be observed that there is general public outcry over the poor conditions of our urban infrastructure. From the roads, especially in the south-south geopolitical enclave where the study area is found, to postal services; from the drainage/sewage disposal systems to electricity and water supplies; and housing the story remain the same. According to Iseh (2003) a survey has shown some features among the major causes of the poor infrastructural performance in urban centres in Nigeria to include:

1. **(a) High Cost of Providing Urban Infrastructure:**

The capital intensive characteristic of urban infrastructure provisions makes it to be left in the hands of the government for its development. Nubi (2002) however observed that funding of the urban infrastructure has always been a major concern of all tiers of government and procurement has always been limited by available fund. Funding the provisions of telephone, electricity, or many housing schemes, for instance will require a lot of capital. With our low income per capita, only a limited number of persons or organizations may venture into the provision of such services as the generation and distribution of electricity. Lawal (1997) presented a similar scenario when he said that without well organized and efficient housing finance system, it is difficult to mobilize substantial financial resources for channelling funds into the housing sector. During the era
of the oil boom, the three tiers of government invested substantial sum of money into our urban infrastructure such as roads, telephone services, stadia, and electricity supply, but by the 1980s and 1990s, following economic depression of the time in the country, the maintenance of the existing facilities became difficult, making substantial additional provisions to meet the increasing demand for them became a great task. Due to financial limitations, many projects that had commenced were later abandoned or developed in piece mill, while in some other cases; the pace of work was slowed down in order to accommodate the lean financial resources available.

(b) Inadequate Budgeting by the Government:
Though the fund for any contemplated development might be available, if adequate budgeting is not made, the project might not see the light of the day after all. Therefore, unless adequate financial resources are budgeted for a project, it will normally be almost impossible for funds to be withdrawn for such unbudgeted projects.

(c) Poor National Maintenance Policy
The national maintenance policy of our urban infrastructure is the general attitude of the people to the culture of maintenance itself. It would appear that generally, people are more interested in the initial capital cost of developing or providing the infrastructure without paying due attention or making adequate provision for the running/maintenance costs of such facilities. Analysing this problem, Ahmad (1997) asserts thus- “the major maintenance constraints are institutional and that maintenance is not recognized in the national policy making process; it is not reflected in budgetary or resource allocation process in spite of the expected contribution of the national assets to the achievement of the nation’s macro-economic objectives”. Furthermore, it is known that the non-availability or inadequacy of appropriate spare parts in the country and the difficulty of importing them add to the problems of maintenance. This poor maintenance culture often leads to the breakdown of facilities. It is no surprise therefore to note that this point has been repeated severally in many different literatures concerning development. Omirin (1986), in this direction particularly observed that “Nigeria is generally considered a country where nothing works and that water and electricity are irregular, roads are in bad state of repairs, streets and neighbourhood are always flooded in rainy season, refuse dumps litter the neighbourhood, while telephones have become mere monumental pieces of furniture instead of a mean of communication”. As a result, these urban infrastructure perform below expectation despite the huge sums of money invested to provide them and they have remained a great burden to the national reserved.

(d) Undue Political Interference/Uncoordinated Good Policies
Undue interference and poor coordination of government policies can have negative influence on urban infrastructure. The case of the abandoned metro line project may be illustrative here. The proposed project, if implemented, would probably have eased urban transportation problem in Lagos. But the successive military administration abandoned it. The alleged heavy financial cost was one of the reasons given for stopping the project by the military administration which took over power in Lagos state for instance. It is the same story all over the country, each successive government maintains a negative attitude to projects began by its predecessor and the chain continues, leaving the country with thousands of uncompleted and abandoned projects.
(e) Failure/Unwillingness of Government to Liberalize Policies Towards Urban Infrastructural Services

In the past, government for certain reasons refuses to show reasonable interest in allowing private sector participation in our urban infrastructural provision (Iseh, 2003). The burden of providing urban infrastructure was concentrated on the three tiers of government, even though the government lacked the funds to live up to expectation in most cases. But the present government in Nigeria has made a paradigm shift through privatization by allowing private participation in infrastructural provision. This case is observed in Akwa Ibom state where the present government in the state initiated a joint venture with power holding Nigeria and some foreign private investors to come up with the Ibom power plant project for the generation and distribution of electricity in the state and beyond. In the telecommunication sector, giant strides have been made also in this direction. For instance the immediate past administration was the first state government to partner with a telecommunication outfit (Econet wireless) to liberalize its services especially in the rural communities. In the road sector, the present governor of Akwa Ibom state (Governor Godswill Akpabio) is initiating private participation in road construction and maintenance through “Operation Zero Pothole” initiative. In the area of solid waste disposal or management, private sector involvement has come to stay in Akwa Ibom state.

(f) Public Attitude to Urban Infrastructure

The notion that public property is nobody’s property” is still fresh in the minds of people in the country. This particularly account for the nonchalant attitude of the public towards public property. Aibangbee (1997) states that “it is not uncommon, for instance, for the pipes laid for the distribution of water to be uprooted by road construction workers without any care to repair them, thereby causing avoidable wastage. Also, the fact that the public sees nothing of the efficient services expected of the tax it pays makes it indifferent to the need, of the government and causes it to develop an attitude of total disregard for government infrastructure”. Mischievous members of the public are always cannibalizing on electric and telephone cables and, while such infrastructure is being vandalized and stolen, and Nigerians turn the blind eye.

(g) Corruption in the Public Sector of the Economy

Nigeria is rated as the second most corrupt nation in the world, after Bangladesh, according to Vanguard newspaper of Thursday, 29 August, 2002. This singular fact poses a big problem in the country. The high-class corruption in the public sector of our economy affects the provision and maintenance of urban infrastructure. These corrupt practices may take various forms. Examples, it is not uncommon to inflate by a great margin the budgetary provision for the procurement of urban infrastructure, only for the facilities not to be procured at all. At other times, very inferior materials are acquired at exorbitant prices, with the result that the life cycle of the item or project may be terribly shortened. Similar problem affects the maintenance of urban infrastructure. Often fictitious and highly inflated maintenance bills may be raised, yet poor standard jobs may be done and in some cases, no jobs are executed at all even though maintenance contracts to firms in which they have direct or indirect interest. The conservative 10% kickback that the immediate post-independence policy makers took has given way to brazen robbery that makes the actual cost spent on project peanuts compared to the total sums paid out on them.
(h) Poor Conditions of Services in the Public Services

Poverty, no doubt contributes to gross inefficiency, corruption and low productivity. Prior to the civilian administration of President Olusegun Obasanjo, the annual total remuneration for the average public servant was very poor. The income, when contrasted with the inflationary trends in the country as well as the nature of our African extended family lineages with its attendant social/financial responsibilities, financially incapacitates the average Nigeria public servant and limits his ability to meet his socio economic responsibilities. All these tend to make corruption seemingly attractive to him and may fall on account of such temptation. Other constraints to effective delivery of urban infrastructure may include the absence of effective physical development plan in some of our urban centres. A city without effectively planned and development control programme may occasion haphazard developments thereby creating problems when it becomes necessary to site new infrastructure. Also, institutional conflicts and their consequences can cause ineffective infrastructural delivery system. These conflicts may be vertical, that is, between different levels of government, for instance the federal, the state, and local governments. It may also be horizontal, that is, occurring within the same level of government. These conflicts could result from conflicting interests such as laying claim to the same piece of land by different bodies or authorities in the desire to provide services. If uncontrolled, such conflict could lead to improper coordination resulting in inefficient urban infrastructural services.

FACTORS AFFECTING PROPERTY VALUES

If an estate agent or a real property owner is asked, what the factors that affect property values are, the list could be endless. However, there are several factors which affect property value and should be considered in any transaction involving property interest. Some of those factors include the curb appeal, the neighbourhood the property is found, and the infrastructural facilities around or close to the property, the economic situation in a place, etc.

The curb appeal of a home is basically the first thought that people have as they are driving by a property. (http://www.ehow.com/info_7754088_factor.affecting-property-values.html -2012). This comes as a result of the finishes as well as the various services found there which synchronizes with what is looked for at a time in the property of a particular nature (taste); in addition to the presence of garden or lawn within the premises. The neighbourhood is one of the important factors that affect property value. This is not something one can always do too much about. If one lives in a nice neighbourhood, the better; if not, one may want to think about rallying all of the neighbours together to make the neighbourhood look a little nicer. Maybe one can plan a clean-up day and have everybody do their part by cleaning or helping the elderly neighbours who are not able. The most important of all factors, which affect property values in most cases, is the availability of infrastructural facilities around or within the neighbourhood where a property is located. The general economic happening in a state affects the values of property within the state. This is a product of the demand and supply which involves the interplay of other economic factors aside those mentioned above.

THE IMPACT OF INFRASTRUCTURE PROVISION ON PROPERTY VALUES

There are no major writers or analysts who reject the relationship between infrastructure and economic development. Often the concept of infrastructure investment and economic
development are considered one and the same variable. Since economic development is universally connected with increasing property values near the infrastructure projects, there is also a clear relationship between increases in public investment and local property values. In the modern western world, infrastructure usually is reduced to roads, bridges, water and sewer services. In the developed world, things like security, health care and recreation are often included. However infrastructure is defined, it is the fundamental condition for economic development. (http://www.ehow.com/infor_7936264_effect-infrastructural-development-property-values.html - 2012). Its network of services usually provided by the state that makes increasing economic development possible. Professor Janet Rivers and Professor Michael Heaney have connected infrastructure investment to all facets of economic development. This almost always includes an increase in property values, which is not a problem since the increase is always offset by increasing opportunities and incomes in the general vicinity. The closer a residential area, for instance, is to new infrastructural projects, the higher the increase in its values. In addition, Rivers and Heaney also found that the reverse relationship is true. Falling infrastructural investment is closely related to falling property values. They go so far as to hold that, decaying or neglected infrastructure is a major determinant of economic decay and recession (Rivers and Heaney, 1995). This relationship also exists in the developing world in which Nigeria is not left out. Adebayo M. A. of the University of Lagos found strong relationships between property values, economic development and infrastructural development in Lagos, the commercial capital of Nigeria. Not only is there a connection between public investment and the financial values of local housing, but people are clearly willing to pay more for a house or business if they know there is, or was, substantial public effect in that people are willing to invest in an area if they consider they are a government priority. A situation which is not different from other parts of the country and Akwa Ibom state in particular shares in the similitude. When infrastructural development falls off due to tight budgets or has of public interest, the implication is that property values fall, and these fall because external investment falls. The most economically active people move out of an area when public investment is neglected. Furthermore, the basic transaction costs of infrastructural neglect begin to increase, making it less profitable to do business in that area. The policy implication is that public investment is necessary for economic development, profitability and economic progress in a given area.

Infrastructure Provision Drives Property Investment

In New York, a study assessing the impact of property proximity to light rail transit stations on residential property values was conducted. According to the study, for homes located in the study area, every foot closer to light rail station increases average property values by $2.31 (using geographical straight line distance). This implies a positive relationship between residential property value and distance to a transit station being an infrastructure. According to the Guateng provincial government, objectives for certain areas surrounding Gautrain stations include increasing residential densities, promoting retail and office activity and improving pedestrian links in the vicinity, all of which are likely to increase property values. http://thepropertytimes.co.Za/2011/03/infrastructure-development-driven-property-investment.html. The scenario presented above is not different from what is observed in Akwa Ibom state generally. Properties around newly developed infrastructure are seen to have increased value in recent past compared to what used to be before. For example, around the new federal prisons located at Ikot Ekpene, the International Airport, Uyo; Ibom Tropicana five star hotel, Uyo, Le Meridian Ibom Hotel and Gulf Resort, Uyo; the Akwa Ibom State University, Mkpat Enin; to mention a few, and the associated link up of the
entire neighbourhood with tarred road, land values as well as residential property values have all gone up around these vicinities

The Impact of Parks on Property Values

Most people enjoy the benefit of open park land near their homes. While the aesthetic and environmental values of parks are easily recognized, their economic value is sometimes overlooked. In fact, studies have shown that parks create a positive economic impact by increasing nearby property values. [http://www.ehow.com/about_5306175_impact-parks-property-value.html](http://www.ehow.com/about_5306175_impact-parks-property-value.html). Historically, support of park development has intuitively felt that parks increase nearby property values. More recently, these views have been confirmed through statistical studies. For example, a study conducted in Portland, Oregon, in 2000 found that a group of parks had a positive impact on the values of properties within a distance of 1,500 feet. Another study conducted on a number of parks in Dallas in 2001 found that homes facing a park were worth 22 per cent more than homes located half a mile away from a park. The effect is that people enjoy the benefit and natural beauty that a park offers and so they naturally desire property that is located near a park. This increase in demand translates to an increase in property value. Increased values lead to increased property taxes, which pay for the cost of developing the park. This means that over the long term, a park will most likely pay for itself. Park also attracts desirable residents such as retirees to the area. This effect may also impact property values positively because safe, friendly communities are very desirable places to live. While parks have been shown to increase nearby property values generally, there are factors that may affect the magnitude of the increase. For example, it has been observed that parks designed for passive use have a greater impact than parks designed for active use. Also if there is another park within a reasonably close distance, the addition of a second park may not have as great an impact on property values. It is also reasonable to assume that the size and layout of a park will have some impact on the amount by which nearby property values increase. ([http://www.ehow.com/about_5306175_impact-parks-property-value.html](http://www.ehow.com/about_5306175_impact-parks-property-value.html).)

The Impact of Landscaping on Property Values

From the book “Home outside: creating the landscape you love” by Julie Moir Messervy (2009) well designed front and back yard has the potential to add 20 per cent to home’s value. Tidy landscaping means ensuring the walkway is clear of debris and cracks in the pavement, the lawn is groomed by the grass being kept green and short or the rocks evenly distributed, and the trees do not block the views of the home. The economic effect of landscaping could be a “Spillover” effect. Robert Carbaugh (2000) explains the meaning of this phrase in his book, “Contemporary Economics” – a spill over effect is a benefit or cost issued to people other than the primary producer of a service. In this case, improving the landscape of your home improves the image and reputation of the neighbourhood. Furthermore, the neighbours might be compelled to improve their own landscape when they see how much nicer your home appears as a result of the renovations. However, neighbours are equally likely to issue a complaint to you or with the home owners association if you fail to keep your yard up to the standards in the neighbourhood. Neglecting the appearance of your yard could create a negative externality for your neighbours. ([http://www.ehow.com/info_7755419_economic-effects-landscaping-property-values.html](http://www.ehow.com/info_7755419_economic-effects-landscaping-property-values.html).) William Thompson, author of the book, “Sustainable Landscape Construction” contends that the effects of landscaping on property value are unproven. Because the benefits are not easily quantified and different projects have varying cost, specifying the exact increase in property
value is difficult; the property value increase is estimated between five per cent and twenty per cent. (http://www.ehow.com/info_7755419_economic-effects-landscaping-property-values.html.)

The Impact of Private Schools on Property Values

The location of private schools can increase property values if viewed as significant community assets. Private school, can affect property values either positively or negatively. The impact may be reflected in home prices, assessments and/or local tax levies and rates. The nature of the impact depends on the reason why these schools developed in the area. It may also be influenced by certain characteristics of the local population. Many communities support excellent school but still offer parents the option of private schools which is especially common when the local population is affluent or where there is a strong demand for religious education. In both of these cases, private schools can increase local property values because people make a choice to pay more for a range of quality educational options. The positive effect may be heightened if the private institutions offer pre-school classes or other types of specialized programmes typically unavailable in public schools. Sometimes private schools are developed in response to perceived shortcomings in a community’s public education. For examples, people may believe there are overcrowded or deteriorating school buildings, overly large student-teacher ratios, poor standardized test scores and/or low graduation rates. These kinds of perception can hurt property values in two ways. First, demand and prices will be reduced when home buyers who are unable to afford private schools go elsewhere. Second, taxes may need to be increased to correct the public schools deficiencies. http://www.ehow.com/fact-effect-private-schools-property-value.html.

The Impact of Road Infrastructure on Property Value

The construction of road ways is a major factor in making life easier in any area, particularly areas farther away from the urban centre. For this reason, road construction can be a major boon for property values, both residential and commercial. At the same time, if road construction leaves areas excluded at the benefit of others, it can lead to lower property values. Moreover, the effect of highway infrastructure upon property values vary according to the type of construction that is already in place or currently being proposed. Roads that provide access to communities and business for ‘smart’ growth will increase property values. Roads that serve as barriers, or redirect traffic away from particular areas, will cause property values to fall. Secondary Route; for example, which provide access into an area by signed traffic lights increase property values. Newly constructed and well-maintained highways and side streets are good places for commercial and residential development. Principal Route; the impact upon property values related to principal routes, such as express ways and multilane highways is mixed. Interstates have been tied to both economically vibrant corridors and urban blight. Highway Exit; businesses often cluster around highway exits that carry traffic off and onto a major freeway. The highway inter change provides convenient access to the area, which promote growth. Home builder typically advertise close proximity to major highway exits as selling points. Barrier; large highways can serve as barriers to divide regions, economically. The author of “The Power Broker”- Robert Caro, cites Robert Moses’ design of the Cross Bronx Expressway as the direct cause for uprooting stable communities and isolating the South Bronx as a notorious inner-city ghetto from the rest of New York City. Redirecting Traffic; property values fall when new roads are built that redirect traffic away from an area. Traffic is more likely to use
the main highway, than patronize businesses along what have now become back roads. Meanwhile, development increases alongside new routes that direct traffic into an area. Property values advance when communities grow.


METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In the research, a survey design was used to obtain information concerning current status on the imperative of infrastructure development on property values. This was directed towards determining the nature of the situation as it existed at the time of the study. The aim of this design was to describe what existed with respect to variables, or conditions in the situation. The target population of the study comprised of the entire property owners in eket, Ikot Ekpene and uyo towns, representing the three senatorial districts of the state, who have titles to their properties duly registered in their various Land Registry and their building plans approved by the state government in the past six years, starting from 2007. To this end, a total of eight hundred and forty seven people were used in population. More so, some estate firms in the state were also studied to ascertain trend in property values for the period under study. Yare Yamane’s Formula for finite population was used to determine the sample size from the population. This gave a sample size of two hundred and seventy two respondents. The formula is as follows:

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} \]

Where, \( n \) = the sample size; \( N \) = the finite population; \( e \) = level of significance (0.05 limit of tolerance error); 1 = unity (a constant)

The instrument used in the collection of data was a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was framed in a way to contain the specific questions relating to the subject where answers were solicited from the respondents. The questionnaire had specific items structured to bring out required information for the research. The responses were made on a four point scale, thus: strongly agreed (SA), agreed (A), disagreed (D), and strongly disagreed (SD). The researcher administered the questionnaires randomly to respondents. Two hundred and seventy two questionnaires were distributed randomly, but two hundred and seventy turn in for analysis. Data were also obtained through oral interviews, as well as records of the trend of values from Estate firms in Akwa Ibom State. Statistical mean was used to answer the research questions in order to accept or reject the research questions as the case may be.

RESULTS

Statistical mean was used to ascertain the acceptance or otherwise of the questionnaire items. An item was only accepted if it scored at least 2.5 on the four point scale mean value (x). Items which scored below 2.5 were rejected. The analysis of the collated data presents the result in the tables below:
Table 1: The relationship between infrastructure development and property value:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>∑fx</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development of infrastructure gives rise to the choice of site for property development</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of infrastructure generates higher property value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of infrastructure attracts most people to accept settling at a given neighbourhood</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lessees prefer properties located where infrastructure development are comparatively optimal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table above, the result shows that there is strong relationship between infrastructure development and property values as all the questionnaire items scored above the minimum point of 2.5 on the scale.

Table 2: Factors which influence property value:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>∑fx</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Property value can be enhanced by the neighbourhood it is found</td>
<td>SA</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accessibility through good road network increases property value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The general economic situation in the country affect property value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The individual appeal of the property can improve its value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the same vain, observed from table 2, it could be seen that the entire questionnaire items scored above the minimum score. This was an indication that showed that the mentioned characteristics in the questionnaire items were among the factors which influence property values. They include, but limited to:

a. Provision of infrastructure.
b. Good neighbourhood.
c. Property’s individual appeal, and
CONCLUSION

The research has assessed the imperative of infrastructure provision on property value in Nigeria, a case study of Akwa Ibom State, using three research questions and statistical mean to answer the research question. In essence, the imperative of infrastructure provision on property value can be concluded thus:

(a) Increased property value  
(b) Suitable site selection for property development/investment  
(c) Promotion of good neighbourhood  
(d) Healthful settlement engendering  
(e) Economic empowerment

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THE ROLE AND CHALLENGES OF EDUCATION IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT (THE NIGERIA EXPERIENCE)

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Abstract

This research paper focused on the role and challenges of education in national development. It dwelt extensively on the factors that aids and fosters educational development, Nigeria being the case study in this regard. It further unravels the importance of education in the Nigeria experience stating categorically the dimensions in which education had impacted the Nigeria states with such areas as technological, Industrial, Health, law, Security and Agricultural etc. The research paper further gave a comprehensive analysis of the importance and developmental contributions of tertiary education in contemporary Nigeria society. The importance of education in Professionalism was also extensively overviewed, that is, the contribution of education to manpower development and labour force in Nigeria and the policy underlining the educational system. By and large this research paper equally look as the role of education in economic growth and development specifically the role of education in economic transformation, improved-living standard, social economic growth, political stability, infrastructural development, provision of basic amenities amongst others economic developmental variables. Societal realities governing the smooth administration of the education as it affects the civil service administration was also an integral parts of the research with a specific reference to the 1988 civil service reform. The dimensions in which education has deepened the Nigeria democratic experience was also inclusive in the research that is political and social transformation. Nigeria has within a short period witness tremendous growth in social progress, freedom of speech, freedom of association and amongst others human rights, all synonymous with the contribution of education. Finally, the project tries to ascertain the contemporary challenges confronting the educational development in Nigeria and conclusively profer solution and constructive recommendations.

Keywords: Education, National Development, Professionalism, Training, Deepening Democracy

INTRODUCTION

According to Uwadia (2010), Education in a broad sense is a process by which an individual acquires the many physical and social capabilities demanded by the society in which he/she is born into to function. It is to a nation what the mind is to the body, just as a diseased mind is handicapped in the coordination and direction of the bodily activities. Therefore, the single most significant complex of social – control tools for national development is found in the educational system be it formal or informal.

Eduwen. (1999), asserts that, education is the process of acquisition of knowledge, that is, it involves the teaching and learning process.
Formal education in Nigeria date back to the British colonialism. In the pre-colonial and colonial era, the colonial master introduced reading, writing, arithmetic which was the beginning of formal education system in Nigeria. Before now, education was informal, that is apprenticeship system of acquiring knowledge. With the advent of the British colonialism there was a shift from the informal to the formal system of education. Soon after the Nigeria independence tertiary institutions for man power training and development were established by the Nigerian states. Consequently this led to the growth of the Nigerian professionalism.

The Nigerian education have had a tremendous impact on the Nigeria nation over the years this is evident in the growth and development of the Nigeria Civil service, Political system, Technological growth, Communication, Industrial growth, increase in Agricultural production, Medicine engineering as well as the harnessing of her national endowment.

All the aforementioned development witnessed in Nigeria were brought about by the growth and expansion of tertiary education were professional handling these different sectors in the Nigerian economy were trained. Soon after independence, there was the need for competent manpower in the Nigerian quest for development; consequently upon this the federal government embark on the establishment of primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

**Importance of Education**

a. It must train the individual for a better appreciation of his own cultural traditions whilst at the same time equipping him with the ability to absorb new ideas, new information and new data for resolving the constantly changing problems of his environment;

b. It must train the individual to relate to and interact meaningfully with other individuals in the society and to appreciate the importance of effective organization for human progress;

c. It must develop the creative ability of individuals especially in the cultural and technological realms;

d. It must foster in the individual those values which make for good citizenship, such as honesty, selflessness, tolerance, dedication, hard work and personal integrity, all of which provide the rich soil from which good leadership is spawned. Obasanjo (2012)

However, Education in Nigeria has brought developmental gains to the nation especially in the area of self-reliance and the perfecting of her ingenuity inequality. Education has equally led to the production of personalities of intellectual’s endowment in such areas as literature, music, creative art sculpture, carving among other things. With the global tread of educational advancement among nations it is hoped that in the nearest future Nigeria will be rated among developed countries of the world via light of education.

**Tertiary Education in Nigeria**

Tertiary Education in Nigeria in the post-independence era. The quest for manpower development led to the establishment of Colleges of Education were teachers were trained. Polytechnics were also established were practices were taught in so many fields especially in the area of Engineering and Technologies, all this contributed immensely to the development of Nigeria. Universities were also set up to cater for the massive production
of professionals. The Nigerian labour force tremendously increased as a result of the establishment and sponsorship of education by the federal government. All these enhanced bi-lateral relationship with other nations as well as enhanced her domestic and international trade to mention but a few, education was indeed the bedrock that led the transformation of the Nigerian state. Taiwo (1980)

**Education and Professionalism In Nigeria:**

The Nigerian states is characterised by professional from all works of life who are trained by virtue of the provision and gains brought about by education. The Nigeria Civil Service is largely populated by these professionals who contribute immensely towards the growth and development of Nigeria. The educational system of Nigeria had brought radical transformation to the Civil Service by virtue of in-service training for officials in the civil service hence there has been increased productivity in all spheres of the Nigeria economy. The Nigeria education system has led to the massive production of industrialist from all spheres of life as well as enhancement of the philosophical frame work of the Nigeria labour congress. As a matter of fact Nigeria is fast becoming an enviable icon in the area of Civil Service administration. The philosophical ideology and framework of the Nigeria Civil Service is structured on the rudiments and tenets of the national policy on education. This policy has the following as its cardinal goals. Igbuzor. O (2006).

a) A free and democratic society.

b) A just and egalitarian society.

c) A united, strong and self-reliant nation

d) A great and dynamic economy.

e) A land full of bright opportunities for all citizens

From the forgo, the contribution of education to the development of the Nigerian state cannot be over-emphasized. Education has brought the dawning of new era of professionalism to all ministries and parastatal across the country. Furthermore, it has strengthened the intellectual requirement associated with the modern labour market.

**THE ROLE OF EDUCATION IN NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: THE NIGERIA EXPERIENCE**

*The Role of Education in Economic Growth and Development:*

Nigeria is indeed a centre for world commerce and industry judging by virtue of her seaports, Tourist Centres, Parks etc. To adequately mastermind the requirement of this natural endowment the federal government embarked on the training of engineers and environmentalist to harnessed these natural resources with the establishment of department of engineering in universities and polytechnics. There has been a massive production of engineers who have contributed their knowledge and skills towards the growth of Nigeria. The Nigerian domestic policies have actualised its goals and objectives by virtue of the advantageous position played by education. With the use of policies and recommendation by professionals there has been adequate management of Nigerian domestic and international relations with other countries leading to improved leaving standard, social economy growth, political stability infrastructural development, provision of basic amenities social reconstruction etc with the increased demand for education there has been a continuous
drive for a better leaving condition and way of life thus bringing about modernization and sophistication to the ordinary man. All these are the interplay of education. Soon after independence, in the advent of formal education there was a shift from traditional to formal approach of life, education has indeed transformed the traditional setting of Nigeria into a more completes entity. As a matter of fact education is the basic factor that necessitate all the aforementioned development. The Sub Sahara Africa, in Nigeria in particular, education remains the instrument for the emancipation of the populace from the ravaging effect of the deepened poverty, social injustice, economic meltdown, malnutrition, insecurity and all such social vices that have be devilled the Nigerian economy. It follows therefore that education remains the most potent indices for transformation of the society as well as the actualization of the yearning and aspirations of the people.

**Education and Civil Service Administration in Nigeria:**

Immediately Nigeria gained her independence, she was faced with the enormous responsibility of administration and governance, this led to the creation and establishment of departments and ministries in the three geographical region. Ever since, it has been a bottle neck and problematic issue to successfully administer the civil service. There has been series of reformation in the civil service with all aimed at attaining excellence in service delivery. However, with the advent and establishment of tertiary institutions across Nigeria the enormous challenge that be-devilled the civil Service has been drastically reduced as a result of massive production of university graduates. This is one of the most strategic areas were education has brought Nigeria to lime light in both domestic and international arena. With the professional expertise resulting from educational expansion in Nigeria the problem hitherto associated with the civil service has been drastically reduced over the years. Much of the bulk of the recommendations of the 1988 civil service reformation were educationally inclined and structured by administrative professionals from the tertiary institutions therefore, it is evident that education is a tool for societal emancipations, equity and justice, public sensitization and other developmental initiatives Edigin (2006).

**Education as a Tool for Deepening Democracy**

*Education should ideally liberate one from the corrupting shackles of greed and graft, from the basal influences of primitive superstition, of ethnic and religious bigotry and from the corrosive instincts of selfishness and parochialism. Good wholesome education strives for excellence over mediocrity and promotes the patriotic spirit in place of blind sycophancy good wholesome education should place high premium on truth, justice, individual and social morality, as well as peace making. Good whole education should be education in leadership, the type that would throw up the leader as servant, mentor, inspirer and visionary. Good, wholesome education should emphasize civic and political awareness, training in human dignity and fundamental human rights and citizen responsibilities. Good, wholesome education should encompass training in the democratic culture and in popular participation in governance. Good, wholesome education today should include training in healthy living, ecological justice and environmental sustainability. “Higher education can play a vital role as we work together in common cause to consolidate those gains, to strengthen institutions, to fight repression, to promote good governance. The power of education is integral to spreading peace and deepening democracy. When people participate in the democratic process and become engaged, they build peace, day by day, year by year”.www.un.org/News/Press/doc/2011/sgsm13799.doc.htm*
The recent democratic experience that has been witnessed in Nigeria is by and large a bi-product of education in Nigeria. Democratic philosophies governing the Nigerian democratic system has been sustained and structured on principles of educations as shown in public enlightenment, sensitization, work shop, seminars—all being medium through which education have advanced the philosophy and ideology of education. Education has indeed strengthened the democratic stability in Nigeria. At the grass root level education have impacted the gains of democracy on local government administration, with the resultant effect of growth and development of local governments. The state and the federal government have equally experienced growth and development arising from democracy with education playing tremendous role. Before now the military dictatorship heightened Nigeria underdevelopment however, with the dawn of a new era- democracy, there was a reversal of this trend. Nigeria is fast becoming one of the most viable economy in the world by 2020 international speculations and education is the means by which the realization of this dream can come true. UNESCO (2006), UNAIDS (2008). The furtherance of the philosophical ideology and framework of education will help to foster the continuity of advancement realities. In a nutshell education has been the credo of civilization for the African nations since their independence with Nigeria inclusive. It is hoped that in the nearest future education in Nigeria will be embraced by all and this will go a long way in bringing Nigeria to the forefront of global development. Education should be a mandatory prerequisite for all youths in Nigeria and timing age groups up to the age of schooling. With the attainment of this radical economic initiatives the Nigeria society will encounter speedy progressive, economy, social, political and social transformation in short education is the key to unlocked the doors of social progress.

Before the advent of educational boom in Nigeria, the military dictatorship was galvanized and impoverished with dictatorship and brutality all arising from illiteracy. However, with the illumination of educational advancement the trend had change over the years with the arrival of democratic governance. Nigeria has within a short period witnessed tremendous growth in social progress, freedoms of speech, freedom of association, freedom of movement and other human rights that were hither to bastardized before the era of democracy. Education remains the only tool within which the practice of democracy can be perfected and it remains the only weapon with which such perfection can be sustained.

The Challenges of Education in National Development

Olekede, (2004) assert that the educational sector of the Nigeria economy has been bedevilled by series of challenges that has hitherto poses the great limitations to the actualizations of the cardinal goals and objectives for educational programmes. Obasanjo (2012) opined that At present, our education environment and the outlook for education in Nigeria are bedevilled with many problems, some of which appear intractable and are like recurring decimals. However, below are the challenges of Education in National Development:

Inadequate Funding of Tertiary Institutions by the Federal Government:

With the continuous increase in the population of students in tertiary institutions, it is obvious that the facilities needed for educational programmes in schools have increased over the years bringing about a drastic Increase in the course of providing a befitting education: for the Nigerian child. The funding of education is the responsibility of the government and the Nigerian government have embarked on strategic initiative to actualize
the accomplishment of their societal need but the effort of the government have indeed yielded little or no result in bringing the Nigerian educational system to lime light. There is a gross inadequacy of educational funds required in the provision of educational infrastructures and facilities. Enormous fund is required in the refurbishment of dilapidated institutional infrastructure. With the advent of global and modern educational challenge the task of funding education in Nigeria is fast becoming unrealistic with insurmountable complexities. There has been shortage of funds for the implementation of educational policies and programmes thus making the Nigerian educational system incapable of meeting the challenges and demand of the 21st century. With the down of the millennia dispensation and the natural resource with which Nigeria is greatly endowed it is hoped that in the near future the aforementioned problem would be a thing of the past. Olekede,(2004).

Shortage of manpower requirement:

The shortage of manpower need an expertise in educational institution across the country has been one major set back an the Nigerian educational system there is shortage in the number of professional teachers. The technical schools and colleges as well as universities brought about inadequate training of professional graduates in the tertiary institution.

CONCLUSION

In taking up Nigeria’s serious developmental challenges in education, our leaders must first acknowledge the need to develop a coherent policy that will promote self reliance; a visionary policy that identifies and highlights core national values that becomes standard irreducible courses in our institutions. Our education must go beyond mere literacy to take up the challenges of research and development in the modern world. Our education planners must constantly advocate for adequate budgetary allocations for equipping our schools with men and materials enough to meet the UNESCO’s minimum national budgetary level of 25% for education. Our Education planners must set up quality standard education (www.georgeehusani.org).

In conclusion therefore, one would be right to say that education is the bedrock and building blocks for societal transformation and for the sustenance of any meaningful development. Education is the sustaining base of world political and social economy progress. It is hoped that in the near future education will bring greater technological and scientific transformation to the Nigerian nation. With this optimism education will gain a wider acceptance to the generality and to the Nigerian people.

Recommendations:

The conclusive policy recommendations for this paper research are as follows:

1. The government school enforce the implementation of the policies of universal basic education programme.

2. The government should embark on a strategic reform on the funding of tertiary institutions

3. The government should embark on sponsorship of individuals who may wish to embark on educational programmes.
4. The government should shoulder sponsorship of tertiary education in Nigeria in order to ensure the massive production of skilled labour force in Nigeria.

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Uwadia Orobosa on January 21, 2010 at 1:12pm

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EFFECT OF NUTRITION EDUCATION PROGRAMME ON FOOD-RELATED-KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES OF LITERATE WOMEN IN PANKSHIN COMMUNITY, NIGERIA

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Abstract

The study investigated the effect of nutrition education programme on food-related knowledge and attitudes of literate women in Pankshin community. The non-randomized control group pretest posttest quasi-experimental design was employed for the study. The instruments for data collection were a self developed 53 items nutritional knowledge and attitude questionnaire (NKAQ) and 24 content 12 weeks unit plans. The findings of the study showed that there was statistical significant difference between the mean scores of the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to nutrition education programme (NEP) and those not exposed to NEP. There was statistical significant difference between the mean scores of the nutritional attitudes of the women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP. Level of education has no significant influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women. Age has no significant influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women. Based on these findings, suggestions were proffered on ways to curtail the problems of nutritional disorders

Key words: Effect, nutrition education programme, knowledge and attitudes

Introduction

Nutrition education is one of the effective intervention strategies for bringing about nutritional knowledge, attitudinal and behavioral change in the individual. Nutrition education is one of the effective means of alerting of individuals particularly women and communities of the need for nutrition improvement. It is the step towards improving food habits (Devadas, Chandrasekhar & Vasamthanmani, 1975).

National food and nutrition policy in developed and developing countries on realizing the increasing rate of nutritional disorders emphasize the improvement of the quality of its citizens by striving to stimulate and sustain the production and consumption of more nutritious foods, promote proper food habits and healthy life-styles, reduce the prevalence of protein energy malnutrition (PEM), reduce the prevalence of micronutrient deficiency particularly vitamin A; iron and iodine among vulnerable groups, reduce overconsumption of certain nutrients particularly fats, sodium, and alcohol (Stuart & Acherbergh, 2004). Consequent upon this policy, nutrition education programmes are now recognized as the primary form of intervention in national food and nutrition programme.

The ultimate goal of nutrition education according to leverton (1974), is to aid individual to effectively apply nutritional knowledge, attitudes beliefs and practices and modify their diets. In line with leverton's submission, lewis (1976) posited that the goal of nutrition education is to produce nutritionally sound decision makers who are motivated, knowledgeable, skilled and willing to choose proper nutrition alternative. A well planned and well delivered nutrition education programme targeted at women may produce women who
are motivated, knowledgeable, and skilled and who can be empowered to make informed decisions on nutritional issues.

Women should be the important target group in any nutrition education programmes because the maintenance of adequate health particularly of infants and children is a critical maternal role. This is because women are a crucial link between the family and the health care system and in addition, they produce, prepare and serve food and maintain the environment. Similarly, women are the household food securities in many communities (United Nation Children Fund, 1995). This justifies the choice of women as the primary target group for the present study.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to determine the effect of nutrition education programme on food-related knowledge and attitudes of women in Pankshin community. Specifically, the objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine the effect of nutrition education programme (NEP) on the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP in Pankshin community.
2. Ascertain the effect of NEP on the nutritional attitudes of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP in Pankshin community.
3. Determine the influence of level of education on the nutritional attitudes of women in Pankshin community.
4. Ascertain the influence of age on the nutritional attitudes of women in Pankshin community.

**Research Questions**

To guide the study, the following research questions were posed:

1. What is the effect of nutrition education programme (NEP) on the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to nutrition education programme (NEP) and those not exposed to NEP in Pankshin community?
2. Is there any effect of NEP on the nutritional attitudes of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP in Pankshin community?

**Hypotheses**

The following null hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance.

1. There is no statistical significant difference in the effect of NEP on the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP in Pankshin community.
2. There is no statistical significant difference in the effect of NEP on the nutritional attitudes of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP in Pankshin community.
3. There is no statistical significant difference in the influence of level of education on the nutrition attitudes of women in Pankshin community.
4. There is no statistical significant difference in the influence of age on nutritional attitude of women in Pankshin community.
Methods

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, the quasi-experimental design was employed. Specially, the non-randomized pre-test post-test design or non-equivalent design was adopted in this study. The short hand notation of the non-equivalent design has been presented by Fisher, laing, Stockel and Townsend (1998) thus:

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
 0_1 & x & 0_3 \\
 0_2 & 0_4 \\
\end{array}
\]

The population for the study consisted only literate women in Pankshin community. The sample for the study at the initial stage consisted of only 181 literate women. Of the 181 literate women who constituted the sample frame, 15 of them did not continue the nutrition education lessons and therefore dropped out leaving 166 participants. The remaining 166 literate women formed the sample frame for the present study.

The researcher randomly selected two sub-communities namely new lay-out and Yimtul. Out of the two sub-communities that were selected one (New lay-out) was assigned to the experimental group and the other (Yimtul) was assigned to the control group. These two sub-communities were far apart from each others so as to avoid interactions which could be a threat to the study.

A 72 item nutritional knowledge and attitude questionnaire (NKAQ) was categorized into three sections - A B and C. Section A contained two socio-demographic variables - age and level of education. Section B contained items with response options of true or false which measured the nutritional knowledge of women. Section C contained items with response options of strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree which measured nutritional attitudes of the women.

The face and content validity of the instruments were obtained through the judgment of five experts from the University of Nigeria Nsukka. Based on the inputs, corrections and suggestions made by the experts, the final copy of the questionnaire and the contents of the planned NEP were produced. A reliability index of .75 of the instrument was established using test-retest method.

The participants were pre-tested using nutritional knowledge and nutritional attitudes scores questionnaire. This instrument was administered to the women with the assistance of three trained research assistants and the scores were recorded before the treatment started.

Women or participants assigned to the experimental group were taught for a period of 12 weeks using the planned component of NEP while the participants in the control group were taught not using the same content of NEP; rather they were taught using the content or components of personal health.

At the end of the 12th week after the subjects in the experimental group had been treated the researcher and the three trained research assistants distributed the same developed copies of the questionnaire forms to the subjects both in the experimental and control groups. The filled copies of the questionnaire forms were collected back on the spot, recorded and used for the study.
Results

The findings of the study are presented below according to the research questions and hypotheses posed.

Table 1

**Effect of NEP on the Nutritional Knowledge of Women Exposed to NEP and Those not Exposed to NEP in Pankshin Community**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pretest $\overline{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Posttest $\overline{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>16.47</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>22.48</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>15.68</td>
<td>4.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 reveals that the posttest of the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to NEP ($\overline{x}$ = 22.48) is higher than the posttest of the women not exposed to NEP ($\overline{x}$ = 15.68). This represents a 6.8 mean gain score which is attributed to the effect of NEP on the nutritional knowledge of the women exposed to NEP. Furthermore, the table reveals that the mean score of the posttest of the women exposed to NEP is higher than the mean score of the same experimental group when they were yet to be exposed to NEP (pretest $\overline{x}$ = 16.47 < posttest $\overline{x}$ = 22.48). The 6.01 mean score differential is consequent upon the effect of NEP on the nutritional knowledge of the women exposed to NEP.

Table 2

**Effect of NEP on the Nutritional Attitudes of Women Exposed to NEP and Those Not Exposed to NEP in Pankshin Community**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Pretest $\overline{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Posttest $\overline{x}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>37.18</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>45.36</td>
<td>5.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>35.24</td>
<td>7.82</td>
<td>36.36</td>
<td>7.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates that the grant posttest of the nutritional attitudes of women exposed to NEP is higher than the posttest of the women not exposed to NEP (Experimental $\overline{x}$ = 45.36 > control $\overline{x}$ = 36.36). This represents a 9 mean gain score which is adduced to the effects of NEP. In the same vein, the table shows that the posttest mean score of the women exposed to NEP is higher than the mean score of the same group of women when they were yet to be exposed to NEP (posttest $\overline{x}$ = 45.36 > pretest $\overline{x}$ = 37.18). The 8.18 mean score
differential indicates NEP’s effect on the nutritional attitudes of the women exposed to NEP.

Table 3

Summary of ANCOVA Difference Between the Mean Score of the Nutritional Knowledge of Women Exposed to NEP and Those not Exposed to NEP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
<th>F.cal</th>
<th>F tab</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Covariates</td>
<td>141.551</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>141.551</td>
<td>9.344</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>141.551</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>141.551</td>
<td>9.344</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main effect</td>
<td>1481.926</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1481.926</td>
<td>97.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>1481.926</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1481.926</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>97.82</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explained</td>
<td>2037.916</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1018.958</td>
<td>67.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>2469.289</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>15.149</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4057.205</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>27.316</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result in table 3 show that the F calculated value of 97.82 with 1 and 165 degrees of freedom is greater than the F table value of 3.84 at .05 level of significance (F cal. = 97.82 > F-tab = 3.84, P>.05). This implies that there was significant difference between the mean scores of the nutritional knowledge of the women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP. The difference observed was not in fact due to chance, but the effect of the NEP on the nutritional knowledge of the women exposed to NEP.

Table 4

Summary of ANCOVA Difference Between the Mean Score of the Nutritional Attitude of Women Exposed to NEP and Those not Exposed to NEP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
<th>F.cal</th>
<th>F tab</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Covariates</td>
<td>172.905</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>172.905</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>172.905</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>172.905</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main effect</td>
<td>3175.265</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3175.265</td>
<td>74.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>3175.265</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3175.265</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>74.11</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>Rejected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explained</td>
<td>3498.352</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1749.176</td>
<td>40.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>6983.678</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>42.845</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10482.030</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>63.527</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results in Table 4 show that the F-calculated value of 74.11 with 1 and 165 degrees of freedom is greater than the F table value of .05 level of significance (F-cal. 74.11 > F tab. = 3.84, p > .05). This implies that there was significant difference between the mean scores of the nutritional attitudes of the women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP. The difference observed was not in fact due to chance, but the effect of the NEP on the nutritional attitudes of the women exposed to NEP.

### Table 5

**Summary of ANCOVA on the Difference in the Influence of Level of Education on the Nutritional Attitudes of Women in Pankshin Community**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
<th>F.cal</th>
<th>F tab</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Covariates</td>
<td>121.04</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.014</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>3156.315</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3156.315</td>
<td></td>
<td>77.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>172.788</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>86.394</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group + level of Education</td>
<td>332.886</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>166.443</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>6455.718</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>40.602</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>294387.00</td>
<td>166</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>10482.030</td>
<td>165</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 reveals that the calculated F value of 2.12 with 2 and 164 degrees of freedom is less than the F critical value of 3.00 at 0.5 level of significance (cal. F = 2.12 < Tab. F = 3.00 p > .05). This means that level of education has no statistical significant influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women.

### Table 6

**Summary of ANCOVA on the Difference in the Influence of Age on Nutritional Attitudes of Women in Pankshin Community**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
<th>F.cal</th>
<th>F tab</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Covariates</td>
<td>151.406</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>151.406</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>2951.336</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2951.336</td>
<td></td>
<td>68.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>115.378</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>57.689</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

115
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group + Age</th>
<th>24.630</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>12.315</th>
<th>.28</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>6848.679</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>43.073</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>294387.000</td>
<td>166</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>10482.030</td>
<td>165</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in table 6 indicate that the calculated F value 1.33 with 2 and 164 degree of freedom is less than the table F. value of 3.00 at .05 level of significance (cal. F=1.33<tab-F=3.00,p<.05). This implies that age had no statistical significant influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women.

Discussion

The finding that there was difference between the mean scores of the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP is heart warming. This is because the NEP which aimed at imparting nutritional knowledge to the women exposed to the programme had indeed promoted their knowledge. This implies that the NEP produced positive effect on the nutritional knowledge of the women exposed to it. This finding lends credence to the findings of Ezealigo (2000) who found that after a nutrition education programme for mothers of childbearing age the nutritional knowledge rose to 90.8 per cent representing a 10.5 percent increase in the nutritional knowledge of the subjects. This was evidenced in various aspects of the NEP such as food hygiene, purchasing of food and food selection. The finding also corresponds with the study of Samuel (2000) who found that students in the experimental group performed better in nutritional knowledge test than the students in the experimental group after introducing nutritional teaching guide. In the same vein, the finding corroborates the study of Okpoko (2001) and Glassauer et-al. (2003) each of who found that there was greater gain scores in nutritional knowledge after exposing their subjects to nutrition and health education project.

The finding that there was significant difference in the mean scores of the nutritional attitudes of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP implies that NEP played a pivotal role in promoting positive nutritional attitude of the women exposed to it. This finding corroborates the findings of Samuel (2000) who found that the posttest nutrition attitudinal scores for experimental group was higher than the posttest mean attitudinal scores for control group. The finding further supports the finding of Glassauer et al (2003) who found that after school Health and Nutritional project, the impact of the project influenced schools which implemented a wide range of nutrition education and other health promotion activities, and the final evaluation indeed was significant improvement in nutritional attitudes and behaviors of the participants.

The finding that NEP had promoted knowledge and positive effect of nutritional attitude of the women exposed it is a good reason for the inclusion of nutrition education programme in the nations (Nigeria) curricula in both the three tiers of education. The teaching approach of nutrition education should be devoid of passing mere information but it should be practical orientated such that it can touch the three domains of learning- psychomotor, cognitive and effective.

The finding that level of education had no significant influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women was not expected because the level of education of the women is supposed to exert positive nutritional influence on them. Interestingly, this finding corroborates that of
Ogunsina and Emapkae (2003) who found that level of education had no statistical influence on the nutritional attitudes of their subjects. On the other hand, the finding negates the studies of Schumulas, Wooldcot and Esler (1984) who found that mothers with high level of education possessed positive nutritional attitudes.

The finding that age had influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women was surprising and unexpected. Age is expected to go with experience which can positively influence nutritional attitude of the women. This finding agrees with that of Beaver, Kelley and Flenners (1982) whose findings revealed that age had no statistical significant influence on the nutritional attitudes of their subjects. However, the finding is at variance with Gudam’s (2002) who found statistical difference in the influence of age on the nutritional behaviors of his subjects.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

Based on the finding of the study, it is concluded that there was significant difference between the mean scores of the nutritional knowledge of women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP. NEP had positive effect on the nutritional knowledge of the women exposed to NEP. There was significant difference between the mean scores of the nutritional attitudes of the women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP. The difference observed on the nutritional knowledge and nutritional attitudes of the women exposed to NEP and those not exposed to NEP, is not in fact due to chance, but the effect of NEP. Level of education had no statistical influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women. Age had no statistical influence on the nutritional attitudes of the women.

Based on the findings of the study, the following are recommended:

1. Federal and state ministry of education should introduce the teaching of nutrition education at the three tiers of education. It is believed that what the students learnt related to nutrition education can be applied in their life time.
2. The positive effect of NEP in the improvement of nutrition knowledge, attitudes and practices should be used as a weapon by health educators, nutritionist, home economist and dietitians to convince the federal, state, local governments and non-governmental agencies to see the need for sponsoring NEP projects in community settings, school setting and work place. This would go a long way in enhancing positive nutrition behavioral change.
3. People should develop positive nutritional life styles. This can go a long way in promoting the nutritional status of the citizens.

**References**


Ezealigo, A.I. (2000). *Effect of nutrition education programme on mothers of childbearing age at University of Nigeria, Nsukka Teaching Hospital, Enugu State. Unpublished*


MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISES THROUGH PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

Collaboration with corporations, small businesses, non-governmental organizations and civil society organizations to provide socially beneficial goods and services. Public enterprises and the private sector cooperate in providing services and infrastructure through a variety of mechanisms. The level of performance and development of public enterprise in the country are very low due to corruption, management inefficiencies, overstaffing and inflation. This paper therefore intend to highlight the different mechanisms of public private partnership (PPPs) in the management of public enterprise including concessions, build-operate-and-transfer (BOT) arrangement, joint ventures and informal and voluntary cooperation as applied in some Latin American and Asian countries. The paper recommends that the government should clearly identify goals and objectives of public private partnerships and embody them in an official set of laws, develop strategy for management plan for public private partnerships and create employment protection measures for current government employees in organization that will go in to public private partnerships.

Key words: Management, Public Enterprises (PEs), Public Private Partnership

INTRODUCTION

Since the 1930s and particularly after World War II, numerous state owned enterprises (SOEs) also called public enterprises (PEs). Were created in both developed and developing countries to address market deficits and capital shortfalls promote economic development, reduce mass unemployment and ensure national control over the overall direction of the economy, especially in developing countries.

By providing capital and technology to strategic areas where the private sector either shied away from or lacked the capacity to invest (such as heavy industries, infrastructure etc), most governments resorted to PEs to increase capital formation, produce essential goods at lower cost create employment and generally contribute to the economic development of the nation state.

However, rising corruption, management inefficiencies over staffing (without due regard to their economic viability many government treated PEs as easy conduits for job creation and convenient vehicle for patronage distribution). Inflation and rising current account deficits of the 1980s exposed serious government failures and limits of public enterprise as major players in economic development many public enterprises also suffered from technological short comings imported through foreign aid or soft loans from abroad. Many of the public enterprises where either equipped with low or second grade machineries contributing to low capital output Ratio, or were established without due regard to their economic and financial sustainability.
As a result of these failures, reforms of public enterprises were undertaken in the 80s and 90s, with the vital support of multilateral financial institutions. The collapse of the Soviet Union also removed ideological and political barriers that hindered capitalist/market oriented reforms. Among the reforms alternatives available to government are:-

1. Internal Management and Governance Reform
2. Commercialization or Marketilization
3. Outsourcing or Contracting Out
4. Public Private Partnership
5. Privatization or Liquidation

MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISES

Public enterprise can be considered as an organization established by the government under public private law as a legal personality which is autonomous or semi-autonomous produces/provides goods and services on a full or partial self – financing basis, and which the government or public body or agency participate by way of having shares or representation in its decision making structure the railways, post office are completely state owned, steel industry, electricity generations, fertilizer production etc. are owned by government also by joint stock companies.

According to Bureau of Public Enterprises (BPE) Nigeria (2000). The reasons for the establishment of PEs are as follows:-

1. Shortage of local capital for expansion and technological improvements
2. Control of commanding height by government to prevent a few elite enriching themselves at the expense of majority of Nigerians.
3. Correction of market failure resulting from monopoly and misallocation of public resources
4. Facilitating regional development through location of PEs and their branches
5. Job creation and provision of social services.

TYPES OF PUBLIC ENTERPRISE AND THEIR MANAGEMENT

They are three types of public enterprise.

1. Government Departmental Organization
2. Public Corporations
3. Government Companies

1. Government Department Organization: The enterprises are organized like any other government departments. These are manage in two ways
   i. Management through concerned ministry: It is managed by the officials of the government under the charge of the secretary of the ministry concerned. The examples are post office, railways, defense industries, broadcasting etc.
   ii. Management by Inter-department committee or board in some organizations cooperation is required from several ministries. Therefore a board or committee of representative from concern ministry is formed so that cooperation, consultation and quick decisions may be taken.

2. Public Corporation: A public corporation is wholly owned by the government centre or state. It is established usually by a special act of the parliament with internal autonomy.
Special statute also prescribes its management pattern, powers, duties and jurisdictions. Though the total capital is provided by the government, they have separate entity and enjoy independence in matters related to appointments, promotion etc. these corporations have no profit motive and work for maximization of social welfare.

3. Government Companies: A state enterprises can also be organized in the form of a joint stock company under companies Act. A government company in which not more than 51% of the share capital is held by the central or any state government and partly by the central government and partly by one or more state governments. This form of enterprises is becoming very popular in recent times. It is created by an executive and not a legislative decision and is managed by elected board of directors which may include private individuals.

MANAGEMENT OF PEs THROUGH PUBLIC – PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS

Public Private Partnerships: Is the improvement of the management of PEs through collaborations with corporations, small business, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) and civil society organizations to provide socially beneficial goods and services. Public enterprises and the private sector cooperate in providing services and infrastructure through a variety of mechanisms including concessions, build – operate and transfer (BOTs) arrangements, joint ventures and informal and voluntary cooperation. Public private partnerships allow or encourage domestic and foreign owned business, community groups cooperatives, private voluntary associations, small enterprises and other non – governmental organizations (NGOs) to offer social services.

In some countries PPPs are an intermediate in privatizing SOEs or an alternative to privatization. Joint ventures are one means by which public enterprises work with the private sector through mergers, partial acquisitions of state won enterprises (retaining some share of the stock in profitable or politically strategic enterprises) or joint ownership by government and private investors.

In Oman, for example, the government developed a joint venture between Omani public and private enterprises and sea land to expand and maintain its salalah container shipping port. In 2002, the municipality of Ajman in the United Arab Emirates formed a joint ownership joint venture the Ajman sewerage company with other companies, to invest and $100 million in a waste water network that will deliver service to 300,000 people in the emirate. The government granted the joint venture 27 – year’s concession in which the company will recover its costs by levying tariffs for service to be paid by customers. China has used joint ventures between foreign investors and state enterprises to obtain foreign technology investors and state enterprises to obtain foreign technology and capital, learn foreign management and marketing techniques, increase foreign exchange generating capacity, and promote joint research and development project.

Government around the world use turnkey projects with consortia of private companies to build telecommunications, transport, shipping, airport, utility and water and sewerage infrastructure. Governments in countries with both advanced and developing economies use build operate transfer (BOT) agreements in which they buy or lease completed facilities constructed by private investors after the companies have recouped their investment and a reasonable return by operating the facilities for an agreed – upon period of time.

The government of South Korea, for example used a BOT arrangement to develop and operate the Seu/Beltway and daegu Pusan highway as toll roads. It gave the Pusan Newport
company sponsored by Samsung Corporation, CSX world terminals, and local Korean contracting companies a 50-year secured concessions to develop a $900 million Pusan port expansion project using the PPP approach. The private infrastructure investment of Korea (PICKO) organization sought financing and participation from private firm around the world in constructing, financing and operating infrastructure in Korea BOT or build operate – own (BOO) arrangements have also been used extensively in Malaysia and Turkey to build telecommunication systems, highways, utilities and water supply systems, and operate them under a concession from the government. Debt financing is usually highly leveraged and the private consortium takes a small equity position. The consortium usually seeks loans from international financing agencies and commercial banks using future revenues from the projects to repay them.

Another approach, a build operate – own transfer (BOOT) arrangement, has been used to construct and operate independent power plants in China (Shajiao project) and Pakistan (Hab River project) as well as in Dominican Republic and Costa Rica. These projects usually involve limited resources financing in which capital is raised on the basis of cash flows and not on the collateral of project owners. Although they offer government in developing countries important means of expanding services and infrastructure and the private sector commercial opportunities to expand their businesses, public – private partnerships are complex arrangements and can create potential problems for both the public and the private sectors if they are not properly designed and administered.

They often displace public workers, thereby generating political opposition among public officials, labor unions and public employee associations. If PPPs are not well designed and supervised their services can become more expensive than those provided by government. Poorly designed and inadequate analyzed projects have failed in both rich and poor countries. Corruptions undermine public trust in PPPs if the contracting process is not transparent and carefully supervised. Lack of sufficient competition can turn PPPs into private state own enterprises. Overly restricting concessions or creating too many can deprive PPPs of economics of scale. If government regulation is too stringent it can lead to deficiencies of service provision and if it is too lax it may not hold private service providers sufficiently accountable. The cost of contract management can be substantial. In all cases, governments’ must compare carefully the cost of contracting out with the costs of providing services directly. The involvement of the private sector or providing service that were formally free or that were subsidized by the government can increase their price and place poor segments of the population at a significant disadvantage.

ROLES OF GOVERNMENT

Experience suggests that in order to be effective governments must take the following actions to manage public – private partnerships.

1. Clearly identify goals and objective of public private partnerships and embody them in an official set of laws
2. Develops strategic management plan for PPPs
3. Create an effective PPPs agency
4. Select appropriate methods of PPPs
5. Develop clear and transparent PPPs procedure
6. Apply appropriate assessment and valuation methods
7. Create effective financial structures for private sector participation
8. Establish an effective system of government supervision and regulation especially for natural monopolies.
9. Help strengthen private sector management capacity.
10. Create employment protection measures for current government employees in organization that will go to PPPs.

**Recommendations**

In order to achieve an efficient management of public enterprises through public private partnership in Nigeria, the following recommendation should be considered:

(i) There is the need to implement with seriousness, the reforms of public enterprises through Public Private Partnership.

(ii) There is a need to formulate a comprehensive National implementation framework for Public Private Partnership in a timely, transparent and proactive manner.

**References**


RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS AND THE PERFORMANCE OF TEACHER EDUCATORS

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Abuja-Nigeria

ABSTRACT
The study investigates the relationship between demographic factors on the performance of teacher educators in the FCT. Samples were drawn from teacher educators in the FCT, and a population of 111 staff were used. Data collected were statistically analyzed using single percentages and T-test. Result of the study revealed that overall mean rating on performance of teacher educator toward theirs job is low as indicated by the total grand score of 2.906. Significant differences shows an increase in performance on the basis of age group (46-55 years). Working experience (6 years and above) and educational qualification, indicates that staff with Masters/Phd are more active in carrying out their jobs with a mean of 3.039. It was recommended among others that the government should make efforts to listen to teachers need for training as well as adequate provision for physical infrastructures that will facilitate motivation thereby increasing performance.

INTRODUCTION
It is believed that no nation can grow beyond the quality of the teachers, a strong-case, now widely recognized, that investing in the education of youth is a critical input for further development which has cluster of more interrelated benefits. In order words education is the bedrock of development of a nation, a tool for securing, a tool which offers solution to challenges related to all areas/aspects of life. This means that teacher educator must be motivated in order to enable them teach and train the further generation.

In a study of teacher motivation, Spuck (1984), indicated that non-material rewards such as social environment, a sense of accomplishment and self-expression are related to job performance. Loitie (1975), on the other hand identified internal satisfaction or psychic rewards as the most powerful reward available to school teachers. It is therefore assumed that to avoid dissatisfaction of teacher educators in the classrooms, a combination of intrinsic rewards, and motivational forces/packages need to be put in place such as being able such as being able to grow personally and professionally. According to Deng (2010), “education is the aggregate of all the continuous and ongoing processes by which a child is enabled to develop the abilities, attitudes, social and occupational competences and other forms of behavior which are a positive value to him/her and the society in which he lives”.

As a key to national development, this teacher educators are the pivot on which any educational development program must depend on for the purpose of this paper, the teacher educators are the teacher found in all educational institutions.

Hertzberg (1959), agreed with the theory of hygiene factors and motivators, which confirmed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction on the job are caused by different factors, which invariably will affect performance.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
* To access the effect of demographic factors on the job performance of teacher educators in the FCT.
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
This study will be of great benefit to the management of FCT ministry of education, employees of labour and the nation as a whole. It is believed that motivation affects performance hence when taken into proper consideration, will result in an increase in performance.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
What are the effect of the following on job performance of teacher educator in the FCT, (i). Gender (ii). Age (iii). Work experience and (iv). Educational qualification.

METHODOLOGY
The study presented the description using simple percentages and T-test statistics.

Research Design: A survey design involving age, gender, experience and educational qualification as moderating variables.

Sampling Techniques: The sample consist randomly selected samples of one hundred and eleven (111) teacher educators composing both male and female staff.

Instrumentation: The questionnaire method was used to guide the perception of each teacher educator. Responses were scored using five point Likert Scales (1932).

Validity and Reliability: A pilot study using randomly selected samples from the teacher educators was carried out. The split half method was use to arrive at the co-efficient of reliability of 0.63 was obtained. This can be interpreted as reliable and can be used.

ANALYSIS OF DATA
Table 4.1 Characteristics of samples on the basis of bio-data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gender:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Age Group:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25-35 years</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36-45 years</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-55 years</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No Responses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Designation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Graduate Assistant</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lecturer I</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 Experience:

6 years plus  15  13.5
3-5 years  87  78.4
2 years plus  7  6.3
No response  2  1.8

Total  100

5 Qualification

HND/BA/BAED/PGDE  63  56.8
MASTERS/PhD  48  43.2=100

In table 4.1 under gender, it was observed that out of the 111 respondents 69 (62.2%) of the total size were male, while 41 (36%) were female staff. With 1 (.9%) no response.

On the basis of age group, 27 (24.3%) are within the age bracket of (25-35) years 67 (60.4%) belong to the age group of between 36-45 years, while 16 (14.4%) belonged to the age group of 46-55. 1 (.9%) however had no response.

The distribution of qualification also revealed that the academic staff with HND, BA, B.Ed/Pgde had a total of 63 (56.8%) of the sample belong to staff with degree certificates or the equivalent while 48 (43.2%) of the population had masters and Phd certificates.

In terms of working experiences, it is shown that 15(13.5%) had spent 6 years and above with the college, 87 (78.4%) has spent between 3-5 years while 7 (63.3%) had been with the college for 2 years and above. The remaining 2(1.8%) respondents didn’t respond.

From the statistics gathered, 43 (38.7%) of the respondents are graduate assistants 16 (14.4%) lecturer I and 24 (21.6%) belonged to lecturer II cadre. Also on job designation, 16 (14.4%) belonged to lecturer III, 7 (6.3%) for the senior lecturers and 1 (.9%) belonged to chief lecturers. However 4 (3.6%) had no response.

DATA ANALYSIS

Are there differences in the overall mean ratings of performance of the teacher educator on the basis of gender?
Table 4.2 Mean ratings of performance of the teacher educator on the basis of gender groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Gender Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\sum \bar{X}$</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>199.1565</td>
<td>2.886327</td>
<td>.5743383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>120.9153</td>
<td>2.94153</td>
<td>.6200370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>320.0718</td>
<td>2.909744</td>
<td>.5897452</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of table 4.2 show means rate of 2.886 for the male academic staff and mean rate of 2.941 for the female staff respondents. The total sum rate of 2.909 proved that both gender groups have low performance.

Are there variations on the overall mean ratings of performance of the teacher educator on the basis of age group categories?

Table 4.3 Responses of the mean rating of performance of the teacher educator on the basis of age group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\sum \bar{X}$</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>25 – 35 yrs</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>71.4624</td>
<td>2.646754</td>
<td>.6645523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>36 – 45 yrs</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>201.4236</td>
<td>2.962112</td>
<td>.5570193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>46-55 yrs</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.7897</td>
<td>3.119313</td>
<td>.4809729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>319.6757</td>
<td>2.906143</td>
<td>.5921540</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that academic staff within the age group of 46-55 years has the highest mean rate of 3.119 as compared to those within the age group of 36-45 years with a mean rate of 2.962 and 2.646 for academic staff within the age group of 25-35 years. The total mean rate of 2.906 indicates that the level of performance is low.

Are there variations in the overall ratings of performance of the teacher educator on the basis of job designation categories?

Table 4.4 Mean ratings of performance on teacher educator on the basis of job designation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Job designation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\sum \bar{X}$</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lecturer I and above</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>71.9962</td>
<td>2.999842</td>
<td>.4350842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lecturer II</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>71.5225</td>
<td>2.980116</td>
<td>.7447220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lecturer III</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>44.1718</td>
<td>2.760740</td>
<td>.4055331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>121.8342</td>
<td>2.833353</td>
<td>.5414380</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Under job designation it was observed that the entire responses indicated low level of performance with an overall mean rate of 2.892. Teacher educators belonging to Lecturer 1 and above had mean rate of 2.999 followed by mean rate of 2.980 for lecturer II category and a mean rate of 2.760 for teacher educators in the lecturer III category. Those belonging to the graduate assistant category had mean rate of 2.833. The total mean shows low level of performance.

Are there variations in the mean ratings of performance in the teacher educator on the basis of working experiences categories?

Table 4.5 Responses of mean ratings of performance of the teacher educators on the basis of work experiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Working Experiences</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>∑</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6 years plus</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>46.3315</td>
<td>3.088766</td>
<td>.5992724</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 – 5 years</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>251.1346</td>
<td>2.886694</td>
<td>.5802166</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19.1802</td>
<td>2.740033</td>
<td>.7427077</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>109</td>
<td>316.6463</td>
<td>2.905012</td>
<td>.593957</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table shows that teacher educators with 6 years plus in the organization recorded the highest mean rate of 3.088 as against staff who had spent 3-5 years with a mean rate of 2.886. 2.740 for staff with 2 years and above. The total mean of 2.905 was arrived at which also indicate low performance.

Are there differences in the mean ratings of performance of the teacher educators on the basis of educational qualification?

Table 4.6 Responses of mean ratings of performance of the on the basis of educational qualification.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Educational qualification</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>∑</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>HND/BA/BAED/PGDE</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>176.4710</td>
<td>2.801127</td>
<td>.5919731</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Master/PhDs</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>145.9190</td>
<td>3.039978</td>
<td>.5644790</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>111</td>
<td>322.3900</td>
<td>2.904414</td>
<td>.5897374</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The variable under these category were divided into 2, the highest belonging to teacher educator with Master/Phd degrees with mean rate of 3.039 and staff with HND/BA, B.Ed/Pgde, had mean rate 2.801. The overall total mean of 2.904 was arrived at. These
results agree with the general concept of proper training. Hence, staff with higher degrees are more motivated to work as well as give better performance.

CONCLUSION
From the result of this research, it can be concluded that a significant relationship exist between the demographic factors and job performance. The result also showed that teacher educators within 45 years and above, those with higher degrees and staff who had spent many years expressed higher level of satisfaction towards their jobs, leading to a higher level of performance.

RECOMMENDATION
The finding of this study have show that demographic factors have significant effect on job performance while staff performs and succeeds, the performance and success can be attributed to the level of motivational tool provided.

All institutions should inculcate better systems of reward for hard work aside from staff promotion, they should also institute an animal staff merit award in respect of good conduct and performance to deserving staff.

Adequate physical tools and instructional facilities should be provided in all fields to promote the art of teaching and improving the work-environment.

The federal government should also make adequate provision for training and re-training of the teaching force in order to meet the challenges of the era of globalization.

Proper educational/ supervisory and monitoring bodies should strictly supervise and monitor the establishment and activities of teacher training. This will help to sustain professionalism in the act of teaching.

REFERENCES


Abstract

Managing human resources in public secondary schools is of great importance in the attainment of quality education delivery. The quality and quantity of human resources available will determine how the process-output will enhance continual growth in the educational system, since human resources organizes and coordinates other factors. This study examined human resource management strategies that enhances quality education delivery in public secondary schools in Rivers State.

Introduction

An organization exists for the purpose of creation of product(s) or providing services to clients or customers. The existence of any organization is centered on its workforce, which is the human resource. In a school system, human resource include the principal, vice principal, teachers, non academic staff and students. Human resources are the driving force in the school system, with the responsibility of making sure that goals and specific objectives are achieved in academics and extracurricular activities. Human resource management involves all management decisions and actions that affect the nature of the relationship between an organization and its employees. The decisions and actions according to Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1995) include; human resource planning, recruitment, selection, orientation, training and development, performance appraisal, and promotions, transfers, demotions and separations. Human resource management involves human resources needs, assisting in the design of work systems in terms of recruitment, selection, training development, counseling, motivation and rewarding employees, acting as liaison with unions and government organization and handling other matters of employees well-being.

For the activities of human resources management to be implemented effectively as to improve the quality of education, certain strategies are required of the human resource manager. These strategies according to Armstrong (2009) include: meeting the needs of employees for healthy, safe and supportive work environment, interpersonal relation between management and the employees, providing an environment in which employees are encouraged to learn and develop, attracting and retaining high quality people, continual reward for success, proper management of data, and planning and implementing of programmes designed to enhance the effectiveness with which organizations function and respond to change.

Quality education involves continual improvement in inputs, processes and outputs. These improvements are expected to includes: student enrolment, retention, gender ratio, student-teacher ratio, facilities, curriculum, assessment, training and development of students and teachers, improved result in external and internal examination, high moral standard, obedience to rules and regulations, etc. Improvement is expected to be total for quality to be achieved and that the school culture is required to be defined and supported by constant
attainment of students, improvement through integrated strategies. If there is evaluation of quality work during supervision, use of competent staff, dissemination of information to teachers and students, teamwork, proper guidance and counseling and new research and development to invigorate all educational activities, then quality will continually improve in the educational system. Also, the implementation of these strategies in terms of the development of the teachers and students, improvement of the curriculum, delegation of responsibilities to staff and students, inclusion of staff and students in decision making and orientation will enhance quality education in public secondary schools in Rivers State.

**Statement of the Problem**

The problem is that, how can human resource be managed to improve quality education delivery. The study seek to find out how human resources are recruited, are those recruited exposed to training? And are compensation packages adequate?

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to:
1. Assess the method(s) adopted for the recruitment of human resources in public secondary schools in Rivers State.
2. Determine the training programmes attended by human resources.
3. Identify the compensation packages for human resources.

**Research Question**

1. What are the methods adopted to recruit human resources in public secondary schools in Rivers State?
2. What training programmes for staff will minimize indiscipline in public secondary schools in Rivers State?
3. What compensation packages for staff will improve their personal needs?

**Methodology**

The design of this research was the descriptive survey. The population was made up of 274 principals and three thousand eight hundred sixty-five (3865) teachers in the public secondary schools, making a total of four thousand, one hundred and thirty-nine (4139). These principals and teachers were considered as the most suitable to respond in the items of the questionnaire, which was used for the research. The sample involved 2500 respondents from the population. This represents 60.4% of the total population.

**Results**

Frequencies, percentages and bar charts are used to present the responses. Series 1 represents strongly agree, series 2 agree, series 3 disagree and series 4 strongly disagree in the bar charts

**Research question 1:** What are the methods adopted to recruit human resource in public secondary schools in Rivers State?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Method(s) Adopted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 1: Frequency and percentage representation of the methods adopted to recruit human resource in public secondary schools.
### Figure 1: Frequency and percentage representation of the methods adopted to recruit human resource in public secondary schools.

Table 1 and figure 1 showed the frequency and percentage representation of respondents (principals and teachers) on the method adopted to recruit human resource in public secondary schools in Rivers State. Adequate publicity was not done to ensure that the most qualified teachers are recruited. Out of 2400 respondents, 107 (5%) strongly agreed, 577 (24%) agreed, 1394 (58%) disagreed and 322 (13%) strongly disagreed to the item. Consultants are given the task of selection to reduce the bureaucratic bottleneck, showed that 314 (13%) strongly agreed, 518 (22%) agreed, 1242 (51%) disagreed and 326 (14%) strongly disagreed. Teachers recruitment is conducted when principal make request in areas of need, indicated that 419 (17%) strongly agreed, 630 (26%) agreed, 1059 (44%) disagreed and 292 (13%) strongly disagreed. Recruitment of teachers are always kept in view after request from the principal for several years showed that 323 (13%) strongly agreed, 501 (29%) agreed, 1147 (48%) disagreed and 29 (18%) strongly disagreed to the item. Also, recruitment is not necessarily based on merit but equal representation from all the local Government Area showed that 401 (17%) strongly agreed, 425 (52%) agreed, 1265 (52%) disagreed and 309 (13%) strongly disagreed to the item. In conclusion, it is evident that recruitment of teachers are not done through adequate publicity and consultant are not effectively used in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Adequate publicity is done to ensure that the most qualified teachers are recruited</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>107</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>577</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>1394</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Consultants are given the task of selection to reduce the bureaucratic bottleneck</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1242</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teachers recruitment is conducted when principal make request in areas of need</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>1059</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Recruitment of teachers are always kept in view after request from the principal for several years</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1147</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Recruitment is not necessarily based on merit but equal representation from all the local Government Area</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1265</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Graph showing frequency and percentage representation of the methods adopted to recruit human resource in public secondary schools.](image-url)
the recruitment processes. Respondents are also of the view that principals’ request in the area of needs in terms of the human resources is not adequately addressed.

**Research question 2:** What training programmes for staff will minimize indiscipline in public secondary schools in Rivers State?

**Table 2: Frequency and percentage representation of training programmes for staff.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Training Programme</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Workshop are regularly organize for staff in the school</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1205</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Staff participate on computer-assisted instruction, in which computers are used to provide additional help to reduce instructional time</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>689</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>909</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Staff participate regularly in conferences</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1303</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>571</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Staff participate in in-house training</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1251</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Staff participation in in-service training have lead to cooperation among staff</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1222</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Frequency and percentage representation of training programmes for students and staff.

Table 2 and figure 2 showed the frequency and percentage representation of respondents (principals and teachers) on training programmes for staff. Out of 2400 respondents, 216(9%) strongly agreed, 523(22%) agreed, 1205 (50%) disagreed and 456(19%) strongly disagreed to workshop are regularly organize for staff in the school. 352 (14%) strongly agreed, 689(29%) agreed, 909(38%) disagreed and 450(19%) strongly disagreed that staff participate on computer-assisted instruction, in which computers are used to provide additional help to reduce instructional time. 162(7%) strongly agreed, 346(15%) agreed, 1303(54%) disagreed and 571(24%) strongly disagreed to staff participate regularly in conferences.294(12%) strongly agreed, 430(18%) agreed, 1251(52%) disagreed and 425(18%) strongly disagreed to staff participate in in-house training. 538(22%) strongly agreed,
1222 (51%) agreed, 430 (18%) disagreed and 210 (9%) strongly disagreed to staff participation in in-service training have lead to cooperation among staff.

In conclusion, it is evident that training programmes such as conferences, workshop, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and in-house training are not properly organized as at when due for staff.

**Research question 3: What compensation packages for staff will improve their personal needs?**

**Table 3 Frequency and percentage representation of compensation packages for staff.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Salaries are paid as at when due</td>
<td>562</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1361</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Promotions are regular</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1261</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Awards are given to individuals who perform</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>652</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1172</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Provision of incentive packages such as housing loans, subsidies, allowances</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1355</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>541</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Organizing recognition fun such as parties for staff, Christmas, Easter, Id-kabir etc.</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1358</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3: Frequency and percentage representation of compensation packages for staff.**

Table 3 and figure 3 showed the frequency and percentage on compensation packages for staff will improve their personal need. Out of 2400 respondents, 562 (23%) strongly agreed, 1361 (57%) agreed, 365 (15%) disagreed and 109 (5%) strongly disagreed to salaries are paid as at when due. 460 (19%) strongly agreed, 1261 (53%) agreed, 450 (19%) disagreed and 229 (9%) strongly disagreed to promotions are regular. 225 (9%) strongly agreed, 652 (27%) agreed, 1172 (49%) disagreed and 351 (15%) strongly disagreed to award are given to individuals who perform. 195 (8%) strongly agreed 309 (13%) agreed, 1355 (56%) disagreed and 541 (23%)
strongly disagreed to provision of incentive package. 228(10%) strongly agreed, 520(22%) agreed, 1358(57%) disagreed and 293(12%) strongly disagreed to organizing recognition fun for staff.

In conclusion, there are compensation packages such as regular payment of salaries and promotion, however, provision of incentives such as housing, loans, subsidies, allowances are not adequately provided. Also, award are not often given for hard work.

**Discussion of Findings**

The analysis in table I showed that the method of recruiting of teachers in public secondary schools in Rivers State has not yielded desired results. Most respondents (71%) were of the view that adequate publicity is not done in the recruitment processes of teachers. Even when principals make requests in areas were there are no teachers or teachers had been transferred, relevant authorities responsible for transfer or deployment of teachers have not acted faster so that those subjects would be taught. Rather such request are kept in view until when there is equal representation from all the local government areas in Rivers State at the expense of merit. However, Angelo and Brian (2008) are of the view that recruiting attracts job applicants from outside an organization.

Notice of job vacancies should be placed through newspapers, employment agencies, executive recruiting firms, union hiring halls, college job-placement offices, technical training schools and word of mouth through professional associations. They also posited that the internet should be used, i.e online application and that most hand written applications simply disappear from the shelves cabinets. But with the online application, such is not possible. Also, they are of the view that selection processes should not be based on one criterion (Local Government Area), rather applicants should be tested on ability test, performance test, and other tests such as personality test.

On the training programmes for staff; workshops, Information and Communication Technology(ICT),and conferences are not regular in public secondary schools in Rivers State. This is evident in the result where 69% of the sample are of the view that workshop is irregular. 57% disagreed that staff participate on computer-assisted instruction, in which computers are used to provide additional help to reduce instructional time. Briggs & Archibong as cited in Nosike, David, Nkasiobi and Opara(2011) reiterated that educational systems need to adopt new methods and formats that are suitable for present and future learners, that grasp and expand students low concentration span and provide them with interesting, up-to-date and engaging materials. These can be achieved through training. However, the Federal Ministry of Education is putting structures in place for the introduction of e-library in one hundred and four(104) unity colleges in the country, which have not been replicated in Rivers State Ministry of Education in the state-owned schools. 78% say conference participation by teachers is not regular. The importance of conference programs for teachers cannot be overemphasis, as they expose teachers and principals to the ideas of speakers, who are professionals. Conferences also include discussions, which is a two-way communication allowing participants to either contribute, seek for clarification or critic on topics, which are relevant to teaching and learning. Also teachers do not participate fully in in-house trainings, where teachers are trained through coaching. It is the responsibility of experienced teachers who have been exposed to several training programmes to inculcate appropriate methodology in content delivery and classroom management. Effective in-house training will develop the strengths and potentials of teachers, which will help them overcome their weaknesses. It will also, save time and money,
and will avoid costly mistakes by teachers in terms of teaching and learning. Angelo & Brian (2008) stated that many employees of any organization need to be schooled in knowledge as the requirement of their field change. Thus, in the long run, it will benefit the schools, principals, teachers and students, such that quality delivery will be enhanced continually. However, participation in in-service training is above 50%. The establishment of the Universal Basic Education program and the need to have inclusive education has led to the increase in enrollment of pupils and students. There is the need for government to approve in-service training with pay for teachers either full time, part time or sandwich program (during holidays). There is the need for teachers and principals to continually update their knowledge in modern teaching and learning techniques and the use of modern instructional materials. Approval should not be selective to only Mathematics and English language. The Federal Ministry of Education held a workshop recently on Capacity-Building for teachers of Mathematics and English language, using Inclusive Education Approach on April 28 to May 11, 2013 for unity schools. At the workshop, teachers were trained on the need to have an inclusion classroom where regular, gifted, hearing impaired, visually impaired, mentally impaired, speech and language impaired and orthopedically impaired learners are to learn together with a teacher. However, these trainings have not been given to public schools owned by the Rivers State Government, and the adverse effect on the quality of education is enormous. Also Ogunloye (2012) was of the view that educators should have a common set of role responsibilities through training that cuts across the different expectations. These role-responsibilities include knowledge, advocacy, public enlightenment, collaboration, knowledge of the curriculum, knowledge of learners, instructional planning, instructional delivery, working with parents and community.

From the findings, salaries are paid to teachers as at when due with 80% affirming, and teachers are promoted on a regular basis (three years interval). However, awards are not given to individuals who excel in their areas of specialization or in the performance of other duties assigned to them for which 64% of the respondents hold this view. Incentive packages such as housing loans, subsidies and allowances are either partially provided or not provided. Also, recognition fun which are nonmonetary forms of compensation designed to enrich the lives of all the teachers in the secondary schools such as Christmas parties, Easter parties, end of session parties organized by welfare association, eid-el-kabir etc, are not organized when necessary. To induce teachers to be more productive in terms of teaching and learning, school management should provide incentives such as bonus, hazard allowances, science allowance, housing scheme etc for teachers. Bureaucrat (2011) states that since the inception of the National Housing Fund, which was established by Decree No. 3 of 1992 now Act, no civil servant (teacher inclusive) has been granted loan to either build or buy his or her own house by the Federal Mortgage Bank of Nigeria (FMBN) which is legally authorized to administer the fund twenty (20) years after the scheme was introduced. The provision of shelter for teachers and other incentives is of great importance for the improvement of quality education. Some of these compensation packages serve as recreation. Parties are not organized for teachers by the management at the end of session, which is expected to bring together all teachers to unwind and relax. Little or no gift is given to the teachers by the school authorities at the end of the session to energize them to put in their best.

**Recommendations**
1. To enhance quality education, recruitment should be given adequate publicity so that qualified teachers will be aware, and recruitment agents should be used for the selection processes to reduce bottlenecks, and favouritism and should be based on merit.

2. Managers of school should regularly organize workshops, ICT training, conferences, and encourage teachers to improve their knowledge through the National Teachers Institute (NTI) and sandwich programmes.

3. Government should implement the conditions of service clause by clause, which clearly states the benefits of the civil servants (teachers).

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CHALLENGES OF GOOD GOVERNANCE AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN A DEMOCRATIC NIGERIA

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Abstract
The research examined the governments' failure in achieving good governance and sustainable development. How leaders have used their latent functions in governance and its resultant consequence. How investment in education and human capital development could solve the problem of good governance and sustainable development. The paper therefore focuses on the education sector and human capital development, using secondary sources of data. In conclusion, the research offers education and human capital development as the key remedies to the challenges of good governance and sustainable development in a democratic Nigeria.

Key words: Education, Human Capital, Nigeria, Development, Government and Governance

Introduction
The return to civilian rule on the 29th of May, 1999 brought with it great expectations of socio-economic development. Sadly, fourteen years later these expectations are yet to be achieved. Under a democratic setting the state exists to ensure the overall welfare of its citizens. Thus, the state is a natural design for promoting social good and public welfare (Okoli, 1990). It is apt to state that Nigeria since independence has failed to attain a level of development compared to the countries that achieved independence around the same time.

Failure of leadership has been identified as the reason for bad governance and deteriorating state of development in Nigeria. According to (Ojo, 2005) “the democracy in the African context serves the interest of only the ruling class”. Politicians are more concerned with looting public funds and ensuring their grip on power. In the political, civil, economic, social and spiritual arenas, recent events indicate that previous generations have produced a poor quality of characters that fade in the presence of true leadership and leave our present generation in this same leadership vacuum (Munroe, 1993).

Education and Human Capital Development
Education remains the key to a country’s human capital development. It is the basis by which human capital of a nation is developed and sustained; and the rate at which a nation’s education system transfers knowledge and skills greatly affects development. Developing education results in economic growth, quantitative and qualitative labour force. Failure of governments (especially in less developed countries- L.D.Cs, like Nigeria) to invest appropriately in education leads to widening a development gap. Including; illiteracy, unemployment, and income inequalities.
In Nigeria, the epileptic financing of capital projects to erect standard and adequate facilities is second only to the virtual neglect of human capital characterised by poor working conditions of teachers/lecturers thus, the brain drain syndrome. All these affect the quantity and quality of both teachers and students.

Investment in human capital contributes to productivity by raising the rate of human capital formation. It is even identified that investment in people has been a major source of economic growth in More Developed Countries (MDCs), even though such investment is being neglected in the L.D.Cs, which in turn leads to economic backwardness manifesting in low labour efficiency, factor immobility, limited specialization and deficient supply of entrepreneurship (Meier, 1984).

Nigeria is characterised by recurrent and lingering strikes by academics and non academics at different levels of the education system. The current Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) Strike is an example of how much education and human capital have been neglected. Perhaps (Jideofor, 2013) sums it up like this:

*That the Nigerian education system is in severe crisis is self-evident. If the increasing trend of our university graduates being unable to read and write not enough evidence, then the virtual absence of our universities in upper end of the league of African Universities should suffice. And if you are still not convinced, you can read the articulation of the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) during its annual strikes.*

Most public schools and institutions of higher learning are characterised by dilapidated structures, overcrowding in classes, poor salaries and working conditions. Government insists that the money is simply not there yet; according to the cover story of the (Daily Trust, 2013) the salary package of Nigerian federal legislators surpasses that of Britain, South Africa and the United States. Also according to (Daily Trust NewsPaper, 2013) Nigeria pays its ministers higher salaries and allowances in comparison to the previously stated states. The answers could be found by understanding the dominant behaviour of leaders in the developed countries and the ones in the developing countries (Mbaya, 2012). This brings us to the concepts of latent and manifest functions as put forward by (Parsons, 1960). Manifest functions include great sense of transparency and accountability where leaders are seen as public servants. This is the dominant features of the more developed states. Latent functions arises as a result of changing (officially or unofficially) of administrative processes to suit their personal interests. Features of latent functions are looting of public treasury, rigid towards constructive criticism and intolerance to any form of opposition etcetera despite agreed democratic principles.

**Challenges of Government and Governance**

According to (Eyiyere, 1997), government refers to the whole machinery through which a country is ruled. All governments are unique, in the sense that cultural and historical realities greatly influence the nature and practice of government in a state.

(Vision 2020:20 Report, 2010) States that governance is ‘the traditions and institutions by which authority in a country is exercised for the common good’. The report added that ‘governance deals with the national systems as a whole – how it is constituted and how it works, with stakeholders, the actors, and the processes involved’. The Nigerian experience has been quite the opposite, where you find government and governance favouring those in government and their allies. This has led us to our current reality; unwillingness of government to genuinely invest in its people without any form of strike from relevant
stakeholders - ASUU strikes. Such strikes try to pressure government to deliver on good governance and investment in human capital development. The strike by an umbrella unit of the university lecturers on the 24 of June, 2009 over government’s refusal to endorse a 2006 agreement that would give the education sector 26 percent of its annual budget as well as implement a new salary structure (Jideofor, 2013). Over the years Nigerians have had governments with promises of national development, only to be betrayed at the end. One of such government was that of President Obasanjo, which came with promises of efficient power supply, economic revitalization etcetera. Perhaps, (Dowden, 2008) sums it best;

*With the legacy of sixteen years of bad military rule, strong international support and a six fold increase in Nigeria’s oil revenues during Obasanjo’s eight years as president, it is hard to find exactly how he managed to end his reign as just about the most unpopular man in Nigeria. When he came to power, he had all the cards. He could have bought off or charmed opponents, taken steps such as providing electricity and clean water. He could have left a legacy of real change, a transformed Nigeria, but Obasanjo left office discredited and disgraced.*

Several challenges to good governance have been postulated, according to the (African Peer Review Mechanism, 2009) centralization “of power, security and financial resources in the Federal government” has led to its inefficiency. It also added that “the dichotomy between ethnic indigene ship and civic citizenship has been the cause of many conflicts at the communal and state levels as access to services and resources depends on which category one belongs to” this challenge could be rectified with adequate concentration on education, education is the vehicle for building better human capacity, understanding, participation and tolerance. The result will be good governance and overall socio-economic development of the Nigerian state.

**Conclusion**

It is apt from the foregoing that getting the adequate number of people with the necessary education and experience is pertinent to economic and political development which is seen as good governance and human capital development. Human capital formation or accumulation is the process of acquiring and increasing the number of persons who have the skills, education and experience. Which are required to achieve economic and political development (Jinghan, 1997).

That there exist challenges to good governance in Nigeria which if not checked could spell doom for its people and the development of the Nigerian state. Government and its policies are generally viewed as servicing the interests of those in government and their allies.

**Recommendation**

Presidential democracy under a federal set up remains relevant to Nigerians, however the challenge lies with the followings:

- The latent functions of the leaders, and
- The abuse of the education section.

I recommend the following measures as a way out of the challenges of good governance and sustainable development in a democratic Nigeria:
Organized stakeholders in the country like ASUU and the Nigeria Labour Congress should engage government through dialogue, threat of, and even productive industrial actions. As seen in recent history, Nigeria most a times respond only to strikes. Such actions would help in checking the latent functions of the leaders.

For government to achieve good governance and the attainment of sustainable development it must invest in its people by building capacity. This can be achieved only through a well structured and lubricated education sector. The future of Nigeria and indeed any state is to educate its citizens. The youths are the future of any country thus; a country that fails to empower its people through education is a country with no future.

Established political pressure groups should do more in mobilizing the electorate in ensuring that their votes count. The result of this is a scenario where credible leaders are allowed to contest and win elections. Again, the principle of ‘recall’ as enshrined in the constitution should be used as a weapon of ensuring public service by members of the national assembly.

The economic and financial crimes commission should be empowered, by making it financially and administratively independent of the executive arm of government. This would help them in discharging their duties without fear or favour.

The judiciary being the last hope of the masses must be truly independent of the other branches of government if we are to ensure good governance and its sustainability. It must be financially independent, which could be solved by establishing a special fund for the judiciary by passing the necessary bill(s). Which must also guarantee tenure of judges as well as giving the judicial service commission the power of appointment and promotion for judges based on seniority, record, and qualification among other universally acceptable principles?

A national reorientation and reawakening policy should also be vigorously pursued by the government through the education sector and the ministries of information at the Federal and State levels.

References


THE EFFECT OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING COURSES ON THE TEACHER'S ATTITUDE AND PERFORMANCE
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Abstract
The present article reports on a research designed to examine the effect of teachers in-service training programmes on their attitude and performance. The study was conducted on 100 teacher’s trainees in 6th Education district of Tehran. An attitude questionnaire was used once at the beginning and once at the end of the training course to check the participants’ attitude change. The teacher’s performance was then observed using an observation checklist. A stimulated recall interview was conducted to check the reasons for the discrepancies between the programme guidelines and the teacher’s performance. The results of the attitude questionnaire showed that the teacher’s attitude had changed significantly in one area of the three areas under investigation. The analysis of the data collected through the observation checklist and the stimulated recall interview showed that the teacher's trainees performance was not acceptable in the area their attitude had undergone a change. The article concludes by suggesting that attitude change does not necessarily lead to a change in teachers performance.

Keywords: teacher inservice training programmes, teacher education, teacher improvement, teacher qualifications, teacher skills, Pre-service teacher education

Introduction
Almost 20 years ago, Sarason, Davidson, and Blatt (1986) called teacher preparation an “unstudied problem” and urged researchers to look at what actually went on inside programs as a basis for understanding their effects on teachers. Just as teachers can make a difference in children’s learning, so teacher educators presumably have an impact on their “student teachers.” Teachers may benefit from teacher education in many qualitatively different ways: They may acquire knowledge, alter their beliefs, gain skills, or develop new attitudes and dispositions. And all of these outcomes may be important to teaching practice. Rather than looking to see whether candidates have acquired the particular knowledge or skills transmitted by a program, nowadays researchers in this field are mostly interested in how the views and performance of teachers change as they participate in different kinds of teacher education programs. In most inservice’s training institutes before while teaching in the school, a teacher is required to undergo short term in-service training courses. The content of these courses in most places is oriented toward the knowledge and understanding, skills and dispositions, attitudes and beliefs that teacher educators seek to alter in teachers. But the question is: Do these training courses actually have any effect on the teachers’ attitude and performance? This study was aimed at investigating those dimensions of programs that are most likely to contribute to changes in teachers’ attitudes and performance. Through a case study a group of teachers undergoing a short term teacher training course were followed over time to track changes in their attitude and practice.

Background
During the early 20th century, there was this belief that teaching was an art and that teachers were born rather than made. Aron (1922) argued that “As long as the teacher depends on a pedagogical bag of tricks and not on skills in teaching based on a thorough knowledge of and about the material he is teaching, namely language, just so long language teaching cannot claim classification as a profession” (p.77). In this regard, in 1915 in New York some attempts started for a formal, statewide assessment of teacher qualifications for certification purposes. So by 1926, in the state of New York, a bachelor’s degree, specified courses in education, and the language-specific exam became necessary requirements for gaining certification. By 1941, teacher development was an established field, even though its need was not yet fully accepted by traditional academics. During the early to mid-1960s the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) was funded by the U.S Office of Education to “concentrate on research and programs dealing with pre-service and in-service preparation of teachers” (“Notes and News,” MLJ, 52, 1968, p.440) but even with these efforts made in upgrading teacher effectiveness during the 1960s and the prediction that “a new phase” in the history of FL teaching would begin (p.18), few of the “innovations” had a lasting impact.

In 1980 Goepper and Knorre saw a strong need for intensive pre-service and in-service preparation. Although the contents and experiences offered in their model of teacher training did not differ a lot from those described by others they believed teacher training was no longer exclusively a training course to familiarize student teachers with instructional materials to provide a “bag of instructional drills and tricks” for a classroom. For the first time, their model included issues such as, “appropriateness of particular methodologies for students of varying aptitudes, ages, and skills” (p. 447).

Nowadays teaching is no longer seen exclusively as an art, as it was during the early parts of the century. Although the “creative element” will always play an important role in good teaching, the current thought is that there are principles, processes, skills, behaviors, techniques, strategies, beliefs, and attitudes that have an impact on teaching and learning and that they can be studied and taught. Research could help both teacher educators and teacher education policymakers to understand better whether and how teacher education makes a difference. Many researchers have concentrated on the teacher component of teacher education (Goodman, 1986; Hodges, 1982; Silvernail and Costello, 1983; Tabachnik and Zeichner, 1984).

The typical research design for studies of teachers has been a single-group longitudinal design to compare before and after data on teachers’ beliefs or knowledge or skills. Many researchers have studied in-service programs rather than pre-service programs (Carpenter, Fennema, Peterson, Chang, and Loef, 1989; Coladarci and Gage, 1984; Griffin and Barnes, 1986).

In-service programs often have more clearly defined goals: many of them are preparing teachers in very specific subjects, for instance, on teaching secondary science, or on teaching elementary reading. So researchers have a more manageable task when they study in-service teacher education. Still other researchers have limited their inquiry to description of parts of the system rather than exploring relationships among parts. (e.g. American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1987, 1989; Howey and Zimpher, 1989, 1990). Instead of looking at how teacher inservice programs influence teachers, these researchers have looked
at what teacher inservice programs are like. All of these approaches to research in teacher inservice education have been profitable.

One way to think about the role of teacher inservice education is to assume that teachers themselves might be the best source of evidence. Teacher educators often try to find out whether a teacher inservice training program made a difference by surveying the teachers and asking them if the program made a difference. Adams and Craig (1983) surveyed teacher inservice training programs in 1980 and found that 74 percent claimed to be conducting some sort of completion of their background knowledge. One such survey was conducted by the National Education Association (NEA). NEA surveyed its members and asked them to evaluate the contribution of 14 different sources of knowledge about teaching, one of which was in-service teacher education (Smylie, 1989). The in-service teacher education program was ranked by these teachers 13th out of the 14 sources of knowledge. The highest-rated source of knowledge was direct experience.

In 1975, Pigge (1978) performed a survey which provided the same results. He surveyed graduates of Bowling Green University who participated in a special training program and gave them a list of 26 competencies on which the respondents were to rate themselves. Teachers felt they were at least adequate on 14 out of the 26 proficiencies. Pigge also asked teachers how important these various competencies were to their work and where they learned these competencies. Generally speaking, teachers thought that those competencies most necessary to their work were learned on the job, whereas those considered least necessary were acquired in their teacher inservice training programs.

Some have argued that teacher judgment as an outcome is not reliable and so this can be a limitation in these studies, for several reasons: First, we do not know what criteria teachers use when they make these assessments. For example when a teacher rates her/himself as adequate or better than adequate, on what basis does she make this judgment? Are teachers’ criteria the same as an observer’s criteria? Similarly, when a teacher claims a program has contributed to her knowledge or skills, or has not contributed to her knowledge or skills, do we know for sure how accurate these judgments are?

Strang, Badt, and Kauffman (1987) provide some evidence which support the above-mentioned argument. In their study, they measured teachers’ skills both before and after a program treatment. They also asked, afterwards, the teachers themselves to estimate the degree to which they had changed. The researchers’ assessment of teacher change showed their proficiency moving from 52 percent to 87 percent.

However, the teachers’ assessments of their change showed a movement from 81 percent to 85 percent. Therefore, as we can see, one cannot rely on the outcome measures based on teachers’ self-evaluation. So another way to study whether or how teacher training programmes makes a difference is to follow teachers through their training programmes, gathering data on them at several points along the way, to see whether and how their ideas about teaching change over time. Researchers working within this genre want to learn what teachers are like when they enter their programs, how they change over time in response to their programs, and what they are like when they finish.

**Method**
The present study can be categorized as descriptive with a case study design. The fieldwork was conducted in a teacher training Institute in 6th education district in Tehran with the aim to study teachers participating in a shortterm Teacher Training Course (TTC). The participants were a sample of 100 female teachers in this way the gender was controlled. The study limited to teachers majored in fields other than English such as French and Economics. The instruments used in this study were a questionnaire, an observation checklist and a stimulated recall interview.

**Questionnaire**

To get an idea of the training course content and activities, one of the researchers attended a whole training course and made a record of the content and activities in that program. Based on the record of content and activities, a 35-item 5-point-scale questionnaire was designed. The purpose of the questionnaire was to examine the changes in the participants' attitude. Twenty six out of the thirty five items of the questionnaire were adopted from Christison & Bassano’s (1984) Teacher Self-Observation Form, cited in Brown (2001. p 435) and the rest (9 items) were added by the researchers. To check the content validity of the questionnaire, another questionnaire with the same items but a different scale (3-point-scale: relevant, no idea, irrelevant) was designed and given to the trainers of the training course in order to elicit their views on its content. They all confirmed the items to be consistent with the syllabus taught in the training course classes. The questionnaire was then piloted with a group of 27 teachers similar to the target participants and its reliability which was calculated through Guttman split-half formula turned out to be 0.90.

**Observation Checklist**

In order to observe the teachers’ teaching performance, an observation checklist was prepared. The items listed in the researcher’s checklist were compared with a checklist in Brown (2001. p 432). The items in this checklist which is called “Teacher Observation Form: Observing other Teachers” overlapped with those included in the researcher’s checklist. By comparison, 26 items which covered the syllabus and content of the TTC were selected. Therefore a 26-item 5-point Likert-scale observation checklist was designed. The five categories were: 4=excellent, 3= above average, 2= average, 1= unsatisfactory, N/A= not applicable. Stimulated Recall Interview The observed lessons were audiorecorded. The aim was to have evidence of what the teachers had said and done in class. The results of the observation checklist were used to prepare a list of the strong and weak points of each teacher. The weak points of the teachers’ profiles were complemented with episodes of teaching which were not consistent with what had been taught in the teacher training classes.

These episodes were used in the stimulated recall interviews as evidence for the weak points. Procedure The data for this study were collected in 3 phases over a period of 5 weeks. In phase one, one of the researchers participated in the Teacher Training Courses of an institute which was a 3 week course, 3 hours a day except for Thursdays and Fridays. The purpose was to document the course content and activities. Based on the content of the course an attitude questionnaire was designed which was administered to the participants once at the beginning of the course (before any training was given) and once at the end of the course (after the last session of training).
The teacher observations were done in phase two, week 4. For this phase of the research an observation checklist was used. The researcher attended each of the teachers’ classes (two classes a day). The teachers were informed that an observer would participate in their classes and that the observations were intended to be used for research purposes only. In phase three, the stimulated recall interviews were conducted. After preparing the profiles, contacts were made with the teachers and an interview was scheduled with them. The interview started with the strong points of the teachers’ profiles and then shifted to the weak points observed during classroom observations. The teachers were asked for the reasons and the rationale behind the digressions and records were made of the answers in their profiles. Each interview lasted 15-30 minutes.

Results

To answer the first question of the study which dealt with attitude change, the questionnaire data were analyzed. The questions in this questionnaire were categorized under 3 sections: Learning Environment, Individuals, and Activity. A paired sample t-test was used to compare the means of the same group at two different stages of the short term training course.

Table 1. The Paired t-test obtained for the “Learning Environment” section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>-2.43</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

STAGE 2

The result of the paired t-test for the first section of the questionnaire (the learning environment) in table 1 shows that the difference was significant (P < 0.05) and so according to this result the group underwent a significant change in attitude.

Table 2. Paired t-test obtained for the “Individuals” section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>-2.00</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

STAGE 2

Table 2 presents the results of the paired t-test run on the questions related to the “individuals”. As the figure (0.28) indicates, the difference was not significant (P > 0.05).

Table 3. Paired t-test obtained for the “Activity” section

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>-.30</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows that the possibility level for the last section (the activity) is 0.80 which is bigger than alpha level of 0.05 (0.88 > 0.05) and so in this section the difference between the two means is not significant. In the second phase of the research an observation checklist based on the content of the training course was designed and used by the researchers. The aim of this phase was to observe the teaching practice of the teachers to answer the second research question which dealt with effect of the short term in-service teacher training course on the teachers’ performance. To answer this question, one of the researchers attended each of the teachers’ classes and observed their teaching practice. Based on the outcome of the checklists, profiles were designed for each of the teachers. The observation checklist was designed in four main sections: Presentation, Execution/Method, Personal Characteristics, Student/Teacher Interaction.

Table 4 below provides the frequency of the teachers’ weak points regarding the above sections.

Table 4. Frequency table for the teachers’ weaknesses in the main categories of their teaching practice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presentation</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Execution/Method</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Characteristics</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher/Student Interaction</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in the above table the teachers did not have any weak point in regard to “personal characteristics”. The weak points in the teachers’ performance were observed mostly in the other three areas.

Discussion

The above mentioned results for the first stage of the research indicate that the training course significantly affected the teachers’ attitude in only the “learning environment” category which consists of items listed under three subcategories: A) Relationship with Students, B) Presentation and C) Culture and Adjustment. The reason for the lack of change in the other two sections (Individuals and Activity) might be due to
the fact that the teachers’ attitude toward these two sections had already been positive as their responses to the items were mostly in the positive range both before and after the training course. As mentioned before, the topics and subjects taught in the training course were chosen from the basics of teaching and learning. The most essential matters and issues that all experienced teachers had practiced in their teaching before and the inexperienced teachers had observed during their school years, in their own practice of teaching. So they already had a positive attitude towards them (maybe unaware of it themselves). This could justify the pattern of change in the trainees’ attitude. As for the results of the second phase of the research, according to senior (2006) it is nearly impossible for teacher to implement all the principles of teaching that they have been taught in training courses since these courses are overloading teachers with a plethora of methods, and teaching skills. This may account for the high number of mistakes in the two areas of presentation and execution/method.

Also by comparing the results obtained from the questionnaires and the observation checklists, we noticed that in some cases there was a mismatch between the student teachers’ attitude in stage two and their teaching practice in class. That is to say they failed to put into practice what they valued through the attitude questionnaire. The researchers are of the opinion that the reason why the teachers did not follow some of the training guidelines might be due to their being overwhelmed with a plethora of principles on the one hand and being new to the atmosphere and inexperienced on the other. This might have made it difficult for them to make on the spot decisions in spite of their willingness to do so. This finding supports Ajzen’s (1988) claim that teachers’ attitudes may be something and their actual behaviors may be something else based on the opportunities and resources available to them. This point is consistent with the common observation that some teachers who agree with particular types of activities do not carry them out in their classrooms. For these teachers, attitude is not predictive of their behavior. The point to remember is that teachers’ inadequate performance should not be considered as an indication of their incompetence. If they are given enough time and practice they would probably gain the confidence to be more judicious in their decision making.

So, only one observation immediately after the training course may not suffice. Observing the teachers over time may provide more dependable results. But there were also some cases in which the teachers who had experience in teaching also did not follow the training course guidelines. The reason might be the incompatibility of what the teachers had gained through years of experience and what was introduced as sound practice in the training course. Their experience might have convinced them that what the training course introduced as effective practice was not feasible. This case is also in line with what Hollingsworth (1992) has theorized. He claims that prior knowledge and experience serve as a filter to pedagogical learning during the pre-service years, altering how pedagogical instruction is learned and enacted by teachers. This was actually observed in this study since some teachers who had a few years of experience in teaching did not follow exactly what was prescribed to them in the training course and preserved their previous beliefs and personal theories. As individuals, teachers have particular temperaments and personality traits that influence how they approach new ideas and situations. Thus, learning outcomes in teacher education are a function of both what programs offer and what teacher trainees bring to the training course.

**Pedagogical Implications**
The results of the present study suggest that we should modify our expectations from short-term teacher training courses. Training is useful to the extent that trainee teachers are introduced to a range of teaching procedures consistent with the course design and the adopted approach. However, the extent to which these procedures would be used is limited by the way they are interpreted by the teachers in the light of their ingrained beliefs and their assessment of the resources and constraints of the teaching context which would determine the feasibility of the introduced procedures. The implication is that teachers should be convinced of the theoretical rationale of the procedures and their feasibility before they incorporate them in their arsenal of teaching procedures. This might require a period of experimentation with the introduced procedures which would in turn necessitate a follow-up process designed to provide support and supervision to the teachers in the experimentation phase.

Short term teacher training courses are currently offered without a follow-up which limits their usefulness to a great extent. To enhance their usefulness the training course designers should arrange for a follow-up in which trainee teachers are observed and encouraged to experiment with the new procedures.

References


ROLE OF EXTENSION EDUCATION IN ECONOMIC UPLIFTMENT THROUGH DEVELOPMENT OF AGRICULTURE, HORTICULTURE AND ANIMAL HUSBANDRY IN SEMI-ARID RAJASTHAN

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Directorate of Extension Education
SK Rajasthan Agricultural University, Bikaner-India

Abstract

Arid and semi-arid region of Rajasthan consisting more than 75 per cent area is most potential region for expanding agri-horticultural and livestock production. Besides the traditional production technology, several hi-tech production systems are being utilized at commercial level to promote livelihood security in rural sector. The extension has been among the major impact factors to realize the goals of Green revolution. In post green revolution scenario the agri-horticultural and livestock sectors are experiencing new needs and facing new challenges, especially in the realm of enhancing efficiency of extension system.

Introduction

The agriculture in India and Asia has witnessed several paradigm shifts. Major among them are Green Revolution and Sustainable Agriculture. The pre green revolution scenario is often portrayed as period of low productivity and that of dependence on imported food grains. People still remember the bitter taste of wheat imported under aid PL-480. The green revolution heralded by agricultural scientists and farmers changed the scenario so much so that India, not only became self-sufficient but came to a situation of export potential. This change was driven with the help of high yielding cultivars of wheat and rice, better fertilization with urea and phosphatic fertilizers, improved crop protection practices and effective extension for rapid adoption of new technologies. Within a decade agriculture saw emergence of the paradigm of sustainable agriculture, largely because of untargeted side effects of use of chemicals, mainly the crop protectants and partly inorganic fertilization. The health of environment started to show signs of deterioration and crops also manifested saturation to chemical application. This brought health of environment on horizontal plane with the priority of enhancing production to feed increasing population. Scientists also started to recommend balanced applications and advocated integrated crop management practices.
If we think about the survival and sustenance in the context of life in desert ecosystem and make an attempt to explore the prospects of quality life, the effort would be toward raising researchable or extension issues linked to biotic and abiotic components of desert ecosystem including human beings inhabiting rural, urban and metro sectors. The issues pertain to the

- Role of Indigenous Knowledge, civil society, community based organizations.
- Livestock based farming system with Industry and market linkages.

Globally CAB international, National Agricultural Library (NAL), USA, British Library and FAO libraries (Rome) are providing valuable information on Agriculture through CD-ROM and digital libraries.

The Extension Directorate Central Sector schemes, NATP, MANAGE, Regional Extension Institutes, Centers of excellence, and NIF and NICNET are leading the endeavors of popularizing cyber extension in India.

Presently, the number of internet connection in India has crossed the two million mark and telephone connection is over 22 million, yet It has been estimated that among developing countries the use of internet in farm decision is much less (12%) in comparison to radio (77.3%) and print media (11.3%).

The FAO report (1996) emphasized the rushing need of joining internet age. The concept of Village information shops and Kiosks is being discussed and experimented at several places in India, e.g. MS Swaminathan Research foundation (MSSRF), information village of MANAGE (A.P.), warna wired village (Maharashtra), e-chaupals (ITC), e-mitra (Rajasthan), video-conferencing, VSAT-van (MANAGE) and WLL (Maharashtra) are the budding success stories of cyber extension. The idea of a Universal Digital Library (UDL) is also gaining momentum. The AaQUAa (Almost all questions answered in agriculture) is a website which couples mobile phones and send technological advises through SMSs in all regional languages, besides Hindi and English.

This presentation reviews all the upfront areas of cyber-extension and infers that in times to come the IT should greatly complement traditional extension to promote hi-tech agri-horticulture, to ensure livelihood security and healthy food production in rural sector.

Arid and semi-arid regions of Rajasthan occupy more than 75 per cent area which is most potential region for expanding agr-horticultural and livestock production. Besides the traditional production technology, several hi-tech production systems are being utilized at commercial level to promote livelihood security in rural sector.

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It would be reckoned that the ancient India, particularly the pre slavery vedic India was addressed as golden bird abounding in food, milk and wealth. The mythological history depicts that rich and wealthy Indian society was an agrarian society, as evident by names like Nand (Owner of large cow herds), Gopal (Cow rearer) and Kisan (Farmer). The sages like Susruta and Surpala were agricultural scientists who had authored treatises like Vriksho-upnishad. The relevance of vedic agriculture would be discussed in the context of eco-reverential attitude and sustainable technologies.

Issues and agenda

If we think about the survival and sustenance in the context of life in desert ecosystem and make an attempt to explore the prospects of quality life, the effort would be toward raising researchable or extension issues linked to biotic and abiotic components of desert ecosystem including human beings inhabiting rural, urban and metro sectors. The issues pertain to the

- Role of Indigenous Knowledge, civil society, community based organizations.
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The paper recommends an action plan:
1. Strengthening of NGOs for conservation and improvement of indigenous cow.
2. Research and extension support to:
   - Organic farming for production of healthy foods of animal origin.
   - Comparative efficacy of Panchgavaya with that of exotic cattle and buffalo.
   - Compositional specialties of Panchgavaya.
   - Promotion of indigenous cow centric organic farming.
   - Promotion of Medical research on Panchgavaya Ayurved.
   - Comparative efficacy of Panchgavaya in Methanogenesis and CNG production.
   - Support cow enter-preneurship via commercialization of specialty products of indigenous cattle e.g.:

Milk Products
   Milk spray, milk powder, yogurts, and cheese, low calorie health drinks

Home Products
   Phenyl, cleaning agents, mosquito, repellant, scented sticks, anti radiation bricks.

Cosmetics
   Soap, shampoo, paste, skin care creams, anti-ageing creams, talcum etc.
Energy
Draft power, electricity generation, biogas and CNG.

Agriculture
Herbal pesticides, compost, vermi-compost, PROM, soil vitalizers (amrit jal), Biosol, Agnihotra, biodynamic preparations & the concept of Cow Centric Organic Agriculture (CCOA). Green products of GAP (Good Agricultural Practices).

We are amidst a spasm and we can check it not by fighting with invisible market forces or transnational aliens but simply by preserving our seeds of culture, wisdom, knowledge, science and technology. Examples are many, but are scattered. Let’s confederate, crystallize, promote, support, duplicate and multiply.

The action should be accepted as an important agenda to resolve that ITK of indigenous cow need research and extension support at institutional, university and NGO level. The R&D for aggressive marketing of Panchgavya products should be supported as policy decision.

Enhancing Efficiency of Extension
The endeavour need a matching extension system- the ICT centric Cyber- Extension. In general, cyber extension depends upon the application of computers, specially the internet for dissemination of information, but with advances in Info- Communication -Technology (ICT), it includes, digital technologies like data warehousing, GIS, remote sensing, multimedia, decision technology system and digital virtual libraries.

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centric low cost eco-reverential technologies to promote agri-horticulture and livestock sectors.

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1. Strengthening of NGOs for conservation and improvement of indigenous cow.
2. Research and extension support to low cost indigenous cow centric agri-horticultural technologies
3. Extensive support for organic livestock farming (viz., organic dairy farming, sheep farming, goat farming) to produce healthy foods of animal origin.

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DIGNITY AND HUMAN RIGHTS: AN EXPLORE FROM THE ANGLE OF CHINA'S SOCIETY

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Abstract

The traditional Confucian axiology is a deontological one, its idea of “dignity” is mainly a sort of the “dignity of personality”, that is, what it put emphasis was that human personality should not be violated and insulted, but not the “dignity of human beings”, i.e. it didn’t realized that dignity is a part of human rights, so it couldn’t expound of dignity from the aspect of human rights, such as the right of life, freedom, etc. In traditional Chinese hierarchical society, which was primarily regulated by Confucian deontological ethics, common people’s rights were disregarded generally. Up to the New Culture Movement in May 4th, 1919, the enlightenment of human rights still remains sluggish, and the awakening of the consciousness of Self-dignity was in the same situation too. In the progress of contemporary Chines society, the human dignity is gradually being regarded as a kind of human rights, and received recognition to most of the Chines people. The recognition of dignity should be promoted to the level of human being itself, and to take of the maintaining of the “dignity of human beings” as a principle of legislation, particularly in the constitution.

Keywords: dignity, human rights, Confucianism, axiology, deontology

The following paper consists of four parts. The first deals with Confucian concept of dignity, the second talks about the impacts which this dignity idea has produced on Chinese society, the third is about the progresses and problems of the concepts of "dignity " and the “rights” in the process of China's modernity, the fourth is about how to enhance the understanding of "dignity", taking it as the source of all kinds of rights, and about the necessity of taking it as one of fundamental principles for constitutional legislation idea.

1. Traditional Confucian view of dignity

Confucian traditional axiology is based on people’s duty or obligation, rather than on their rights; that is, the core of the Confucian values, such as "loyalty, filial piety, benevolence and righteousness” etc., are relate to the people’s obligations, but not their rights. Accordingly, Confucian view of "dignity" is not a rights-based. Furthermore, although the Confucian put emphasis on the idea of dignity, however this is mainly confined to the dignity of personality, but not concerning with the issue of rights, and this is the defect in its theory of dignity.

My article lists some of classic quotations from the founders of Confucianism, the following are three examples.
Confucius said, "An officer (Shì) can be killed, but not be insulted." (The Analects)

Confucius said, “The commander of three armies may be taken away, but the will of even a common man may not be taken away from him”. (The Analects)

Mencius said, “To be above the power of riches and honors to make dissipated, of poverty and mean condition to make swerve from principle, and of power and force to make bend; --these characteristics constitute the great man.” (Mencius)

From the above exposition we can see that Confucian concept of "dignity" is mainly concerned with personality, stressing the inviolability and non-insult of human personality. In this sense, its concept of dignity is to be called the “dignity of personality”, but not the “dignity of human being”. For traditional Confucianism, its goal is to reach the family harmony and the peace of the world through people’s moral cultivations, thus, the thoughts of personality and its dignity constitute one of the essences of Confucian doctrine.

This ethics of the personality’s dignity, in Chinese history, has created a large number of outstanding people with lofty ideals, cultivating their noble personality, and left many glorious chapters in Chinese culture. But unfortunately, Confucian view of dignity didn’t put forward the concept of “the dignity of human being”, that is to say, did not expound it from the angle of the rights (including the right to life, liberty, and other basic rights). As a result, there was a fundamental defect in Confucian view of dignity, namely that it was separated from people's rights, or it was not a rights-based. This character is fit with Confucian axiology which only talks about obligations, and the obligations which it advocated are not based on the principle of reciprocity between rights and obligations, but are in such a status where rights are absent. In Confucian axiology in which loyalty, filial piety, benevolence and righteousness constitutes its core value, loyalty is the obligation of subjects to their monarch, "filial piety" is the obligation of sons and daughters to their parents. Benevolence also is a kind of obligation for a person to love others. "Righteousness" is a kind of obligation too; it means a person’s behavior must conform to ethical norms. Deontology both brings up Confucian axiology as well as its concept of dignity.

2. The impacts of Confucian idea of dignity on Chinese society

Contrast with Western philosophy which pursues truth and wisdom, traditional Chinese philosophy basically is a moral philosophy. For Confucius (551-479BC), the founder of Confucianism, the main problem he faces is how to make a turbulent society returned into a stable order. Thus, the hierarchy becomes his choice for solving the problem. Correspondingly, the values of "loyalty, filial piety" etc. have been adopted and became the regulations of law. In ancient Chinese law, most “heinous crimes” connect directly with disloyalty and unfiliality. For example, the crime of "rebellion" (trying to overturn the Court), the crime of “traitor”, killing grandparents, parents, or uncles, aunts, uncles, and other elders. Unfilial, cursing, and not supporting his own grandparents and parents, etc.

The results, following from the Confucian deontology, are the absence of ethics of rights. Although Confucianism advocates “benevolent", but unfortunately it failed to take into account of how to protect people with human rights, to ensure them be cared. In traditional Confucianism, there is no concept of rights to "life", no concept of “freedom”, let alone how to protect them. In this sense, the ancient Chinese society’s entire ethical foundation is misplaced, it adapts to the feudal patriarchal system. "Propriety (Li)" as the norm of ancient social life and moral behavior, its essence and political functions is to "identify someone’s
social status, to distinguish people’s deferent position, and to make their order, i.e. to maintain the feudal hierarchy. The role which the ethics of deontology plays is to rationalize this hierarchy.

In the feudal society, unfree, inequality is the most indignity state of general people. Huang Renyu, an American Chinese historian, mentioned in his book “Great Chinese History” that, as early as in the years of 153 to 184, thousands ancient Chinese students have already hold rallies and demonstrations in the way like modern style, to petition the Luoyang Government. As a result, the Government made up blacklists, conducted massive arrest, and thousands of political prisoners died in prison.

Ancient China’s axiology of rights-missing combined the feudal autocratic regime, had direct impacts on modern China, made Chinese people more difficult, more twists and turns, and longer to fight for their freedom, human rights and dignity. Due to the lack of the consciousness of human rights and the guarantee from the political system in a long history, it results in disregard of human rights and dignity by both personal and society. In the early Qing dynasty, people even did not have the right for choosing whether they want to be haircut, and even reached the situation that "If want to keep head, then no hair, if want to keep hair, then no head". In other words, someone have to pay the price of life if he wants to keep his hair. In the horrifying atrocity of "three days slaughter in Jiading City", the whole citizens around 2 hundred thousand people have almost been massacred by the Qing army. It is a bloody portrayal left in the history. Until hundreds of years after, in the "cultural revolution" the hair was still a political topic, "perm (to wave hair) " was treated as a bourgeois way of life, and subjected to prohibited. Such taboo also extended to the clothing, the so-called "fancy clothes" was also linked with ideology, and "jeans" were considered the western bourgeois way of life too.

In the period of May Fourth 1919, the representative’s slogan put forward by the new culture movement, as modern China's Enlightenment, are "Science" and "Democracy". This means that until the early 20th century, freedom and human rights issues has not become the theme of the enlightenment which uncovers the prelude of China’s modern history. Although that historical era has its urgent needs to resolve, however the enlightenment of human rights, after all, has been delayed, and the awakening of consciousness of human rights and dignity were delayed too. Then China got in a long period of war, including the civil war and anti-Japanese war. After the founding of People's Republic of China in 1949, there had been a fierce criticism of Western thought, and strengthened the ideology of class struggle. As a result, they prepared the ideological conditions for the "great cultural revolution". China entered a decade-long period of civil strife, so it is impossible to have enlightenment for human rights and dignity, as well as to set up the guarantee of political system.

3. The dignity and human rights in the process of China's modernity

From the measure that rural areas allows farmers to contract with their land (family contract responsibility system), to the measure that government decentralize of power and transfer of profits to the state-owned enterprises, to that allows individuals to contract enterprises business, until allows to set up private enterprises, as well to auction state-owned enterprises, to transform enterprises into joint-stock system, and gradually relax private investment areas, these measures, seeing from the perspective of political philosophy, can be regarded as the recognition of the individual rights, namely, authorized personal rights on
investment undertaking, on making their own management decisions, and fundamentally, are affirmation of individual's rights of freedom and autonomy in economic activities areas. The consequence of rights recognized and guaranteed is mobilizing the initiative and creativity of people's economic activities, and put energy into economic development. Thus, the key here is the combination of the "realization of right" with human nature. Human nature is striving to pursue and maximize their own interests. Once rights are recognized, human nature will turn into powerful impetus for socio-economic development.

The above explanation may be helpful for us to understand the significance of rights as basis in modern society, and also contribute to our understanding of the relationship between the rights and dignity. If dignity is not built on the basis of rights, it will not be a true sense of dignity. Under no guarantee of rights, there will be no real human dignity, at best only relying on their own struggle to maintain self-esteem personality. When individual's rights to life, liberty and property etc. suffer from illegal violation and deprivation, they can only protest with personal acts, even extreme actions, in order to preserve their rights and dignity, and it is difficult for them to get valid protection from legitimate system. These negative examples in recent Chinese are not uncommon. Over the past few years there have happened again and again in various places the events of resisting of residents' houses being brutally removed, some house owners even forced to take the extreme means of "self-burning". For example, in Beijing, Guangzhou, Jiangsu, Jiangxi, Sichuan and Heilongjiang, etc. have taken place in such an event. Let's take an example. In September this year, a self-burning event against violent house- removing occurred in Yihuang County, Jiangxi province. From April 18 on, Zhong’s house, which has been planned to be removed by local government, has already be cut off its electricity supply. On September 10 at 9 a.m., about 40 policeman and members of city management bureau came to the owner's home. After a quarrel in both parties, the police broke in. Homeowners Luo Zhi-feng, Ye Zhong Cheng and Zhong Ruqin made self-burning and was severely burned. Although Ye was rushed to hospital, but he finally died. Afterwards on September 16th, two daughters of the injured were going to appeal, but they have been besieged and intercepted in Nanchang airport. Finally they had to seek refuge in the woman lavatory, using mobile phone to call the media for help. Similar examples "barbaric house-removing", are the typical reflection of the situation of Chinese people’s rights at the social bottom.

On the positive side, accompanying with the process of rights realization in economic field, contemporary Chinese society is after all in progress, and the progress of dignity idea is one part of them. With regard to the progress of idea, the former Premier Wen Jiabao's speech at the beginning of that year is a remarkable indication. He submits that "we should let people have a happier, more dignified life".

The progress among people can be showed in the universally consciousness awakening of citizens' right of dignity, and some people even apply of law as their weapons. There are a number of famous cases. For instance, Shandong citizen Qi Yu-ling’s case that citing the constitution to “fight for the education right”, the first case of "China hepatitis B discrimination ", Beijing citizens Huang Zhenyun’s case that resisting house- removal by invoking Constitution etc. Here let's take Qi Yuling’s example. In 1999, Qi Yu-ling, an original candidate for an entrance examination from Tengzhou city, Shandong province, went to law against Chen Xiaooqi, who falsely claimed her admission notice, and using her name to register at Jining city business school, then got a job after graduation. The
Supreme People's Court, required by the Shandong province’s higher people’s court, gave an approval of judicial interpretation, claiming that Chen Xiaoqi and others violated Qi Yuling’s basic education right by means of infringement of the right to one’s name, and caused damages to Qi, therefore should bear the corresponding civil liability. Shandong province’s Higher Court accordingly made a judgment. Why the case has aroused widespread attentions is that it was regarded as the first case that Chinese citizen invokes the constitution for legal action and got support, and therefore has different general significance. It embodies the awareness and empowerment of citizens’ rights. They take the Constitution as the basis, rose to defend their rights and dignity, thereby objectively promote changes in China’s judicature, albeit the change is slow and difficult.

4. To upgrade the recognition of dignity

If we say that the "natural rights" theory in modern Western Natural law is pursuit of the fundamental values of freedom and equality, in contemporary Western axiology it can be regarded that the status of human dignity has been greatly enhanced the foundation of freedom, justice and peace. This recognition represented in the United Nations' authoritative human rights documents in succession. For instance, the Universal Declaration of human rights, published in 1948, declared clearly in its first sentence: "Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world.” Since then, in 1966, the International Covenant on economic social and cultural rights, and the International Covenant on Civil and political rights, both cited this paragraph as the ideological premise of these covenants.

Consistent with the concept mentioned in the above United Nations’ documents, a number of countries also take the maintenance of "human dignity" as their legal norms. In this context, the expressions in the German Constitution are the most representative. "Human dignity" is positioned as "the highest constitutional principle", as "the Supreme objective of constitutional norms", it constitutes a basic value principle for the constitutional legislation.

Regarding China, the concept of dignity is expressed in the Constitution too. In the article 38, it provides that “the personal dignity of citizens of People's Republic of China is inviolable. Insult, libel and false accusation or false incrimination directed against citizens by any means is prohibited. Here we can see that the concept used in China’s Constitution is that of "personal dignity", and it involves also the relevant content, that is, not allow to violate citizens’ personality. This article is placed with articles like inviolability of residence, the rights of criticism and suggestion, the rights of labor etc., that is to say, the personal dignity is regarded as a specific right. Understanding of dignity in the sense of personality seems to relate to the traditional Chinese culture, that is, to the dignity concept of Confucianism as mentioned above.

However, in my view, to limit the dignity concept to the aspect of personality, taking it as a specific right, is not enough, this only stay at the stage of the ancient Confucian recognition of dignity. In modern society, it is important to enhance the recognition of dignity to the level of human beings themselves, and based on the understanding that “Man is the end”, to take human beings as enjoying dignity in the sense of they having the intrinsic and absolute value in themselves.
Here "dignity" can be regarded as the concept of objective, i.e. taking human beings as the end itself, human beings' dignity as the end itself. State and its laws as well as institutions should serve this end. Although the "end" is a philosophical hypothesis, this subjective concept can instead turn to be the ground of the social values and institutions. For here is a difference between the existence of social beings and natural things, the late are the existence in themselves, they have no value in the sense of axiology, and also have no purposiveness. On the contrary, the former is the existence for themselves, and they have intrinsic value in themselves. The highest performance of the human being’s value is that it can become a kind of "purpose" of actions. This argument is easy to be proved by means of reduction to absurdity. Because once man has been taken as a means, they will surely become the slavery objects of the rulers (often appearing on the face of state, government, and so on).

This analysis shows that the recognition of human being’s value in our Constitution need to be improved. Its departure point is not yet a "people-oriented"(to take people as the foremost), not taking this as the premise to treat person’s inherent rights. At present the "people-oriented" has become a social consensus, so it is necessary to add this idea as the basic concepts and principles of our Constitution. The Constitution as country's fundamental law, should take "People-oriented" as a basic principle, and put the relationship between citizens and citizens, the relationship between citizens and the State into a right position. In addition, the Constitution belongs to all citizens, therefore it should not be making a difference of degree, should not claim that a class leading other class, this will cause an inequality in political rights. Such a statement is not only inconsistent with the reality, but also contradicted with the Constitution’s declaration that all citizens are equal before law, and with the idea of the equality of human rights. There is some inappropriate wording in Constitution such as "class struggle", etc. They are the remnants of the "cultural revolution", and are inconsistent with the idea of "harmonious society". Moreover, the statement itself is a contradiction, since it has been asserted that the exploiting class has been eliminated, how can there have "class struggle"? Since this statement provides legitimacy for creating struggle among people, it should be removed.

As mentioned above, the understanding of the "dignity" in our Constitution is still in the level of “personality’s dignity”, fail to rise to the level of "human being’s dignity". The reason why it ought to rise to the level is that the Constitution needs a certain principles, and such principles should be based on the considerations for protection of human rights. Furthermore, the principles of the Constitution also needs a certain ground, which either directly rely on "human being" as the ground, or rely on the ground of taking human being as the “end”, or on the ground of human being’s dignity. So, No matter what the proposition is based, in short, the principles of the Constitution need to be set up on the foundation of human beings themselves. So what becomes a problem is to take the proposition “human being is the end itself” as the ground of constitutional principle, or take the concept of "human being’s dignity" as the ground. In my opinion, because of the "end" does not fit as a right, therefore it is not suitable as a concept of law. Whereas the concept of "dignity" is different, it can be used as a right, even fundamental right, as provided in some of the Constitutions and the civil laws.

Besides, how to ensure the implementation of the Constitution is also an important issue. If a constitution has been drawn up, but without be complied with, or without be strictly complied with, the Constitution will tantamount to a dead letter. One guarantee for the
compliance of constitution is to establish the Constitutional Court. For our country, to establish Constitutional Court is a necessary work, it will contribute significantly to the improvement of the rule of law, so as to better protect citizens’ rights.

EARLY CHILDHOOD ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION (ECEE): ISSUES AND CURRICULUM IMPLICATIONS IN THE NIGERIAN CONTEXT

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Abstract

The paper titled *Early Childhood Environmental Education (ECEE)* was designed as an appraisal study with its main objective as determining strategies for integrating ECEE into Early Childhood Care Education curriculum. Review was made of conceptual frameworks of early childhood, environment and environmental education. Also reviewed were earlier studies and scholarly opinions on the subject, based on which strategies were recommended in a way that would engage formalized processes of the curriculum in its dispensation. Recommendations made included that environmental education be introduced into the Early Childhood care Education (ECCE) curriculum, parents and adult members of the society are engaged as instructors. Recommend curriculum strategies included: use of games and simulation on environmental thematic issues, creations of nature’s corner in schools, organization of fun-fares, exhibitions fieldtrips and excursions to historical natural resources, use of nature and environment-based films, home-videos, textual materials and pictorials to convey environmental education messages to the young kids. The study was concluded by emphasizing the need to engage young kids in environmental issues that could capitalize their young impressionable minds as to shaping their attitudes towards nature and its resource base as well as their use and conservation as to ensuring their profitable and sustainable management.

Introduction

Early Childhood refers to preschool years, typically occupied by children between 2-5 years of age; it is a stage of development which spans from pre-nursery to nursery level of education, a time during which child-toddlers and preschoolers begin their exploratory activities. According to Nnachi (2004), it covers the period of toddlerhood and the time of entering primary school. In the words of White and Waltz (1973) early childhood describes the period during which young children engage seriously in play activities as their major work and spend a deal of time exploring, inventing, experimenting and learning about events as well as mastering their world. With their play behaviour they struggle to adapt to the environment by developing various activities.

Being that the education of a child starts from infancy, all societies train their children on socialization and general behaviour right from birth, thereby helping them learn about themselves, their personal boundaries; learn about the world around them, learn about
different objects and their qualities, learn about relationships, the way to respond to others etc. According to Piaget's cognitive development theory, early childhood falls within the pre-operational stage, a time when children learn the use of language, mental imagery as well as categories and use of symbols to represent what they learn. The development of children's social mental, physical and emotional abilities begins at early childhood, it therefore becomes necessary that parents and older adults must be fully involved in the education of the child which can be done by sending them on errands, telling them short and interesting stories bordering on morals, discipline and sense of industry; teach them to be obedient and to have respect for elders. Through these ways children will acquire behaviour patterns, abilities and skills needed for successful survival in the society.

**Early Childhood Education**

Early childhood education is a programme of instruction organized for children from birth to preschool age to make them thrive (Akinola, 2004). Preschool years are crucial years during which the young child develops his social, mental, physical and emotional abilities with which he faces the challenges of primary education. It is a programme designed for children to give them a solid foundation of experience and to prepare them for entry into primary school. The achievement of these objectives to a reasonable extent lies on the efforts of preschool educators. This implies that the preschool educators and care-givers must provide a stimulating and interactive environment in which children would gain the freedom to explore their environment through exploratory play activities. No wonder Akinola (2004) opines that children at this stage need to be nurtured because they have a number of 'survival needs.' Therefore the responsibilities of preschool educators border on the following cardinal areas namely: provision of care, love and protection from all injuries and attacks of all kinds. In addition they need sound nutrition (balanced diet) to be healthy and to resist diseases; goods buildings, classrooms, library, laboratories, instructional hardware and good play grounds for physical activities. All these are measures for equipping and preparing them for the primary and indeed other levels of education. From the foregoing, it becomes necessary that the teaching and learning of environmental education will be better if initiated at this period so as to prepare and help them develop positive attitudes towards nature since early years are learning years (Nnachi, 2004).

**Environment**

Environment may be explained as the social world or a geographical area which has the potentials of influencing the behaviours, perception, attitude and psychological disposition of individuals that are associated with it. It can influence the behaviour of children positively or negatively and thereby determine their actions. Considering the influence of environment on human development, Nnachi, (2004) asserted that for human beings to become what they are at any given time depends on the social environment they find themselves. He further stated that environment as a world can motivate or suppress the manifestation or development of the potentials of an individual. This is on the grounds that environment provides us with air, water and food and accounts for material provisions that assist the individual children in day-to-day living. It also provides us with the open space where playful activities take place. He added that the experiences a person gains in his environment influences his behavior and development. Therefore, for children to be educated environmentally, it becomes necessary to make the learning environment stimulating, conducive and interactive in order to promote learning and help children to develop positive attitude towards nature.

**Early Childhood Environmental Education**
Early Childhood Environmental Education (ECEE) in absolute sense may not necessarily be the formalized type where a teacher interacts with learners through the medium of, or instrumentality of the lesson plans. In the context of this writing ECEE is used to generally represent with the exposure of children to the outdoors. It further indicates how the adult members of the society help to create members of the society help to create environmental awareness in the young children so as to enable them to appreciate the awesomeness of nature. It demands that parents, educators and care-givers should guide their children and wards to think and relate positively to nature (Robertson, 2008).

Environmental Education at the early stages of life should be more responsive to the developmental needs and tasks characteristic of that stage of life. This is only possible when it is focused more on play, discovery and exploration, rather than formal instruction (Armitage, 2007, Boyle, 2006 & White, 2006).

According to Wilson (1996) ECCE captures that critical time in the life of children when they do not only exist in their most impressionable states of being but, are also powerful agents of change. Corroborating the above view Louv (2007) argues that the early childhood period is when most people develop their phobias of and their affections for the natural world around. These arguments go to support the claim for a connection between a child’s early life experience and the development of attitudes as well as the way of appreciating and understanding the world around us.

The precocious nature of the early childhood kid demands that enough opportunity be provided for hands-on experiences that will enable them to construct their knowledge base or foundation (Paget, 1947 & Bandura, 1997). By this approach ECEE children are guided to develop positive and beneficial attitudinal dispositions to nature and the world around (Robertson, 2008). This could be implied in the words of Wilson (2006) when he argued that rural-bound children who consistently experience nature tend to develop more positive attitudes towards it than their urban-based peers. However, positive relationship between children and nature can be enhanced by reinforcing nature-based experiences of their early life (Hungerford & Volk, 1990).

Stressing the critical need to expose children early enough to environmental education Rachel Carson (1956) in her work titled “Help your Child to Wonder” observed as follows:

> For the child, it is not half so important to know as to feed. If facts are the seeds that later produce knowledge and wisdom, then the emotions and the impressions of the senses are the fertile soil in which the seeds must grow. It is more important to pave the way for a child to want to know than to put him on a diet of facts that he is not ready to assimilate.

The imperative of Carson’s message is the need to create a sense of wonder and inquisition in the young impressionable minds of the kid-learners, helping them to appreciate early in life, the value of childhood experiences in nature. Children need therefore to be connected with nature as early as it is possible in their life-space, through both formal and informal designs.

Scholars of repute have confirmed that development of creativity, power of imagination and inquisition in people that manifest in later stages of life has a direct bearing with early childhood experiences with nature. This claim as supported by Devall, (1984), Sebba (1991) and way and manner such people interact with the natural world. Childhood
encounters with places of nature such as caves, forests, rivers, etc in their exploratory activities have positive correlation with their later life attitudes towards such nature's resources as adults. It is therefore imperative that nature be “cultivated” in the minds of children as well as in the physical areas not naturally endowed for the benefits of children. Such areas include 'green' development (integrating green plants in environmental projects), walks ways, children’s amusement parks, play grounds, lawns. that are well tended, potting of plants (in door/out door species) and use of hydroponics could produce amazing environmental experiences for young children, who should be encouraged to regularly visit such nature’s corners and engage in natural activities.

Issues in Early Childhood Environmental Education (ECEE) Curriculum

Critical issues on ECEE as addressed in this paper are summarized as follows:

i. Making ECEE mainstream of Early Childhood Care Education programme.
ii. Sustaining ECEE in the paradigm of curriculum and schooling.
iii. Connecting young children with the natural world.
iv. Creating outdoor play environments for children to be embellished with natural ornamental plant species.
v. Introducing children to Environmental Education through everyday exposure to experiences they can understand appreciate and relish.
vi. Connecting kids to nature family activities: Activities should be constructed to support instruction and learning in environmental science, biology, gardening and human geography. Such activities should be designed to have a little fun and excitement for the kids. On daily basis, children should be engaged in thinking about the environment as a 'living entity', and the future as well as the relative importance and utility of sustainable and culturally acceptable environmental practices.

vii. Early Childhood Care Education (ECEE) curriculum should emphasize engaging children in the following environments sustainability areas of prime importance;

- gardening and floriculture
- composting and waste management
- energy conservation and renewal
- green play experiences
- recycling and reused of bio non degradable resources.
- sustainable food practices.

Recommended Curriculum for Effective Early Childhood Environmental Education

Sustainable and effective ECEE can be achieved through:

1. Games designed to assist children to learn from nature in very insightful and joyful ways.
2. Bringing outdoors into the classroom by the use of play-toys made from natural materials such as clay, wood and other crafted works, keeping of potted plants (especially flowering species), live animals in cages and aquaria for aquatic species.
3. Simulating nature and important natural phenomena bordering on environment such as birds, wildlife, rivers, lightening, erosion, night-sky, environmental pollution and climate change.
4. Telling of stores and folk-tales with nature and environmental significance.
5. Organizing contests, fun fairs and exhibitions with thematic emphasis on environment and nature.
6. Organizing of field trips and excursion to natural landscapes and historic sites.
8. Establishing agency that will form time to time organize competition for children with the intension of working across generations sharing their interactions and experiences.
9. Establishing nature nursery school centres far preschoolers where the teaching of environmental education will be accessible to children from diverse backgrounds.
10. Regular seminars, workshops and conferences for ECEE teachers so as to keep abreast of currency in environmental education with special reference to environmental degradation management, pollution, pollutants, climate change and effects of human activities.

Conclusion:
This paper has attempted to X-ray the nature, scope and processes of Early Childhood Environmental Education. It concluded by making some recommendations on strategies with curriculum implication as a way of guaranteeing the realization of EE objectives.

References

GEOGRAPHIC AND PRODUCT DIVERSIFICATION FACILITATING AN IMPROPER DISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH

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Abstract

This paper is aimed to show evidence about unbalanced wealth distribution in Mexico, affording more information, knowledge and sensitivity from citizens and Mexican government on behalf of looking for an equitable economic development and increasing the national welfare are the objective from this investigation. Across the assumption: “The growth of FEMSA from geographical and product diversification cannot be considered as a directly proportional indicator to the increase personal and economic welfare of their workers”. Was used a qualitative methodology, running an indicators analysis and FEMSA’s workers and former workers interviews. The result was that the assumption is correct being relevant and necessary to generate measures allowing a balanced wealth distribution and a real growth of national economy.

Keywords: Geographical diversification, product diversification, wealth distribution.

Resumen

Este trabajo tiene por objetivo mostrar evidencia de la desequilibrada concentración de la riqueza en México, permitiendo mayor información, conocimiento y sensibilidad de los ciudadanos y del gobierno mexicano en pro de buscar estrategias para un desarrollo económico equitativo e incrementar el bienestar nacional resulta el objetivo de la presente investigación; a través del supuesto: “El crecimiento que presenta FEMSA a partir de estrategias como diversificación geográfica y de producto no puede considerarse como un
indicador con efecto directamente proporcional al incremento de bienestar personal y económico de sus trabajadores”. Se empleó metodología cualitativa realizando un análisis de indicadores económicos del país así como entrevistas a Trabajadores y Extrabajadores FEMSA. El resultado es que el supuesto se cumple, siendo relevante y necesario generar medidas que permitan una concentración equilibrada de la riqueza y con ello un crecimiento real de la economía nacional.

**Palabras clave:** Diversificación geográfica, diversificación de producto, distribución de la riqueza.

### 1. Introduction

Despite the great diversity of natural resources and the potential to be a country with a strong economy, is a fact that Mexico has been dwindling. There are economic indicators such as the gross domestic product (GDP) apparently showing good results and positive annual growth in the country. However, if it is checked out the quality of life of the population, the reality is that no improvements are identified over time. On the otherwise, the National Consumer Price Index (Índice Nacional de Precios al Consumidor, INPC) as of April 2013 compared to April 2012, has shown an increase of 4.65%, higher percentage of 2013 against a salary increase for 2013 of 3.9% before inflation of 4.1%

Mexican companies play a crucial role to bring positive growth to the national economy and by logic correspondence it has improved the quality of life of the population. However, it has been identified major contradictions between these indicators because there are companies that contribute to 9% national GDP, lower wage increases to inflation and a basic basket at a high price. So there is concern to develop this article in order to show evidence of the unbalanced concentration of wealth in the country, to allow greater information, knowledge and sensitivity of both the citizens and the Mexican government towards the search for strategies to achieve equitable economic development and a real increase of national welfare.

The study is conducted through the analysis of the Mexican company Fomento Economico Mexicano SA (FEMSA) from the perspective of agency theory and External Governance Mechanism "Market for Corporate Control” better known as "Market Mergers and Acquisitions".

### 2. Background of the problem

Over time, through various research studies focused on market structures, it has been sought the welfare loss associated with the presence of monopoly power (Young, 1996), where one of the dimensions of the dynamic problem is the degree of monopoly entry barriers (Young, 1996). The results that have been generated determine that is potentially significant the welfare loss due to monopoly.

On the other hand, vertical acquisitions, which are the main external governance mechanism, better known as Takeover Market or Market Mergers and Acquisitions (Peng, 2010) have been considered as one of the first choices for growth firms, even studies have shown that firms with either resource constraint to generate innovation and development or to implement their innovations and new developments, are favored with vertical
acquisitions, since the firms that have innovation but not have the resources for implementation, integrate with other firms that have the resource for this implementation but which has the restriction of not having innovation and developed required to stay in the market (Brocas, 2002).

Another aspect or situations that may favor the generation of mergers and acquisitions is the failure of internal governance mechanisms, as administrators identify an opportunity to reorder or differently deploy assets of a certain company. They are interested to create a new value and an alternative that is a Vertical Acquisition. Support logic can be identified from the perspective of agency theory (Peng, 2010).

Vertical integration as usual has been considered as a strategy for increasing the welfare of the company (Hamilton and Lee, 1986), though not necessarily so, as indeed may favor to increase market power. However, it is not conducive in reducing transaction costs and improving production technologies (Hamilton and Lee, 1986) and when it comes to the welfare of society, vertical integration favors higher goods and services, damages economy of grassroots and popular sectors, middle class and farmers, businessmen and traders who are in need to purchase raw materials at higher cost (Castañeda and Rodríguez, 2009).

3. Definition of the problem

The economic situation is becoming increasingly difficult for the population and is often heard on the news that the expected economic growths are not achieved according to the forecasts estimated by experts. The population on the other hand exposes more frequently than the price of basic goods has grown as ever and increasingly normal goods are acquired with effort, referring it to that of products with price elasticity very close to 0. The principle of substitution effect is not met in full. Thus, the demand will not decrease substantially. However, to obtain components of the basic basket should be a major release of cash from consumers, who for this article it is referred as consumers, to the Mexican population.

Meanwhile, when it comes to private enterprise, it is continually identified procurement events either horizontal or vertical, foreign direct investment (FDI), private sector participation in the national GDP to 9%. In short, there is a whole arena where different management teams can compete for the rights of ownership of corporate assets (Peng, 2010).

FEMSA in the Mexican national case, has been gaining increasing market strength through integration strategies that have enabled it to develop a cluster (Peng, 2010), so that has a range of products in the market that do not relate to each other, a strategy that provides competitive advantage and therefore a hierarchy such in the market over time will be of easier acquisition of new firms. However, the apparent success of the Mexican firm FEMSA contradicts the current reality of the Mexican people located across complicated economies.

Thus, there is the research question: Is the growth of FEMSA representing also an improvement in the economic and personal
4. Justification

In general, in view of all, being a worker in a private company of great reputation and excellent positioning, translates to a good quality of life of the worker, a good salary, secured economic stability and also personal stability. In Mexico, the talk of Fomento Economico Mexicano SA (FEMSA) is no exception, because it has FEMSA over time since its inception in 1890, transcending and diversify with particular strategies and cutting edge. Thus, FEMSA has managed to position itself in the Mexican population as one of the major undertaking, successful and also as a good career choice.

However, looking from a different perspective and to have an effect on this, focused specifically on FEMSA, what is the level of reality that exists in the perception of increased intrinsically expected welfare to work in the private sector?

For its part, gross domestic product per capita (GDP) of Mexico has shown positive growth over time (Fondo Monetario Internacional, 2013). However, and generally, for the country, have not been good economic growth expectations, the inflation rate annual increases year after year and it is known that the Mexican country is recognized as one that manages lower wages and salaries around the world (Fondo Monetario Internacional, 2013), in contrast to the National Index of Consumer Prices, showing high prices of the basic basket and with an increasing trend during the first half of 2013 (Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía, 2013).

The growth that FEMSA presents is the result of strategies such as geographical and product diversification, which is strongly recognized as successful, causing the organization to achieve positioning increasingly strengthened. But it sounds incongruous and unreasonable that the welfare of their workers do not improve as the improvement of the organizational situation from the point of view of the business. Thus, it is fully justified the intention to make research relevant to the existence of economic and social well-being of workers and logical same increase reported by FEMSA, expected as a result of excellent performance of each of the operating units that make Fomento Economico Mexicano SA.

5. Research assumption

The growth from FEMSA presents strategies such as geographical and product diversification cannot be considered as an effective indicator directly proportional to increase personal and economic welfare of its workers.

6. Theoretical and conceptual framework

A. Vertical integration

Although the concept of mergers and acquisitions is used with some frequency, acquisitions are those that actually run the most. Acquisitions refer to the transfer of control of the assets, operations and management of one firm to another (Peng, 2010), so that the firm is transferred and it becomes an additional unit of the firm that receives the transfer.
There are three main categories of mergers and acquisitions: Horizontal, vertical and conglomerate, where horizontal acquisitions represent those performed by receiving transfer companies before the acquisition was a competitor in the same industry (Peng, 2010). Vertical acquisitions are those that enable firms to acquire either their suppliers, their customers (Peng, 2010) or allowing them to expand their operations through the implementation of activities traditionally undertaken by suppliers or distributors and finally, the clusters that are defined as transactions between firms belonging to unrelated products industries (Peng, 2010).

The vertical acquisitions are one of the first strategies that companies consider for the advancement of their firms (Patlán and Navarrete, 2009) and that could strategically gain allies equally efficient and competitive as any organization (Hamilton, 2003). Therefore, it becomes a competitive advantage for companies. It also represents a strategy to increase or decrease the level of control over the inputs and outputs level of the firm (Patlán and Navarrete, 2009).

Among the advantages of vertical acquisitions there is a decrease in transaction costs, ease of obtaining supplies, improve coordination and create greater barriers to entry (Patlán and Navarrete, 2009). Meanwhile, one of the disadvantages is the damage that is generated when an external agent makes decisions. This is due to the imbalance between the plants that now form one unit.

Finally, vertical acquisitions show as one of its main consequences a change in the market structure (Patlán and Navarrete, 2009) generating a heterogeneous distribution of wealth and unbalanced.

B. Agency theory

The separation of ownership from shareholders and managers control refers to what it is known today as the agency theory, which is the most dominant among the theories of Strategic Management (Vargas-Hernández, 2005). The generation of a set of rules (rules of the game) within firms, allows to develop rights and obligations of workers and to achieve the most optimal minimization of opportunism within the organization. This is a beneficial result of new forms of governance are implemented within companies (Vargas-Hernández, 2005).

However, it is inherently the presence of conflicts among the members of an agency relationship (principal-agent), since interest between them is not always focused towards a common goal. Thus, while stockholders (principals) are focused to achieve a maximization of shareholder value in the long term, managers (agents) can focus more to maximize their own power, income and benefits (Peng, 2010). Asymmetry of information, value-destroying acquisitions, and working consumption executive compensation are examples of agency conflicts.

To control the proliferation of agency problems, shareholders generate major institutional structures through mechanisms such as accountability, transparency and accountability (Vargas-Hernández, 2005) in such a way that there are present agency costs, arising from the cost of monitoring and control to the agents by the principal, the cost of bonding agents for residual waste and non-aligned interest (Peng, 2010).
C. Monopoly

It is a concession granted by the competent authority to a company to take advantage on an exclusive basis any industry or commerce (Diccionario de la Real Academia Española, 2013). Within the monopoly, the seller can deliver any package of goods or services to a market in hopes of better their quality (Anton y Biglaiser, 2012). Thus, when it is perceived a good quality and having no other alternatives to purchase at a different price, the consumer chooses to access the cash detachment demanded by the only company in the market, despite the increased cost of goods.

In this form, the monopoly generates less consumer surplus, hampers the consumer welfare and further damage crucial in the economy of the middle class, small and medium entrepreneurs and traders who in a forced way should acquire unique goods and services in the market (Castañeda and Rodriguez, 2009).

A concentration almost absolute of power in one or few actors who share the idea to preserve at any cost is the prospect of monopoly displayed by Castaño and Rodríguez (2009). These analysts suggest a thorough analysis of Article 28 of the Mexican Constitution which states that: In the United Mexican States is prohibited the monopolies, therefore, the law severely punish any concentration or hoarding on one or a few hands of essential consumer goods (Constitución Política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, 2013). This is due to the negative effects that have been identified by the loss of welfare through monopolies (Yoon, 2004).

7. Fomento Economico Mexicano SA (FEMSA)

Fomento Economico Mexicano S. A. (FEMSA, 2013) is a company that manufactures and markets consumer products. It began operations in 1890 and throughout its career FEMSA has shown solid growth and an efficient performance. So that currently it is consolidated into four business units: Coca-Cola FEMSA, FEMSA Comercio, Strategic Procurement (Material Packaging and Logistics) and accounts for 20% of the shares of the Heineken group.

FEMSA has a presence in 9 countries, which are made up of Argentina, Brazil, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, Colombia, Philippines (newest merger, incorporated in January 2013) and Venezuela. Regarding the industries in which FEMSA has entered as part of its business strategy besides carbonated drinks can be considered as the main marketing activity, are Non-carbonated drinks (Jugos del Valle, Matte Leao, and Brisa bottled water), the dairy Industry (REMIL), packaging materials, distribution and logistics, beer and pharmacies.
With respect to growth of FEMSA within Mexican national framework from January 2011 began a series of mergers in the soft drink industry that caused it increasingly less the amount of bottling Coca-Cola system (Terra, 2013) so that by January 2013, they go from being 13 to 8 bottling Coca-Cola system. FEMSA (the case study) has merged with Grupo Tampico, Cimsa, Queretano Development, Yoli Group and regarding no carbonated drinks Jugos del Valle, thus having 57% stake in Coca-Cola system in Mexico, as well as being the largest public bottler of Coca-Cola products in the world in terms of sales (FEMSA, 2013).

7. Contextual framework

The analysis will favor to show whether or not an effect directly is related to increased welfare of workers in FEMSA regarding geographic and product diversification. It also is showing itself to dimension to the activities of FEMSA related expansion in 2012, the first quarter of 2013 and the short-term projections already that are covered by the company. Likewise, economic indicators will be contemplated at the end of 2012 as well as experiences of employees and former employees of Coca-Cola FEMSA, plant Morelia.

8. Research methods

The research undertaken was qualitative, since it is performed data analysis both of the
Mexican economy and the expansion that has now presented FEMSA. Additionally, a series of interviews with current and former employees of Coca-Cola FEMSA plant Morelia, with the intent to identify and assess the economic and personal well-being of mind to work (agents). Therefore, the variables of this study, are defined as follows:

A. Independent variable: The growth from FEMSA presents strategies such as geographic and product diversification.

B. Dependent Variable: The increased personal and economic well-being of staff working in FEMSA.

Analytical studies were conducted focused on the economic indicators of the country with the intention of showing the current situation in the quality of life of the population, identifying those that at the simple view show advancing of very positive impact on the nation. However, if they are not properly observed, could be consistently incurring in a serious error to consider that the Mexican population actually moves favorably on a greater social economy when actually the opposite is true. Such it is in the case of GDP per capita, which actually shows growth or decline but only in production of goods and services from businesses regardless of income distribution. It is essential to identify the real benefit of the population and therefore, to cover part of the present objective.

With respect to FEMSA growth analysis, it is generated a compilation of information which clearly identified the geographical and product diversification that FEMSA has shown within the previously defined conceptual framework. It is done in such a way as to show any growth dimensions FEMSA has reached in recent years as well as its short-term planning in favor of continuing its growth.

Interviews were conducted with current and former employees of Coca-Cola FEMSA Morelia plant with the intention of identifying a more accurate and objective agency problems to which both the company (principal) and workers (agents) have had face. Thus, the principal-agent relationship continue taking place despite minimizing the effects of personal well-being generated due to this ambitious and challenging objectives FEMSA has proposed throughout its participation in the Mexican market with the intention to remain a highly competitive business.

Conducting interviews with current and former employees should not be considered as a casual situation. However, the cause of having established this frame was to reach to visualize if there are differences in the appreciation of both workers and former welfare workers perceived for them. In the case of the former employees, they could give a fuller appreciation since they have a clear perspective regarding the improvement or not for their welfare while worked for FEMSA compared to their experiences after they have left the company. It is important to highlight that the interviewed former workers left the company by choice, not considered themselves for the sample of respondents with the recessions of contracts cases as that would bias an overview of information and analysis from two viewpoints different than for purposes of present study it is not convenient to mix.

9. Results

When analyzing growth contrast between FEMSA and Country Economic indicators, it
identifies that FEMSA growth indicators regarding the country economic indicators do not show a positive impact on the current socio-economic welfare of their workers. FEMSA continues to diversify in both vertical and horizontal forms inside and outside of its home country. Its recent acquisitions in January and May 2013 was relating to the business unit of FEMSA Commerce. Now FEMSA focuses on the pharmaceutical industry, which can be seen the presence of a monopoly, because when looking increasingly to integrate a great number of industries, there will be fewer competitors and accumulation of wealth in the same hands.

The units recorded at the end of 2012 in current prices and national currency for the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), are of 134,949.769 (Fondo Monetario Internacional, 2013), a variation of 6.66% in favor compared to 2011. Meanwhile, the percentage change in the inflation recorded at the end of 2012 was 4.11% (Fondo Monetario Internacional, 2013). As noted, the GDP growth rate in 2012 is higher than the inflation in 2012 so that what must be, from a macroeconomic approach, would see an increase in wages not less than inflation, however, the increase in wages for 2013 was only 3.9% (Comisión Nacional de los Salarios Mínimos, 2012).

Finally, regarding the National Consumer Price Index (Índice Nacional de Precios al Consumidor, INPC) as of April 2013 compared with April 2012, according to data from Instituto Nacional de Estadística y Geografía (2013) has shown an increase of 4.65%, which puts in manifesto that paid personnel by FEMSA for purposes of this research has not shown an improvement in their quality of life. Further, according to the figures of FEMSA showing growth during the last five years, it could be inferred that the concentration of wealth in Mexico is not still right for increased citizen welfare.

FEMSA, an organization that belongs to the Mexican private sector and has important contributions to national GDP exhibits in its statements of results that earnings are higher year after year. However, expectations of economic development continue to decline and the level of life of the Mexican population do not shows any significant improvement.

Conducted interviews were quite accurate in its results. It was very clear that the principal-agent relationship in Coca-Cola FEMSA is burdensome for operators and a major challenge for the principal. The staff personnel currently working for the company FEMSA describes several similar agency problems, among which are:

A. Salaries and wages are unsuitable or balanced with the workload.
B. Profit sharing is inconsistent with respect to the total income reported by the company.
C. Unbalanced workloads.
D. Asymmetry of information between managers and subordinates.
E. High rate of staff personnel turnover.
F. Little fairness in staff promotion processes.

Workers in Coca-Cola FEMSA plant Morelia generally perceive no improvement in their welfare. They are immersed in a work routine that helps them to meet their needs. Also, the strategies that the company has considered to continue its diversification generate significant dissatisfaction in its staff.
The former workers interviewed report an improvement in their welfare once they made the decision to leave FEMSA, which although does not mean that currently receive a higher income, they have provided evidence that there is a great difference between the agency problems that have subsequent faced in Principal-Agent relationships compared to those experienced in FEMSA. The work under labor pressure, not respecting the workday, inconsistency in information and payment regarding unbalanced workloads, are conditions experienced in FEMSA and subsequently presented a pro improving the quality of life for former FEMSA workers.

10. Conclusion

Mexican companies have great potential to develop successful strategies for expansion and diversification. Thus, that they can satisfy an international market with goods and / or services of high quality, a clear example is FEMSA. Currently it has presence in 9 countries. However, the welfare being perceived by the company FEMSA regarding increase in profits year after year is not reflected in their workers. Agency problems are obvious and widespread with greater impact on those concerning the economic well-being. Thus, the assumption of this investigation is met.

It is absolutely necessary the relevance, objectivity and authority not colluding to open the doors to the development of markets that enable competition, providing more control and restrictions on the generation of state monopolies and oligopolies. Finally, private corporatism when there exists tends to impose rules, violate consumer rights and / or agents and impoverish the population (Castañeda and Rodríguez, 2009).

In Mexico it is becoming more important and need the display to achieve a concentration of wealth with greater balance and therefore REAL growth of the national economy.

References

CONTENDING PERSPECTIVES ON DEVELOPMENT: A CRITICAL APPRAISAL

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Abstract
There is no doubt that various scholarly studies were carried out on Development in Nigeria; there are still gaps to be filled. This is due to the fact that scholars tend to generally concentrate on the study of aspects of Development and the history of poverty in Nigeria. The paper therefore provided in sight on the gaps left on touched by scholars with a view to proffering space for this work in previous works. Specifically, the paper seeks to give a critical appraisal of theories of development with particular reference to Nigeria. To achieve this, the paper is divided into sections on introduction/conceptual clarification of the key concept (development), highlights on the types of development. Discussion in this section leads to the spine of the paper which is a critical appraisal of development theories where theories such as (the Functionalist, Marxist, Modernization, Dependency and World system) were critically appraised. The paper is premised on the three fundamental questions asked by Seer in an attempt to assess the level of development of a nation. The questions are: what happened to poverty, what happened to unemployment, what happened to inequality? If these variables are on the decline from high level, then beyond doubt there has been a period of development of the country concerned. But if one or two of these central indicators are going worse, it will be strange to call the result as development even if the national income has developed like in the case of Nigeria. Considering the level of poverty and unemployment and the wide gap between the rich and the poor, one can argue that this assertion is very relevant in an attempt to establish a link between these problems and the level of development in the country. The final section of the paper draw conclusion where attempt was made at suggesting two perspectives as framework for analyzing the developmental plight of Nigeria.

Key words: Development, Theories, Nigeria, Appraisal, Poverty, Unemployment, Inequality

1. Introduction
Development has been defined variously. The economists and administrators are, of course explicit, defining development in terms of increases in elaborate quantitative indices of national product, income, consumptions, etc., though there are, sometimes contradictory definitions. Pitt (1976:32) uses development in the very general sense of the perceived increased effectiveness of social and economic activities and functions of the society or situation and in the range of options open to people. Ultimately, Pitt sees development as the perceived improvement in the quality of life, even when this means fewer goods and services. According to Walter Rodney, development is a many-sided process in human society. At the individual level, it means increased skill and capacity, greater freedom, self-discipline etc. At the societal level, development encompasses an overall approach in which a particular society has become capable of realizing its potentials in several spheres of life-political, economic, social etc.

Historically, the meaning of development or development of society was equated to economic growth. Adam Smith in his classical economic theory developed the idea that for a society to develop it needs first, economic growth i.e economic growth is equal to development. The classical theorists believe that development will come about naturally if there is increase in income, production of goods, services and wealth. (Dansabo, 2006:73).

Development on the other hand is multi-dimensional (Seers, 1973:82). Seers accepts the economic meaning to be central having radical implications on the political, social and cultural aspects. This implies that development may be equated to economic growth provided that the latter leads to the combating of social and political problems. In his article 'The meaning of development’ he identified three fundamental questions to be asked about development of a country. These are what happened
to poverty, what happened to unemployment, what happened to inequality? If these variables are on
the decline from high level, then beyond doubt there has been a period of development of the
country concerned. But if one or two of these central indicators are going worse, it will be strange to
call the result as development even if the national income has developed like in the case of Nigeria.
Considering the level of poverty and unemployment and the wide gap between the rich and the poor,
one can argue that this assertion is very relevant in an attempt to establish a link between these
problems and the level of development in the country.

2. **Types of Development**

There are many types of development such as economic development, social development, political
development, cultural development and administrative development. But for the purpose of this
paper economic and social development shall be considered.

According to Jary, J 2000:173 Collins internet linked dictionary of sociology, social and economic
development has to do with any change which results in increased economic productivity and
prosperity, and new and more complex forms of social structure and organization. The study of such
development was a central concern of classic sociological theory. Economic and social development
is usually used to refer to the specific process of industrialization in both its socialist and capitalist
forms.

Social development should be seen in conjunction with cultural development. Social development is
a reflection of the quality of life of individuals and groups in a society and the way they perceive and
interpret the world around them. It could also be understood by reference to the existence and access
to the ordinary man of certain basic facilities which enhance his/her wellbeing. The availability of
these physical facilities should also enable the enhancement of psychological wellbeing of the people.

There are thus some indicators of social development as follows:

1. **Improved education:** This refer to the ability of an individual to read and write and the
   acquisition of skills as well as the general enlightenment by many members of the society.
   Education leads to the improvement in the quality of manpower and productivity of the
   society. Education is also the engine of technological advancement; its advancements also
   has implications on all aspects of life of the society. According to Oghuvbu (2007:27)
   development may be difficult in poor countries without qualitative and quantitative
   education. He further argued that” it may be difficult for a country to achieve economic
development through education, if a high percentage of the population is living below or at
poverty levels with series of hygienic problems”. Commenting on the educational situation
in Nigeria, Amzat (2009:159) argued that “the problem of education in Nigeria could…be
traced to lack of proper public investment in education”.

2. **Improved health care delivery:** This is also an important indicator of social development.
   Health care delivery is brought about by the provision of curative and preventive services.
   The effect of which is a fall in infant mortality, increase life expectancy of the people and an
   increase in the productivity of the labour force. It is said that health is wealth.

3. **Provision of adequate housing facilities:** This reflects the standard of living and the general
   condition of the society. No society can be regarded as developed when majority of its
   people sleep under bridges, market squares, patched and thatched houses.

4. **Provision of adequate infrastructural facilities:** This includes water, energy, good transport
   system and communication network necessary for modernization.
5. Increase urbanization: Historically, there is correlation between social development on the one hand and the level of urbanization on the other hand. A higher urbanized society is easily amenable for development action. It means that urbanization is both a reflection and a stimulus to development.

6. Structural transformation: As a society develops, the basic social units of that society undergo definite changes bringing about structural changes.

7. Increase in social mobility: This means the physical movement of people from one geographical area to another for different reasons but usually for socio-economic and political reasons. It also refers to the ability of members of a society to achieve higher social standard on the basis of their abilities and achievement.

8. Cultural change: When there is socio-cultural development the values and beliefs of society undergo drastic change; language as a mechanism of communication becomes more functional and changes on things such as arts, literature, music, mode of dressing, sports and other forms of entertainment. The availability and access to the facilities to the ordinary citizen implies that his wellbeing is enhanced materially or physically.

On the whole a society is said to be socially develop if it is able to achieve environment in which the material as well as the psychological forms serve to improve social efficiency e.g people get to work on time, emergencies in the hospitals get prompt attention; the educational system turn out highly skilled and motivated individuals, even the attitude to work change for better.

Economic development on the other hand has to do with the establishment of an economic system capable by itself to raise and maintain production and the income levels of all groups in the society. The standard measurement of economic development in the capitalist countries is increased in national income or GNP measured periodically, usually annually. However, increase in production and income level should not be automatically equated with development unless such an increase leads to the improvement of standard of living of all segments of the population and the solution of socio-economic problems of the society.

When analyzing the concept of economic development, a distinction should be made between it and economic growth. Economic growth refers to quantitative improvement or increase of resources or wealth of society over time. Such increase may be brought about by introduction of new technology, discovery of new resources, and good harvest from favorable weather condition from predominantly agricultural society. Each of these may result to increase in production or income. Economic development as far as it concerns increase in production of goods and services can only be achieved if there is high degree of organization based on a far reaching division of labour. The process of economic development requires qualitative change in the structure of the economy without which internally generated growth cannot be sustained over time. Other elements of economic development include:

a. High level of employment.

b. Low level of inflation.

c. Improve infrastructural facilities such as transport, communication network, water supply and energy.

d. Low level of poverty.
Development therefore, when used in the context of this paper refers to the process of utilizing both human and material resources for the benefit of generality.

3. An Appraisal of Development theories

Development theory is a conglomeration of theories about how change in society is best to be achieved. Such theories draw on a variety of social scientific disciplines and approaches. There are several theories of development. Most theories about development emphasize the external influence whether beneficial (as in development propaganda) or exploitative (as in Marxist explanations) (Pitt, 1976).

3.1 The Functionalist Perspective

The Functionalist examines structure and institutions in the society (Mohammed, n.d). The French sociologist Emile Durkheim develops the concept of functionalism which stresses the interdependence of the institutions of society and their interaction in maintaining cultural and social unity. His famous work is “The Division of Labour in Society” which describes how social order was to be maintained in a society and how primitive societies might make the transition to more economically advanced industrial societies. Durkheim suggested that in a capitalist society, with a complex division of labour, economic regulation would be needed to maintain order. He stressed that the major from a primitive social order to a more advanced industrial society could otherwise bring crisis and disorder. Durkheim further developed the idea of social evolution, which indicates how societies and cultures develop over time, much like a living organism, essentially saying that social evolution is like biological evolution with reference to the development of its components. Like organisms, societies progress through several stages generally starting at a simplistic level and then developing into a more complex level. Societies adapt to their surrounding environments, but they interact with other societies which further contribute to their progress and development (Wikipedia, free encyclopedia).

There are important differences between functionalists authors, the main tenets of the structural functionalist theory are:

a. Modern society is contrasted with traditional society which is seen as hindering economic development;

b. Change occurs through evolutionary stages which are broadly similar for all societies;

c. Third World countries need agents of change to help them break out of tradition;

d. Such agents of change may either come from within the society, such as modernizing elites, or may come from outside, for example with the injection of capital or education models;

e. Dual economies and dual societies may exist in contemporary 3rd world countries. Some regions persist in traditional forms, whilst others, especially urban areas, experience modernization;

f. Both preferred and likely outcome are societies similar to those in Western Europe and the US.

It is obvious from the above that the functionalists’ view of development could be likened to the postulations of the Modernization theory. The argument here is that the primitive societies are expected to copy and follow the path of advanced industrial societies. This pattern of relationship as will be seen in a later part of the review has detrimental negative effects to the traditional or underdeveloped societies.
3.2 The Marxist Perspective

The Marxist theory is based on materialism. The school of thought has been described as idealistic and normative in nature. The thrust of the theory is that society is held together by power and coercion for the benefit of those in power. The perspective outlines the development of society into stages; from feudalistic stage, agrarian economy, capitalism, socialism and finally communism.

- Feudalism: Under this stage the basic feature of society was such that society lives in the stage of nature-dependent heavily on what natural environment provide for necessities of life. It is also characterized by land ownership i.e feudal lords and slaves. It has no pronounced political institution and there was no money economy. Basically under this system the preoccupation of man was hunting and gathering. The Marxist belief that from the onset society was not form based on inequality but because of the nature of man and greed in him and the desire to accumulate wealth brought about the inequality and exploitation within the system and that with time this two classes will be in conflict between one another for control over the only means of production which is land.

- Agrarian Economy: This stage was not in the ideal Marxist theory but the hand work of neo-Marxist which provide us with a clear picture of the position of some developed countries that have not attain or witness the capitalist level of economic essentiality. The agrarian economic stage is a bridge between the feudal system and the capitalist system. It explains the position which most third world countries belong. The features of an agrarian economy is as follows:
  i. 80% of the economy is agriculture while 20% accounted for modern economy.
  ii. Since 20% accounted for modern economy, it means that there is some level of industrialization.
  iii. The agrarian economy has also witness the introduction of modern currency of exchange and trade is also introduced.
  iv. That modern technology has taken over from traditional method which was in existence in the feudal system.

- Capitalism: Capitalism is an economic system where private ownership and control of the means of production is the general rule. The guiding principle of the capitalist system is profit motive. The prices of commodities are settled by the forces of demand and supply. For this reason, the capitalist system has been accused of being survival of the fittest i.e those who have can acquire more while the have not becomes object of exploitation. Marx views capitalism as a system of exploitation. This situation gave rise to the emergence of three classes:
  The capitalist or the bourgeoisie class.
  The working or the proletariat class.
  The peasantry class. This class is in intensive struggle and that this class struggle was a necessary condition for the birth of new social order called socialism.

Generally speaking capitalism has been developed in international system as result of the quest by the western countries to develop economically through political and economic exploitation of the weaker
nations. The result of this process gave rise to the development of colonialism, which is a system that gave the European nations opportunity to conquer and exploit the material resources of the third world countries. Furthermore, in order for capitalism to survive, the concept of imperialism was used which is basically the economic domination and exploitation of other nations. In summary, capitalism is a system of gross inequality of exploitation and domination. It is also a system characterized by class struggle. The capitalist system was doom for failure; in the Marxist sense, capitalism is a necessary antithesis to the development of socialism.

3.3 Modernization theory

Modernization theory is a theory of development which states that development can be achieved through following the processes of development that were used by currently developed countries. Scholars such as Walt Rostow and A.FK Organski postulated stages of development applying to every country (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia). Samuel Huntington considered development to be a linear process which every country must go through. One key factor in modernization theory is the belief that development requires the developed countries to aid developing countries to learn from their own progress.

In classical sociological theory, modernization was conceptualized by Durkheim as involving a process of social differentiation, by Weber as process of rationalization and by Marx as a process of commodification (Jary and Jary 2000:396).

There are various theories of underdevelopment in backward economies as given by the modernization theorists and this includes the following:

i. Vicious circle of poverty theory: This theory of poverty is one of the numerous theories advanced or put forward by the modernization school of thought to explain the backwardness of the less developing economies. It has been widely used to explain growth and development. The theory believes that the less developed countries have failed to develop because they are engulfed in web of vicious circle of poverty and stagnation. The central thrust of the theory is that the poor nations are underdeveloped because they are poor and they produce poor generations and that poverty means low income which generates low savings which in turn leads to low investment. The theory laid emphasis on the role of saving as an important variable in development. It also demonstrates that low saving is not only a cause but also an effect of initial poverty. Another explanation for the underdeveloped nature of poor nations is derived from the fact that existing low income are unable to provide the necessary required nutritional needs of the people. This in turn impairs the people’s physical efficiency which reduces their productivity and this further perpetuates the low income which is the initial cause of poverty. The brains behind this theory are of the belief that to break the vicious circle of poverty, there has to be injection of massive capital investment from abroad. According to them a mass injection of capital from abroad will raise productivity and income which will in turn generate high savings and this high savings generated will sustain capital formation; this will in turn create profitable investment opportunities which will accelerate productivity and in turn higher income.

Critique of viscous circle of poverty theory

The theory is agreed to have thrown light to the shortages of capital and savings in the less developing countries but savings alone cannot propel or accelerate development. It is not true that the less developed countries do not save rather; there is no incentive to save and no opportunities to re-invest saved income. Finally, the theory is criticized seriously on the ground that it did not incorporate the foreign sector to act as a medium to alleviate the shortage of capital in less developed countries. The recommendation that massive injection of capital from abroad is not acceptable explanation to the development of these backward nations due to the activities foreign firms and
multi-national corporations within these economies which continue to transfer surplus capital to their home countries.

ii. The theory of over population
The growth of world population in relation to natural resources has cast doubt on the improvement of the welfare of mass majority of people. The prospects of international and domestic development are inhibited by the rapid population growth. The present increase in population and the rapidly decreasing food supply posed serious problems to the inhabitants of the world. There exist a dynamic relationship between population and development. The modernization school of thought has used the overpopulation argument to explain or attempt to justify the underdevelopment of backward countries. The contention is that, development is inhibited by rapid population growth and density in relation to natural resources and the rapid growth is a major feature of poor economies which accounts for their underdevelopment. To this theory, high population growth give rise to high supply of labour which in turn leads to high unemployment and this high unemployment leads to low productivity and low productivity give rise to low income and this traces its way back to the high fertility rate of this economies.

Critique of Overpopulation theory
The theory has been criticized on the grounds that it did not address the real causes of underdevelopment in the poor nations and that underdevelopment in these economies cannot be taken as natural. Also, it is not true that high fertility rate is a unique feature of poor nations but the present developed nations at their early stage of development also experienced rapid population growth. Similarly, there is no proper survey to confirm that the less developed countries are overpopulated. Some developing countries are fairly sparsely and densely populated. So to generalize that the less developed countries are overpopulated is to assume that they all have equal resource endowment. More so, what is evidently true of the less developed countries is that their resources are mismanaged and underutilized. So the need to check population growth as indicated by Malthus and Ricardo is necessary. The problem of starvation, low standard of living, unemployment calls for proper population planning. However, the importance of optimum population to development is noted to avoid misallocation of investment resources.

iii. PieroGheddo's four revolution theory
PieroGheddo though a priest joined other western scholars to adduce reasons why some countries are developed and others underdeveloped. In his book “Why is the 3rd world poor?” he explained the phenomenon of development and underdevelopment. A crucial question raised by this theorist in his work is that why have some people started to move forward while others remain motionless or static. The answer to this question was summarized in what he called four revolutions and these four revolutions are referred to as Gheddo’s 4 revolutions. These revolutions he argued have taken place in the West while Third World countries were yet to undergo these revolutions and this is responsible for their underdevelopment. The four revolutions are:

a. The plain of idea: The argument of this revolutionary idea is that men are equal and their dignity is also equal among individuals in the society. He asserted that the Bible revealed this and maintained that man was the king of creatures and superior to all other creatures. That the West was able to attain structural transformation because of Judaism and Christian religion. However according to Gheddo the less developed countries are still ignorant and unaware of this idea and have not accepted the idea of man as the centre of creation. It is believed that these economies see man as any other creature without any special trait or attributes. He asserted that man cannot
progress but remain in a close society and static in what he called the reoccurring circle of nature.

b. The idea of progress: The contention here is that since man is superior to all creatures; therefore, man ought not only to dominate nature but make nature to meet and serve his numerous needs. According to him, the West developed rapidly because of the discovery at a time the sovereign dignity of man over other creatures. According to Gheddo, the less developed countries are static because they lack what he referred to as progressive mentality which characterized the western man. He further argued that the underdevelopment of these economies are found in the non-Christian societies and pre-Christian societies who return to their past and remain closed.

c. Population growth: Population increase in the West, it is argued, took place in circumstance conducive to effort; hence organized in a manner to improve productive potentials leading to rapid economic development. However, Gheddo argued that in the less developed countries men are not aware of their equality and dignity. Increase in population has not led to increase in productivity and attainment of social justice.

d. Science and technology: Here, the revolution concerns itself with the development of science and technology in developed countries which has led to rapid development and science and technology is derived from the plain of ideas. That science and technology are planned efforts to enhance development. Commitment to achieve this strive is a manifestation of prolong planning. He argued further that to transplant science and technology in the less developed countries is not likely to succeed because of what he called cultural differences. In other words, cultural differences inhibit progressive ideas. To him, the less developed countries are not prepared and responsive to the eventual change in their cultural past as those in developed countries have undergone. In other words, science and technology play an important role in the advancement of the advanced countries which led to the existence of new class known as the bourgeoisie class that introduced progressive spirit which is lacking in the less developed countries.

Critique of Gheddo’s four revolutions

Gheddo has been criticized on the grounds that it is not true that Africans in particular and other less developed countries in general lack dynamic progressive social class; rather, intimidation from both within and outside have helped in no small way in causing the underdevelopment of the backward countries. Gheddo’s analysis did not address itself to the main issues of underdevelopment of the less developed countries. The issues include colonialism, imperialism and neo-colonialism which were imposed by the activities of international economies. Secondly, it is also not true that Africans are still dogmatic and traditional and so engulf in a web of rigid socio-cultural pattern that inhibits progress. At any level of development for all colonies and even the advance countries experienced one form of traditionalism or the other. It is equally not true that all nations have to pass through the path followed by the west. Many countries like Japan for example is not a Christian society and yet had witness a lot of progress.

In general while modernization theory understood development and underdevelopment as a result from internal conditions that differ between economies, dependency theory understood development as rational. It saw the world’s nations as divided into a core of wealthy nations which dominate a periphery of poor whose main function in the system is to provide cheap labour and raw materials to the core. Also, modernization theory failed to explain some critical issues patterning the underdeveloped nations such as demographic trends, difference in culture, geographical position, etc.
In sum, the criticisms of various modernization theories came primarily from dependency theory and underdevelopment theorists. The main critical points were:

a. Modernization theory concentrated on internal social processes, thus ignoring the effects of colonialism and neocolonialism on the structure of 3rd world societies;
b. The contrast between modern and traditional was both oversimplified and erroneous. Frank argued that existing 3rd world societies were not in any sense because they had been changed by centuries of contact with Northern countries. The obstacles to change were a creation of this contact;
c. These were not dual societies because often the so-called traditional sector were an integral part of the national economy;
d. The evolutionary approach imposed a western model of development and denied the possibility of novel forms of society emerging in the 3rd world;
e. Behind modernization theory were both political and ideological concerns.

3.4 Dependency theory

Dependency theory is a body of social science theories predicated on the notion that resources flow from a “periphery” of poor and underdeveloped states to a “core” of wealthy states, enriching the latter at the expense of the former (Wikipedia, free encyclopedia). It is a central contention of dependency theory that poor states are impoverished and rich ones enriched by the way poor states are integrated into the “world system”.

Dependency theory was first developed by economists in Latin America in the 1950s in opposition to the prevailing orthodoxy that 3rd world countries could achieve modernization and industrialization by following the examples of the already industrialized world (Jary and Jary 2000:148).

The theory arose around 1960s or 1970s as a reaction to earlier theories of development which held that all societies progress through similar stages of development, that today’s underdeveloped areas are thus in a similar situation to that of today’s developed areas at some time in the past, and that therefore the task in helping the underdeveloped areas out of poverty is to accelerate them along this supposed common path of development, by various means such as investment, technology transfers and closer integration into the world market. Dependency theory rejected this view, arguing that underdeveloped countries are not merely primitive versions of developed countries, but have unique features and structures of their own; and importantly, are in the situation of being the weaker members in a world market economy, whereas the developed nations were never in analogous position; they never had to exist in relation to a bloc of more powerful countries than them (Wikipedia, free encyclopedia). Dependency theorists argued, in opposition to free market economists. The theory opined that the underdeveloped countries needed to reduce their connectedness with the world market so that they can pursue a path more in keeping with their own needs, less dictated by external pressures.

Dependency theory was developed from a Marxian perspective by Paul A. Baran in 1957 with the publication of his The Political Economy of Growth (Vernengo, 2004). Baran’s work inspires Marxist Dependency and World systems theories. Dependency theory was embraced by many Marxists and neo-Marxists. Neo-Marxists insisted that what was called ‘development’ was really a process of capitalist development: the global expansion of the capitalist mode of production at the expense of pre-capitalist ones. And the outcome of such a process might not be ‘real development’ in a sense of better life for people in the Third World at all. The dependency theorists held that for underdeveloped nations to develop, they must break ties with developed nations and pursue internal development growth strategy. According to the neo-Marxists scholars and in particular Andre
Gunder Frank and Samir Amin’s analysis of the development of the Third World countries, they maintain that the relationship between the center i.e. capitalist West and the periphery i.e. Third World countries has remained exploitative. According to them, exploitation is in terms of surplus transfer of capital, goods and raw materials from the periphery to the center, which has perpetuated or maintains the underdevelopment of periphery. The West has been able to maintain its domination and exploitation over the Third world countries through the process of colonialism and imperialism. In other words, the demand for raw materials, cheap labor, goods and services by the European economies gave rise to their desire to control the human and material resources of the Third world.

Another general aspect of the Third world which is an internal problem is their lack of enterprising and administrative talent necessary to initiate developmental policies, programmes and projects and that only the state apparatus is capable of initiating this. Even then, its ruling class is also dependent on western experts who are their Godfathers. Samir Amin, particularly rejected the idea that in all societies there is a kind of dualism whereby some sections are rich while some remain poor. To him and his colleagues, they believe that there is compulsive and direct interference in the transfer of surplus values i.e. wealth and capital from rural areas within the less developed countries to their urban areas and finally from these less developed countries’ periphery to the center (advanced capitalist countries).

Andre Gunder Frank on the other hand contributed to the theory of underdevelopment by studying Latin American countries. According to him, for one to understand underdevelopment in some countries, one must look into their past; economic, social and political structure. He maintains that, in Latin American countries, underdevelopment is as a result of their long centuries’ participation in the expansion and development of the capitalist system. He argues that, the conquest of Chile and other Latin American countries not only incorporated them into the global capitalist network, but it introduced into these countries, monopolistic, metropolis-satellite structure. It also introduced into these countries, development of capitalist economic system. According to Frank, colonialism introduced into countries like Brazil, export economy which resulted into the development of satellite pattern of relationship. He maintains that capitalist expansion in the underdeveloped region brings about satellite development which was neither self generating nor perpetrating. This means that the system does not allow Third world nations’ economy to have forward and backward linkages; it does not allow the economy to control itself rather, controlled by outsiders. For example, oil is a natural resource found in the Third world nations but the Third world nations will wait for the developed countries to use their technology to process these resources for them. In addition, Frank believes that, the most underdeveloped regions or countries in the continent of Latin America were those that closet ties with the metropolitan countries. As such the underdeveloped countries became the source of production of primary products as well as the major source of surplus capital for developed countries. He therefore argued that when the resources of the underdeveloped countries disappeared, the metropolitan countries will abandoned them, and that will be responsible for underdevelopment in those countries.

On a final note, Frank believes that, the expansion and development of capitalism is responsible for the imbalance allocation of resources among the continents of the world. With these developments, the advanced capitalist countries expropriated the surplus capital of Third world nations for their development. Therefore, the satellite countries remained underdeveloped mainly because of lack of access to their own surplus capital. Frank further argued that, the underdevelopment of the Third world nations is not as a result of archaic institutions and capital structures, but it is generated by the same historical process that isolated the Third world nations from the mainstream of history. On the contrary, underdevelopment is generated by the same process of development in some parts of the world.

A critique of the Dependency theory

Dependency theory was very influential in sociology in the 1970s. Whilst often termed neo-Marxist, it came under increasing criticism from Marxist writers. In particular, it has been criticized for
concentrating on market rather than production relations. In one of the rigorous critiques, Taylor (1979) has argued that the central concept of economic surplus is extremely weak. More general criticisms include its relative neglect of the contribution of internal social relations to problems which poor countries face, and the increasing diversity of their experiences (Jary and Jary 2000:149).

The dependency theorists tend to blame outside forces for the underdevelopment of the Third world nations and other social problems within the continent. Ethiopia for example had relatively short contact with the Europeans, yet, it is one of the most underdeveloped nations in the world. The dependency theorists further argued that the Third world nations should break away for them to develop on their own but this assertion has not taken into consideration that there are indigenous exploiters who siphon the societal wealth to the various banks in advanced countries. Similarly, they ignored internal factors contributing to the underdevelopment of Third World countries. The factors are as follows:

i. Problems of politics and planning: For any development objective to succeed, there must be conscious and committed attempt on the part of the people and government in pursuing such objective. Planning problems in the Third world countries are as a result of lack of commitment and political will of the governments of these countries. This lack of commitment stems from greed and corruption which are also endemic characteristics of the Third world societies. Deliberate poor or unserious planning for development in Third world countries is because of the magnitude of corrupt practices.

ii. Low level of living and poverty: This involves low nutrition, poor shelter and clothing and general inadequacy of basic conditions of living and non availability of basic needs of life. The low per capital income is reflected in low living standard of the people. About 75% of the income is spent on food compared to 20% in advanced countries. Most of the people in the 3rd world take starchy food to the total absence nutritional food such as eggs, fish, meat and dairy products. There is also a high rate of infant mortality due to poor nutrition, unsafe water, poor sanitation etc. Other forms of poverty include poor health and education.

iii. High rate of unemployment: One of the core values of development which is employment opportunities is grossly inadequate in Third World countries. These countries are characterized by high rate of unemployment. Only light industrialization is visible; therefore, the sole employer of labour is government and government cannot certainly provide enough employment opportunities. The agricultural sector which is supposed to provide self employment to people has been neglected by some of the Third world countries. In Nigeria for example, agriculture has been neglected; the country now rely on oil at the expense of the development of Agro-Allied activities for capital generation and the creation of employment opportunities.

It is obvious from the above that factors that led to the underdevelopment of the Third world countries are both external an internal. Therefore, to deal with the problems of the Third world countries-Nigeria in particular concerted efforts have to be put in place to tackle both the internal and external factors.

Both Modernization and Dependency theories did not looked at the peculiarity of development problems in Africa. The two theories cannot stand as development concepts for all third world countries.

The supporters of modernization theories assumed that a linear process exists whereby developing countries progressively become industrialized. As said above the reason for the underdevelopment of countries were seen within the different the societies in internal factors, for example, in their tradition or in the lack of sufficient capital investment.

Theories around dependency were based on the assumption that the historical process of the spread of capitalism resulted in the underdevelopment of the periphery, which are called the Third World.
External factors like colonialism, the capitalist world economy and world market integration were considered responsible for the lag in the periphery’s development.

The two theories have been criticized on the following grounds:

i. Difference within the 3rd world: The success within the “Asian tigers” has been the most recent example that theoretical assumptions have been wrong. These theorists had to take into account that major differences existed, for example, between the Asian tiger states, the annuity capital oil countries and the agrarian societies of Africa. Some authors doubt that Third World ever existed: “it is only a product of our roughly hewn analytical categories” (Boeckh, 1993:111).

ii. Problems inherent in the theories: The main argument made against the grand theories is that they raise their heuristic concepts to the level of universal theories of reality. Another common critique maintains that these theories are one-dimensional: Modernization theories reduce the reasons for underdevelopment to internal, the dependency to external factors.

iii. Consequences of the global theories: The modernization and dependency theories did not fail completely; they only fail to live up to their own goal. They cannot stand as development concepts for all 3rd world countries, but they can serve as an analytical framework for future research. Predictions regarding the probability of development, stagnation or underdevelopment require a comparative typology of path of development that has yet to be written. Categories and concepts from grand theories that name the internal and external conditions of development could then lie useful.

In line of the weaknesses of modernization and dependency theories, current thinking has moved away from global explanations, with the exception of neoliberalist paradigms.

3.5 World Systems Theory

World system according to Collins internet linked dictionary of sociology, is “a conception of modern social world which views it as comprising one interlinked entity with an international division of labour unregulated by any one political structure” (p.685).

World systems theory develops in response to some of the criticisms of dependency theory. The division of periphery and center was further divided into trimodal system consisting of the core, semi-periphery and periphery. In this system, the semi-periphery lies between the core and periphery and is exploited by the core and exploits the periphery. World system theory was initiated by Immanuel Wallerstain in, among other writings, world systems analysis, and focuses on inequality as a separate entity from growth in development and examines change in the global capitalist system. One distinguishing feature of the theory is distrust for the state and a view in which the state is seen as a group of elites and that industrialization cannot be equated with development (Wikipedia, free encyclopedia).

A Critique of World Systems Theory

At an earlier stage world system theory has been criticized for overemphasizing the world market while neglecting forces of production. According to Wallerstain himself, critique of the world system comes from four directions: from the positivists, the orthodox Marxists, and the culturalists. The positivists criticized the approach as too prone to generalization, lacking quantitative data and failing to put forth a falsifiable proposition. The orthodox Marxists find the world system too deviating from orthodox Marxists principles, such as not giving enough weight to the concept of social class. The autonomists criticized the theory for blurring the boundaries between states and business. Further, the positivists, the orthodox Marxists and the autonomists argue that the state should be the
central unit of analysis. Finally, the culturalists argue that the world system theory puts too much importance on the economy and not enough on the culture (Wikipedia, free encyclopedia).

4. Concluding Remarks

It is obvious from the foregoing discussion that none of the development theories is devoid of criticisms and more so none originated from Nigeria in particular or Africa as a whole to deal with the developmental intricacies of the country or the region. However, some of the assumptions of the theories could be used in an attempt to explain the developmental problems of Nigeria in particular and Africa in general. For example, Alanana (2010) argued that development and social order have not been genuinely achieved in Nigeria because of her over dependence on Europe during the historical periods of slavery, colonialism and neocolonialism. Forced migration under slavery denied the country the opportunity of advancing further technologically, and politically. He further argued that: “under colonialism, Nigeria was conquered and aggressively incorporated into the global capitalist system... domestic production was oriented away from domestic needs to metropolitan needs of the world imperialist system”.

Apart from orienting production towards the metropolitan needs, monopoly agencies such as the marketing boards, among others were established and assigned the responsibility of fixing prices for agricultural produce such as cocoa, rubber, palm oil, groundnut in favour of Britain and her allies (Ake, 1989). These arguments are in line with the major assumptions of the dependency theories.

In addition to dependency theory, Seers’ argument is thus relevant in an attempt to explain development in Nigeria. As stated earlier, Seers said that there are three fundamental questions to be asked about the development of a country. These are what happened to poverty, what happened to unemployment, what happened to inequality? He argued that if these variables are on the decline from high level, then beyond doubt there has been a period of development of the country concerned. But if one or two of these central indicators are going worse, it will be strange to call the result development even if the national income has developed like in the case of Nigeria. In terms of development in Nigeria there is nothing to write home about as the nation is bedeviled with high level of poverty as a result of unemployment and inequality.

In summary the paper adopted the major assumptions of the dependency theories and Dudley Seers’ indices for measuring development.

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Abstract

Internal branding has been emerging recently as an important issue in marketing field. The purpose of this study is to investigate whether brand orientation and internal marketing practices produce any effect on shaping internal brand equity. A structured questionnaire was prepared for collection of data in banking sector of south Punjab, Pakistan. Based on the findings of this research it is observed that brand orientation and internal marketing practices produce a positive impact on internal brand equity. Partial least square (PLS) regression technique was used to test the model fitness. PLS path model was consisting of two models. One model was describing the relationship among variables while other model was used to test the hypothesis. The findings of this research contribute in existing literature by examining the impact of internal marketing and brand orientation on internal brand equity. Furthermore managers of banking institutions specifically and managers of non banking institution in general, can utilize the findings of this research study to enhance their financial growth through internal brand equity.

Keywords: Internal brand equity; Brand orientation; Internal marketing; bank,

Introduction

Consumers give prime importance to a brand because it leaves a distinctive positioning in the mind of customers; this distinctive position in the minds of customer is associated with specific benefits and perceived emotions (Raj and jyothi, 2011). So the importance of brand is obvious in this perspective. During last two decades, brand management has been central for all marketing activities (Rajiv, Kumar and noble, 2002), which is in realization to brand effectiveness and perception of consumers ( Keller, 1998) and plays an important role in enhancing financial performance of firms (Kerin and sethuraman, 1998). Corporations are trying to utilize the advantages of brand in aligning the personnel so that they can achieve a competitive advantage (Pringle and Thomsan, 2011). It is recognized fact that corporations should be internally coherent in order to achieve external success because workers should get to know how they can be customer conscious ( Mudie, 2003). Customer relationship with marketing personnel is very crucial because marketing agents manage brand for customers (Alexander et al., 2002). There has been a debate on defining brand equity and many theorists agree that it is implicitly a strategic issue. In the past brand equity is mainly
discussed with external aspects but very few researchers have discussed internal aspect of branding (Lynch and de Chernatony, 2004). Author is of the opinion that researchers have not yet investigated influential factors of internal brand equity such as brand orientation and internal marketing. This study attempts to explore impact of influential factors like internal marketing and brand orientation on internal brand equity with the help of proposed model.

**Literature Review**

According to Baumgarth and Schmidt (2009) internal brand equity is an approach that measures the positive effects of branding on employees attitude and it attempts to prepare the employees to behave in a specific manner in order to support brand building activities. Researchers are also of the opinion that an important predecessor of loyalty is brand equity (e.g. Vogel et al., 2008; Taylor et al., 2004). In addition, to achieve loyal employees it is important that internal brand equity practices should be given top most priority (Backhouse, 2004). So managers/owners of organizations should give central importance to influential factors of internal brand equity like internal marketing and brand orientation.

According to Urde (1999) brand orientation is a process in which firms attempts toward creation, protection, development of brand and healthy interaction with customer to achieve competitive advantage. Elements of brand orientation have a positive impact on corporate culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993). Employees of a firms also acknowledge that corporate culture guides their behaviour towards job (Williams and Attaway, 1996) so corporate culture needs to be in line with brand values. (Piercy and Peattie, 1988; Hatch and Schultz, 2001). In their study Baumgrth and Schmidt (2009) explored that internal brand equity is highly affected with brand oriented corporate culture. They developed a model for this purpose. The basis for their model was drawn from the influential model by Schein (1992). Based on above discussion it can be observed brand orientation is positively associated with internal brand equity. So it is suggested that

**H1: internal brand equity is positively affected by brand orientation.**

Internal marketing can be regarded as an approach in which employees of the organization are motivated by satisfying their work related needs Dennis (1995). Majority of researchers is of the opinion that internal marketing practices encourage workers to display positive behaviour when they are interacting with customers (Gronroos, 1981; Gummesson, 1991). Internal marketing is a tool that may bring a change in attitudes of workers and lays the foundation of corporate culture Gronroos (1990). Lee and Chen (2005) accepted that there is considerable impact of internal marketing practices on corporate culture. Internal marketing is all about treating employees as internal customers (Berry and Parasuraman, 1991). There are seven components of internal marketing: external communication, support from management, internal communication, training, human resource management, market research and market dividers (Gronroos, 1990). In existing literature of internal marketing the major emphasis is given to employee motivation and satisfaction. According to Frook (2001), internal marketing practices transfer brand promise to the employees and it is also important for brand orientation because it attempts to develop a motivated workforce to
achieve organizational objectives. Wilson (2001) recognized that internal marketing and organizational culture produce positive effect about brand perception in customer mind. Based on above discussion it is suggested that

**H2: internal-brand-equity is positively affected by internal marketing practices**

**H3: Internal marketing practices influence brand orientation positively.**

![conceptual model](image)

**Figure 1: conceptual model**

**Methodology and data collection**

A questionnaire was developed for exploring the effects of internal marketing and brand orientation on internal brand equity. First part of the questionnaire was adopted from Caruana and Tasi (2008). Similarly the items to measure internal brand equity and brand orientation were derived from, Baumgrth and Schmidt (2009). After developing the questionnaire it was submitted to experts to examine the face validity and content validity and then the final version of questionnaire was prepared. Likert scale was followed to collect the response of questions from respondents. All questions were close ended. One part of questions was about the respondent information like gender, age, education etc. The second part was to investigate the aim of this research study. Author has selected banking industry of south Punjab Pakistan the reason for this selection is that in Pakistan the banking industry
is flourished excellently in Pakistan. For sampling purpose respondents were selected from top level of management and mid level so that proper response can be collected because the idea of internal brand equity is not easily understandable for non managers so for this reason top level management and mid level management was selected. 80 bank branches from the region of south Punjab were selected from private and public sector. Questionnaires were sent out through emails. From each bank one manager from top level (branch manager) and two mid level managers were selected. A total of 240 questionnaires were distributed and 120 fully completed questions were returned so the response rate being 50%.

**Analysis**

Table 1 displays the results of standard deviation and mean. It is observed that internal marketing receives highest mean value (4.36) while internal brand equity is second in mean value (4.18) similarly brand orientation is lowest in terms of mean (4.12). Standard deviation of internal marketing is 0.655 and for internal brand equity it is 0.551 and for brand orientation the value of S.D is 0.582

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables (V)</th>
<th>Standard deviation (SD)</th>
<th>Mean (M)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing</td>
<td>0.655</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal brand equity</td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand orientation</td>
<td>0.582</td>
<td>4.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: results of correlation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Brand orientation</th>
<th>Internal brand equity</th>
<th>Internal marketing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand orientation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal brand equity</td>
<td>0.719</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal marketing</td>
<td>0.788</td>
<td>0.767</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P<0.05 level of significance

Table 2 shows the results of correlation analysis. It is clear from results of table 2 that a high correlation exist between brand orientation and internal brand equity (r=0.719, p<0.05). Furthermore internal marketing practices have high correlation with brand orientation and internal brand equity (r=0.788 and r= 0.767 at p<0.05). so it is verified that these variables are correlated with each others.
To investigate the suggested hypothesis, author applied partial least square regression analysis (PLS). The reason for choosing PLS model was the number of questionnaires which were fully completed by respondents and returned to author. The results of PLS model are shown in figure 2.

![Figure 2: PLS Model with standard estimates and t values](image)

PLS analysis suggested that brand orientation has a positive effect on internal brand equity ($\beta = 0.241, t = 2.7$) where ($\beta$) is standardized path coefficients So H1 is accepted. Based on the findings of PLS it is suggested that brand orientation is essential for enhancing internal brand equity. Likewise it is also suggested that internal marketing practices create influential effects on internal brand equity because standard estimates are ($\beta = 0.6, t = 5.31$) H2 is also accepted on the basis of findings of PLS modelling. The relationship between internal marketing and brand orientation is also positive ($\beta = 0.789, t = 11.15$) H3 is also accepted hypothesis. So all H1, H2 and H3 are accepted hypothesis.

**Conclusions and Implications for managers.**

Baumgarth and Schmidt (2009) investigated the effects of brand orientation on internal brand equity and accepted that brand orientation positively effects internal brand equity so the fact of brand orientation on internal brand equity is already recognized. This research contributes
in existing literature by introducing internal marketing practices as an influential factor on internal brand equity. Empirical significance of proposed model is also verified and it is observed that if managers/owners emphasize on internal marketing practices and brand orientation then this can increase employee’s level of motivation and commitment toward brand. This study provides an insight about the influential factors of internal marketing but further investigations on this study area is necessary. Author is of the opinion that further researches should be conducted with some new variable like employee retention, employee motivation and market orientation and the impact of these variables on internal brand equity. Future research should be conducted in different industries for supplementary authentication.

References


CONFRONTING VISION 20:2020 CHALLENGES: THE PLACE OF ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION IN UNIVERSAL BASIC SCIENCE

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Abstract

Survival of living organisms on earth cannot be guaranteed without redressing the present devastating environment. Active involvement of all and sundry is highly necessary to manage the present intensive exploitative demands on the environmental resources by organisms. This was why a survey of the place of environmental education in Universal Basic Science for confronting vision 20:2020 challenges from the North central zone of Nigeria was examined in this paper. 536 students randomly selected from 10 Junior Secondary Schools in 4 randomly selected states from the zone participated. Two research hypotheses were tested through t-test analysis of Environmental Challenges Achievement Test (ECAT) scores. The results revealed that there were significant differences in students' achievement on the inclusion of environmental concepts in the students' knowledge of environmental management as well as the contributions of environmental education in resolving vision 20: 2020 environmental challenges. It was recommended among others that every child of school age should be involved in tree planting and cover cropping in all their localities every year; and the need for collaboration between government and farmers in a way that farmers would be helped directly to adopt new techniques and sustainable farming practices in addition to regulated grazing of animals.

Key Words: Vision 20:2020, Resources, Environmental management, Challenges, Basic science.

Introduction

Nature endows the human species with abundant resources for survival. Man in effect interacts with the natural gifts in order to harness the benefits therein. This interaction has however resulted into imbalance within the ecosystem and has been manifested in series of environmental problems. The signal on environmental degradation had long been noticed in the 1960s when public concerns about the health and environmental hazards of pesticides and other toxic chemicals used by industries were raised (Encarta, 2008). Furthermore, it was recorded that several catastrophic events that followed the use of the chemicals necessitated California to focus attention on the need for environmental conservation that culminated into the first National Earth Day of April 22, 1970, a day recognizing environmental concerns in the United States. Since then concerted efforts had been made on proper environmental management, prominent was that by the United Nations Environmental Programme of 1972 which was formed to encourage international cooperation in conservation and development strategies. Collaboration on environmental conservation issues included the 1987 Montreal Protocol to protect the ozone layer, and the 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Like any other countries of the world, Nigeria is faced with series of environmental problems such as: pollution, oil spillage, desertification, flooding, erosion, sand dunes, land slides, storm, and waste.
disposal among others. Some factors identified by Ogunbiyi (2007) as responsible for the various environmental problems confronting Nigeria include:

(a). low level of awareness about the consequences of people’s actions on the environment,
(b). the poverty level of the people, and
(c). the adoption of non-sustainable modes of development.

Findings from the report of Alao (2008) on building Nigerians response to climate change, reveal that “the problem of the environment sticks like a sore thumb at the G8 submit in Japan, raising questions of commitment to promises of reducing poverty in vulnerable regions of the world”. Environmental disasters have of recent become a common coin to the entire world and not to the G8 alone. There is every convincing evidences that the world is under serious threat from the environment. But analysts had posited that the environment was only compelled to respond to the abuses mounded on it by human activities. This has created a great concern for world leaders, which is why the issue of environment ran too close to call with matters of economy and poverty at the G8 submit (Alao, 2008). Since the world leaders had been accused of paying lip service to the problem of global warming, they therefore put the issue of environment as one of the important Agenda and promising to set a target of cutting carbon emissions by 50% by the year 2050. As observed by Ashworth (2008), the world is changing fast this time because climate change and unregulated irrigation projects are becoming major drivers for redrawing maps. He maintains that “we can literally see environmental disasters unfolding before our eyes; we have a real fear that, in the near future, famous geographical features will disappear forever”. It will not be out of sense to agree that environmental disasters pose problems to the health of both the living and those who are yet to be borne. It is therefore necessary to inculcate the skills of developing and maintaining a healthy environment into everyone. This among other necessities as opined by Ake (2001) called for the articulation of vision 20:2020 policy by the Obasanjo administration (1999-2007). By 2009, the Nigeria Vision 20:2020-Economic Transformation Blueprint that could make Nigeria one of the 20 largest economies in the world by 2020 was released as directed by the Yar'adua administration (Iguzor, 2009). The blueprint stipulates a 10 year plan for stimulating Nigeria’s economic growth. It involved the analysis of 29 thematic areas of which a dimension of environmental consciousness and sustainable management rank paramount. To realize the vision, a need to immediately address the most debilitating constraints to Nigeria’s growth and competitiveness was noted as a means for creating the platform for success. In spite of the documented dividends of the vision, there are serious defects with respect to environmental management that made it difficult for the attainment of the goal of the vision to be realized. For instance, the vision’s strategy did not take into consideration the means through which the poverty level of the people could be tackled, and there was no laid down procedure to attack corruption in the vision with respect to comprehensiveness, consistency, publicity, non-partisanship, and the like (Eleri, 2009).

The Problem

This study was conducted to examine the place of environmental education in Basic Science as a means for confronting vision 20:2020 environmental challenges. The study specifically tested the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant mean difference in the inclusion of environmental education in Basic Science on students’ knowledge of environmental management.
2. Environmental education in Basic Science has no significant contribution on resolving vision 20:2020 environmental challenges.

Methodology

The study adopted a survey design. The entire Junior Secondary School Students I and III in the North central states of Nigeria constituted the population. It was assumed that they have been exposed to topics related to their environment in Basic science but with different levels of coverage. Four out of the six states in this zone were selected by balloting [Benue, (Bn); Kwara, (Kw); Nasarawa, (Na) and Niger, (Ng)]. A school from any three local government headquarters in each of the states selected was purposively selected to ease accessibility. The 12 schools selected were randomly assigned into 6 intact JSS 1 and 6 intact JSS III classes. A sample of 545 participated in the study. Students’ teachers on teaching practice from these states assisted in the distribution and retrieval of the instrument used for gathering data in this study.

The instrument used for this study was a 20-item objective questions tagged Environmental Challenges Achievement Test (ECAT). It was made up of two parts. Part 1 required student’s school and class, while the second part contained 20 objective questions with options A-E. The draft was extracted from past National Examinations Council (NECO) Junior School Certificate Examination papers. It was assumed that the questions had undergone standardization by the examination body and as such was taken to be valid and reliable for the study.

Data Analysis

Only 536 copies out of the 545 copies of the question papers administered could be gathered after the response. The responses were sorted out based on level for hypothesis 1 to be addressed and then on combined states level to address hypothesis 2. The t-test computation of the scores was carried out as indicated in tables 1 and 2 as follows:

**Table 1: T-Test Analysis on Students Knowledge of Environmental Management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Tcal</th>
<th>Tcrit</th>
<th>P</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JS I</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS III</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>3.257</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.015*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 alpha level.
Table 2: T-Test Analysis on the Contributions of Environmental Education in Resolving Vision 20:2020 Environmental Challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Tcal</th>
<th>Tcrit</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bn &amp; Ng</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>62.38</td>
<td>11.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kw &amp; Na</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>83.09</td>
<td>95.02</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>3.465</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>0.002*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at .05 alpha level.

**Discussion**

**Hypothesis 1:** There is no significant mean difference on the inclusion of environmental concepts in Basic Science on students’ knowledge of environmental management.

The result in table 1 reveals that there was a significant mean difference on the inclusion of environmental concepts in Basic Science on students knowledge about environmental management (\( t-cal = 3.257 > t-crit = 1.96; \text{at } p < .05 \)). The hypothesis was therefore rejected as a result. The level of awareness and exposure of students to environmental knowledge reflected the true picture of what they could score from the achievement test on environmental issues. This was while there was a significant mean difference between JS I and JS III students’ achievement. This further shows that the greatest changes in the environment and the effects have been learned by JS III students and environmental mismanagement had been recognized by them as a threat to human survival. This finding corroborated the view of Graffitis (2004) that value clarification strategies develop people’s cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. In the same vein, Superka (2003) had discovered that academic ability had significant effects on people’s knowledge of environmental concepts and their attitudes to the environment. It is clear therefore that the inclusion of environmental concepts in Basic Science has improved students’ mind set in active participation in the process of tackling the environmental problems due to man-made or climate change. The more the students were exposed to environmental concepts, the more they become aware that the indiscriminate degradation of the environment and over-dependence on agrochemicals as well as pollution were due to poverty that has eaten deep into the nerves of every Nigerian. In view of this, tackling poverty among Nigerians is non-negotiable and it ought to find a place in Vision 20:2020 if there is genuine intention for the realization of the objectives of the Vision. Although environmental degradation may be natural or man-made, it was endowed of man to prevent and control it. This is clear evidence here that the inclusion of concepts about the control of environmental degradation in Basic science will prepare the students for proper management of the environment and may cause them to unconsciously educate other members of their communities. From the foregoing, the nature of environmental stimuli confronting a given area of the country determines the people’s reactions. In effect, to address the environmental issues in vision 20:2020, this study has found that the people need a ‘psychological restoration’ that can acquaint them with up-to-date information on the positive knowledge about environmental management as contained in Basic Science.

**Hypothesis 2:** Environmental education in Basic Science has no significant contribution for resolving vision 20:2020 environmental challenges.
Table 2 reveals that there was a significant contribution of environmental education in Basic Science for resolving vision 20:2020 environmental challenges in the North Central of Nigeria ($t_{cal} = 3.465 > t_{crit} = 1.96$ at $P < .05$). This necessitated the rejection of the hypothesis. The results here lay high credence on the means through which environmental education in Basic Science can help resolve environmental challenges in vision 20:2020. It has been recorded that one of the defects of the strategies of the vision is poor implementation (Adejuwon, 2009). Damage inflicted through poor implementation of the vision’s policy can be extremely detrimental to the health and economic value of the grasses and soil (Nolte and Dykzeul, 2002).

Now that Nigeria as a whole is more vulnerable to the impacts of environmental conflicts in a way that it has included ‘shifts’ in the boundaries of major ecological zones, it is expedient to inculcate the tenet of proper environmental management in the students for a span of many years without truncation. Unfortunately, the vision did not include teachers among the experts that formulated the strategy and worst still, the strategy did not receive a widespread notification (Igbuzor, 2009). In order to confront the challenges ahead with reference to: alteration in animal and plant compositions, greater soil erosion and flooding in areas of higher rainfall, heightened drought and desertification in the northern regions, accelerated sea level rise, salt water intrusion along the coastal belt and man-made oil spillage causing havoc to aquatic life, teachers ought to be duly represented. This is because teachers who are on the field have situation knowledge the happenings in the environment, and such occupy better position to contribute realizable objectives. Observations showed that in the North Central zone, the type and extent of damage inflicted by a few selected animal species such as the cattle and sheep feeding on the vascular tissue of grasses in stand of up to six months (especially when there was rain) was in the form of removing the shoot with their incisors. Any grass however is vulnerable, in addition to cattle occasionally trampling the entire grass. Damage on the grassland can be extensive with a single herd and flock of foraging cattle and sheep covering several acres per day. The severity of grass and soil nutrient loss is compounded when the herdsmen set the grasses ablaze in a selfish intent of inducing the sprouting of fresh grasses to feed their herds/flocks. Other negative impacts on environmental resources and infrastructural developments include: indiscriminate refuse disposal, wind erosion, heightened environmental heat (warming), as well as desert encroachment, which are aftermath of human activities. The primary worst threat and substantial damage occurs through cutting of the few scattered trees for timber or conversion to charcoal through crude destructive distillation (a reciprocal compliment to poverty). Similarly, burning or grazing of grassland, reduction of old growth trees to supply fuel wood for domestics have been made the villagers to become the primary force of landscape degradation. Also, increased hunting pressure causes declination of the populations of large mammal fauna and flora. Restoration/re-grassing efforts become difficult or impossible since human occupants of this zone add to environmental damage from their daily activities. The indiscriminate tillage of land and unregulated use of agrochemicals aggravates environmental pollution and prompted sudden climatic challenges. These challenges can be resolved as informed by this study if the students were not denied the basic requirements to acquire basic education. This is where Government policy implementation has to receive a genuine turn around.

Based on these findings, the researcher believes that it is expedient that vision 20:2020 involves everyone on the crusade on environmental management by venturing into non-market amenity services. These services are the outputs or benefits of grassland which cannot be bought and sold in a traditional market. Such services include: clearing the air, preserving the natural environment, preventing erosion, preserving biodiversity, reducing the threat of climate change, and providing...
erosion control services. The ability to preserve the output of the non-market amenity services depends on policies intended to preserve grassland and grassland amenities. In all, the economic impact caused by the animal species and the humans is a function of the current damage plus future loses with the cost associated with replacement. For burnt or trampled grasses and cut trees, the loss is accounted for by estimating the time required to reestablish the tree and the grasses to cover the soil. Thus in time, the resource loss is the monetary value anticipated at the time of soil usage plus the monetary value for protection up to the damage, and the time-integrated costs associated with reestablishment of future natural resources.

In the public interest, Vision 20:2020 will do well if there is a forum for grass service to assess the nation’s public and private renewable resources and develop a national renewable resource programme that will include: a thorough analysis of environmental and economic impacts, coordination of multiple-use and sustained-yield, and public participation. The role of grass service could be such that have the responsibility and opportunity to assure a national natural resource conservation posture that will meet the citizens’ needs in perpetuity. The knowledge derived from coordinated public and private learning by students will promote a sound technical and ecological base for the effective management, use and protection of the nation’s environment. This is assured because these students are developing into the future. (ie, 2020 and beyond).

The negative impacts of human and other animal species on grassland resources can be extensive. Although damage is most often considered in terms of reduced productivity or delayed harvest cycles, attempts to replace trees or grasses after a harvest or a fire outbreak can also be complete failures because of foraging livestock. The full impact of the animals on grassland resources is frequently difficult to assess because of the complexity of the resources. This provides some insight into the economic and environmental consequences of animal species damage to grassland resources. The temporal and spatial scales of grassland ensure varied habitats, and animal species change with the habitat. Therefore, whether calculating potential damage losses or figuring costs to implement preventive measures to protect grassland resources the estimates must be based on the current state of the grassland, reflecting the species presence which in turn, affect the potential type and the extent of damage and future controls that must be needed as the nature of the resource changes and becomes vulnerable to a new suite of animal species capable of inflicting damage. Exposing students to these challenges in Basic Science will no doubt radiate precautions to adults who indulge in natural resources destruction or exploitation.

**Conclusion**

There is a long rope to pull on environmental management for a healthy North central geopolitical zone of Nigeria. For people to rise to the environmental challenges in vision 20: 2020 there is urgent need for conservation, sustainable use and protection of natural resources which include: plants, animals, mineral deposits, soils, clean water, clean air and fossil fuels such as coal, petroleum and natural gas. Educators and resource managers spoke of total environmental control and envisioned a discipline that would create a harmonious relationship between man and his environment. In the context of the nation’s vision of becoming one of the 20 largest economies in the world by the year 2020, a vibrant and technology enabled activity is crucial.

This is why the learning of environmental concepts in Basic Science is adequate for addressing environmental challenges in the zone. We need greenery to be able to survive, however, environmental degradation and disasters are threatening the green situation in Nigeria, we therefore
need to act fast by controlling pollution and reducing causes of devastations that could trigger disasters in our environment by practicing Agriculture that would promote growth in national output, and supports expansion in the industrial sector, enhance foreign exchange earnings, provide food for the teeming population, provide gainful employment, create wealth and reduce poverty on a sustainable basis.

**Recommendations**

In spite of the billions of dollars which the Federal government had raked from oil exploration to cater for environmental disasters, there seemed to be no impact. Vision 20: 2020 should be in the position to direct the search-light to some other reliable targets which can help in activating efforts on environmental management and at cutting mismanagement of natural resources in order to reinforce environmental development. For this reason, the following were recommended:

1. There is need to involve every child of school age in tree planting and cover cropping in all their localities every year.

3. There should be collaboration between government and farmers in a way that farmers would be helped directly to adopt new techniques and sustainable farming practices in addition to regulated grazing of animals.

4. Policy to combat desertification incorporated into national sustainable development strategies should be implemented adequately.

5. Policy implementation and consistency on poverty eradication should form a clause and be included in the constitution of the federation.

6. Vision 20: 2020 should reflect a means by which people in collaboration with the government could turn devastated environment into tourist centers as done in Germany.

7. State/stakeholders should identify all lands that require reforestation/re-grassing for treatment.

8. Government should honestly implement Basic Education for all policy to letter.

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ANALYSIS OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING CAPACITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF BANKING SECTOR IN NIGERIA

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Abdurrahim Emhan (Ph.D) *

Abstract
This study aims to analyze the relationships between organizational learning and organizational performance within the banking sector in Nigeria. A survey research method with statistical treatment was conducted in this study. To test the model, except demographic variables, a 21-items questionnaire was conducted using random sampling method to the employees of various banks in Nigeria. A total of 203 completed questionnaires were evaluated for analysis. The data analysis revealed that there is a positive relationship between organizational learning and organizational performance. The findings of the study indicated that, there was a relationship between organizational learning and organizational performance. In terms of demographic variables, bank managers have higher learning perception than other employees. The paper offers practical suggestions of how management can improve organizational performance by improving the organizational learning of the organization. Survey was not all-inclusive to contain all potential bank employees in Nigeria. For that reason, this research is limited to the banks and the results can take a wide-ranging outlook to banking sector.

Keywords: Organizational Learning Capacity, Organizational Performance, Banking Sector, Managers, Nigeria.

Introduction

Managerial functions are essentially the same, to obtain results by establishing an enabling environment for effective and efficient performance of the work force. And creating situations where employees are highly productive and motivated. Even though there are considerable variations in environment, task to be done, nature of problems and scope of responsibility and authority.

Effective organizations are being characterized by a deep sense of purposefulness and a vision of its future. Banking industry must be well equipped to compete in any market with highly motivated and committed employees with distinctive competence.
Banking is based on confidence, this explains the reason why people entrust them with their money, with understanding that such savings are safe and can be withdrawn at will. The ability of the banks to promote growth and development depends on the extent to which financial transactions are carried out with trust, confidence and less risk.

The banking system is being threatened every day with adverse operational and marketing consequences. Changes in banking sector in Nigeria are too rapid with a lot of implication to personnel. This may be due to technical requirements of the job, upgrading of facilities, and lack of human and material support or improper assessment of employee at the point of entry.

The banking system is quite concentrated in urban areas; it is equally regulated and protected from foreign competition. The structure of Nigerian banks is characterized by relatively high density of branch offices. Against this background and face with greater internal competition and the recent consolidation policy by the Central Bank of Nigeria, many banks have sought to preserve their market space. The impact of personnel performance is more likely to affect their operation and survival.

The implication depends to a large extent on the behavior of the personnel. And in order to remain competitive bank must train their old employees. Any organization that fails to shift their mission in response to changing market conditions will likely failed miserably. This is where training and learning comes in to enhance individual ability. According to W and Cameron performance is the product of ability multiplied by motivation. A person’s lack of ability might inhibit good performance for several reasons.

The worrisome problem facing all managements is how to correctly identify the underlying causes of a specific employee’s poor performance and the consequences associated with the stress and staff development through learning. This implication can be assessing through the use of Plato model …

Management of all organizations entails carrying out basic functions of playing organizational motivation and control. Management of people takes up very important dimension in banking services. Although it is known that culture has a strong effect on people behavior. Management’s interest is less likely to be prompted by curiosity about why this happens (Rollinson, 2008). Management have a tendency to look for “off the shelf” solutions to organizational problems.

**Literature Review**

Effective research is based upon past knowledge, the existence of the present always rest on the foundation of the past. A summary of writings of recognized authorities provides an insight into what is already known and what is still unknown or untested.

Attention is a critical factor in many life processes, but paying attention is not all that is involved in management in fact, motivation is a major source, that reinforce behavior.

Human mind is a complex cognitive system. The system manipulates or processes information coming in from environment or already being stored within the system. The actions will result in greater worker’s self esteem and performance. Staff will demonstrate progressive development of the knowledge, abilities and values needed to function effectively in an increasing complex setting of banking institutions.
Organizational Learning Capacity

Not all behaviorists believe behavior can be explained solely on the basis of classical or operant conditioning. Albert Bandura in 1925 described social learning as the explanation of human behavior in terms of a continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive behavior and environmental determinants. Behavior neither casts people into the role of powerless objects by environmental forces nor free agents who can become whatever they choose.

Learning can be deliberate and formal process or an unintentional outcome of natural progression. It provides an overview of the learning as key aspects to talent development and organization performance. Learning implies a different internal state which may result in new behavior and action. The general understanding of learning has been limited to formal teaching and training; it is often not related to daily life and work. Learning is the most powerful, engaging rewarding and enjoyable aspect of our personal and collective experience.

All learning requires an engagement of and a transformation of the mind to learn anything well. Personnel practices reflect the desire to infuse thinking on the job specification description and design.

Organizations are beginning to identify and formalize the significance of knowledge to performance. Staff members retain their impulsivity during emotional crises, they listen to each other with empathy, understanding, precision constantly reflect on and evaluate their behaviors and strive to make them more consistent with the core value and belief that thoughtful behavior is a valid goal of learning.

Costa (1991) outlines list of intelligent behavior, persistence, decreased impulsivity, empathic listening, cooperative thinking, flexible thinking, meta cognition, checking for accuracy, drawing on past knowledge and applying it to new situations, questions and problem posing, risk taking, a sense of humor, precision of language, use of all senses, ingenuity and, a sense of efficacy as a thinker. This notion suggests that workers reflect on what they learn and apply it to the work environment.

Learning means change of a relatively permanent kind (Mullins, 2008). Learning occurs in many different ways, information or skills may be implicitly communicated or learning incidentally, it implies that an individual has experience something. Both change and learning are natural processes that continue throughout life, sometime behavior and knowledge coincide, at other times people will learn to act in certain ways without an underlying understanding of the reasons why.

Intelligent people are in continuous learning mode, their confidence in combination of their intuitiveness, allows them to constantly search for new and better ways of doing their jobs. They seize problems, situations, tensions, conflicts and circumstances as valuable opportunities to learn. This shared vision is evident in seven ways that include inherent faith that the organization will continue to improve on their intellectual capacities through learning as a valid goal. With learning workers can achieve their goals build fruitful and satisfying relationship with others and experience the challenges that make life meaningful (Costa, 1991). It is important to note that in the banking systems model of operational management learning becomes always an input. Organizations can be viewed as a system that includes human action that facilitates production of useful outcomes; we could not improve without learning.
Organizational Performance

Organizational performance has been subject matter of all organizational activities. Moreover, Dess and Robinson (1984) states that, organizational performance has become a significant aspect of empirical research in the business policy. However, goal ambiguity and measurement deficiencies are the major challenges of organizational performance (March and Sutton, 1997; Chun and Rainey, 2005). These issues led to a diversity of explanations for organizational performance and complexity of developing standard for measuring it.

Performance measurement can help businesses and organizations in establishing organizational efficiency. Nevertheless, there is no consensus on the performance measurement indicators because of the goal differences of the organizations, firms and corporations.

Scholars utilize per service indicators, recovery rate, mortality rate, arrest rate, rewards system, cost-benefit analysis and cost-effectiveness analysis (Grabovsky, 1988; March and Sutton, 1997; Wang, 2000; Robbins and Judge, 2012) to measure organizational performance. Whetten and Cameron (2008) describes five principal tools available for overcoming poor performance problems due to lack of ability, these are resupply, retrain, refit, reassign and release. Performance = ability multiplied by motivation (effort). The most important deficiency of the organizational performance is its openness to manipulations and dependence of performance measurement to organizational political environment.

Theoretical Model

This study has two variables, organizational learning capacity and organizational performance. The conceptual model of this study is presented in Figure 1.

![Hypothesized Model](image)

Methodology

Study Design and Sample

The research was conducted on different banks in Abuja. Approximately 315 questionnaires were delivered randomly to the bank employees. Management of banks allowed different divisions to distribute the questionnaires randomly to their employees. Subsequently, all the participants were revisited, so that the questionnaires could be collected. A total of 247 survey forms were collected and 44 surveys were excluded from the analysis due to missing data. Thus, exactly 203 (82%) complete questionnaire forms were evaluated for further analysis. All data was collected in 2013.

The survey instrument

The survey instrument consisted of questions derived from the literature. There were 9 questions in organizational learning and 12 questions in organizational performance. There was also a demographic information part in the instrument.
a) Demographic Information: Information about the demographic characteristics of the participants was collected, covering their age, gender, marital status, education level, occupational rank and total working year.

b) Organizational Learning Scale: The scale developed by Alegre and Chiva (2008) has been used in numerous studies and these have confirmed its validity and reliability as a measure of organizational learning. Organizational learning was measured using 9 questions. A five-point Likert scale was used for each of the 9 questions, scored from 1 to 5 where the number (1) means Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Undecided, (4) Agree, and (5) Strongly Agree. The five-point Likert scale was again used for all these questions. The Cronbach’s alpha score for Justice is 0.73. To high relaebity one item (4th item) was deleted. This concept was measured with 4 items. Skewness ve kurtosis scores are between: -1 ve +2 which indicate that it has a normal distribution.

c) Organizational Performance Scale: The scale was adapted by Bakiev (2011) from Nyhan (2000) and Sahin (2010). A five-point Likert scale was used for each of the 5 questions, scored from 1 to 5 where the number (1) means Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Undecided, (4) Agree, (5) Strongly Agree. The five-point Likert scale was again used for all these questions. The Cronbach’s alpha score is 0.81. Skewness and Kurtosis scores are between -1 and +2 which indicate that it has a normal distribution.

SPSS 18.0 software was used to analyze the data using parametric test (ANOVA), correlation and regression. The significance level for acceptance was set as p<0.05.

Findings

Demographic Variables

The distribution of the respondents over the demographic variables is presented in Table 1. 247 employees participated to the survey. As displayed in Table 1, It is not surprising that the majority of the study participants were male (122; 60.1%). On the other hand, 81 female respondents constitute 39.9% of the total employees. For the distribution of the respondents in terms of age, 99 employees were relatively young with, 21-30 years old, and the next largest group, 88, was 31-40 years old. These two groups account for 48.8% and 43.3% respectively of study participants. 15 respondents (7.4 %) were ages 41-50. The age group 51 years or older was the smallest, with 1 respondents (0.5 %). Of the 203 respondents, 131 (64.5%) is married, while 72 (35.5%) is single. In terms of education level of respondents, 132 people had bachelor degree, 52 of them had masters and 4 of them had PhD degrees. Cumulatively, these three groups of people account for approximately 93 % of the study participants (65.0 % and 25.6 %, and 2.0% respectively). Those respondents with secondary school degrees are 15 (7.4 %). In terms of respondents’ rank, 20 of the total 203 respondents (9.9 %) were top level manager, 48 of the total respondents (23.6%) were middle level manager, and 44 of the total respondents (21.7%) were low level managers. Remaining 44.8 % of the respondents, of whom 77 were employees, and 14 others, respectively 37.9 %, and 6.9 % of the respondents. As to how long the participants had worked in the bank. Of the total 203 respondents, the largest group, 82 respondents, with five years or less of service, followed by 62 respondents with six and ten years of service, and 22 respondents with between eleven and fifteen years of service. The percentage distributions of these three groups by years of service were 40.4 %, 30.5 %, and 10.8 %, respectively. 20 respondents (9.9 %) reported between sixteen and twenty years
of service, and 17 respondents (8.4 %) reported twenty or more years of service. This last was the smallest.

Table 1: Demographic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>60,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>39,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>48,8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>43,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7,4</td>
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<tr>
<td>51+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0,5</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Marital Status</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>64,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>35,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education Level</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary School</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7,4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>65,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>25,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2,0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rank</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top Level Manager</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Level Manager</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>23,6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Level Manager</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21,7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>37,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6,9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tenure</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

213
As displayed in Table 2, there is a positive correlation between organizational learning capacity and organizational performance (p<0.001), As a result, researchs hypothes was supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Performance</td>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Organizational Learning</td>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**

The Table 3 illustrates that (in organizational performance) organizational learning variable explains 34% of total variance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variable</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Independent variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>VIF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>Organizational Learning</td>
<td>.895</td>
<td>.589</td>
<td>10.04</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to demographic variables, some results are presented below; Learning perception of bank managers is higher than bank employees (p<0.05 F: 3.93).

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of organizational learning on organizational performance in Nigeria. This study reveals several attractive findings. In general, the findings of this study are consistent with the expectations of performance perception of justice in Nigeria. The findings are also in line with previous findings in organizational performance (Tongur, 2011, Sahin, 2007).

The results of this investigation provide support for the concept that organizational learning impact upon organizational performance. According to correlation results there is a positive linear relationship between organizational learning capacity and organizational performance. This result was
supported by highly significant correlations between organizational learning capacity and organizational performance. According to regression analysis, organizational learning capacity explains 34% percent of variation in overall performance.

Organizational learning perception of bank managers in the present study was higher than bank employees. The reason behind this could be that employee’s low level education. Learning is the most powerful, engaging rewarding and enjoyable aspect of our personal and collective experience. Organizations are beginning to identify and formalize the significance of knowledge to performance. The bank managers can increase learning perception, for instance collecting data on all facets of performance, extensive use of electronic storage, highly specialized or knowledgeable personnel, maintains a certain mix of skills among its pool of employees, expediting to react to technological change, developing experts from within.

It is recommended that more research on the subject of organizational performance be expanded. It is also recommended that more research on individual and organizational performance be conducted in Nigeria. The lack of unambiguous research on these areas creates blankness in the knowledge foundation of top management related to the performance.

Research Limitations/Implications

The survey was not comprehensive to include all possible bank employees in Nigeria. Therefore, this research is limited to the banks and the results can take a broad view to banking sectors. This study inspects the relationship between organizational learning, career, and organizational commitment in Nigeria, a sub-Saharan African country in a sub-continent that has been disregarded and under-researched. This study draws management practitioners’ attention to the fact that they should adopt behavior that can help to improve employees’ performance. From an academic perspective, this study offer insight into the relationship between learning and performance, which should contribute to the future development of this line of research, particularly in developing countries like Nigeria.

References


MAJOR ROLE OF LOCALLY MADE CHARCOAL BUSINESS IN PROMOTING ENTREPRENEURIAL STATUS IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the role of charcoal business in promoting entrepreneurial industries in Nigeria. A total of three hundred (300) questionnaires were distributed in three (3) states of northern Nigeria (Adamawa, Borno and Gombe State) major charcoal dealers, Charcoal Suppliers, Charcoal Distributors and Customers were each chosen from the sample state. It was discovered that 88% of respondents deal with Local made Charcoal. It also showed that 92% of the responses strongly agreed that Charcoal Business is lucrative; therefore These findings suggested that Charcoal may not be major factors in promoting entrepreneur, but it was the fastest in creating jobs and promotion of trade in such a way that its exports is multi-Billion Dollar industries. It is recommended that, Government have to give maximum attention to charcoal business as key remedy of Job creation in Nigeria.

Keywords: Role, Charcoal Business and Entrepreneurial,

Introduction

Charcoal as a formless mass of carbon can be made from most carbonaceous materials. It is one of the oldest of man-made fuels and has been prepared under the ground for a thousand years. Charcoal in lump form is still a major source of energy throughout the world. Most charcoal manufacturers sell their product as a briquette. This market has been dominated by several companies to include Kingsford, Royal Oak and major grocery market brands. They do not make "lump" charcoal which is an alternate product that has some advantages and has potential as a small start-up business. An entrepreneur hoping to survive in the charcoal industry will require originality and very good and aggressive marketing. Many small companies have survived but most have not made it "big". They've found their potential in the niche charcoal market is by making natural hardwood "lump" charcoal. Innovative ideas like developing a product in a bag that has a fuse, which when lit will ignite the charcoal. This quick light product combined with an easy to use paraffin coated container filled with natural charcoal has been a modest success in some local markets. Steve Nix (1997)
The cry for alternative energy source has put CHARCOAL in the forefront in the global market. A large market exists in EU, USA and ASIA with prices ranging from £170 to £190 per ton (FOB Nigerian Port), depending on mode of packaging. The charcoal industry is a multi-billion dollar industry and a money spinner for interested investors. The United Kingdom alone consumes more than 60,000 metric tons of charcoal annually, out of which about 70% comes from tropical Africa. Other countries around the world equally consume charcoal in great quantity. For a diligent entrepreneur, there is a big incentive that comes in form of export expansion grant, which the government normally gives to big time exporters. A company known as B. J Export which is into this business of processed charcoal export benefited from the Export Expansion Grant to the tune of N16,762,229.99 in April 2003. 

Ismail AbdulAzeez (2002)

Empirical Literature

A recent report on the exportation of charcoal suggests that the existing ban placed on it does not seem to have more effect, with devastating consequences on the environment. Although there was no reliable figure on the extent of charcoal to Europe, United State and the middle east, there is evidence to suggest that it is growing as an export business, According to website devoted to promoting the trade, charcoal export business is multi-billion dollar industry and money spinner, with the united state alone, importing more that 60,000 metric tons of charcoal annually with 70% of it from Africa.

For Nigeria to tackle the problem of the widespread local use of charcoal, there is need for community be involved to accept the idea to be provided with alternative to charcoal for Nigerians compelled by circumstances to use it as more affordable source of energy, particularly for domestic use, it is obvious that public enlightenment of the dangers of deforestation caused by felling of trees for charcoal and firewood alone, will not work until an affordable alternative is available to the people. With the will do so, it is possible for Nigerian to tap into its rich deposit of hydrocarbons and the gas that gets flared everyday to provide the alternative to charcoal, whose use is depleting Nigeria forests at an alarming rate and leaving the country open to all the consequential environmental challenges, to avoid the effects od declining agricultural productivity, (Daily Trust Editorial)

Environmentalists have raised the alarm over massive logging of indigenous trees by salt manufacturers at the Coast. Nature Kenya, said in a press release that forests are rapidly disappearing as a result of charcoal and firewood for salt manufacturing factories at the Coast despite a ban on firewood collection by the National Environment Management Authority and Kenya Forest Service in January. Kibiwott Koross,( 2012)

John P. Cunha (2012) opined about usage of Activated Charcoal, It was tested in 1831. In front of his distinguished colleagues at the French Academy of Medicine, Professor Touery drank a lethal dose of strychnine and lived to tell the tale. He had combined the deadly poison with activated charcoal. That's how powerful activated charcoal is as an emergency decontaminant in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract, which includes the stomach and intestines. Activated charcoal is considered to be the most effective single agent available. It is used after a person swallows or absorbs almost any toxic drug or chemical.
Alex Abutu (2011) said, Nigeria has lost over N1 billion to illegal export of charcoal and logs from states in the South West and North Central to the Middle East and Europe in the last four years. An investigation by Daily Trust Newspaper revealed that charcoal and wood export were the major factors responsible for the massive deforestation in the country. The illegal export is booming despite the existence of federal laws that prohibits the export of logs from Nigeria. Due to the unabated nature of the business, the National Council on Environment which held in September in Kaduna took the decision to place an outright ban on charcoal export but that decision had not impacted on the trade which is responsible for indiscriminate felling of trees.

Karen Msiska (2012) knows that sustaining the forest would bring back the reliable rainfall. But she chooses to stun you.“As long as the charcoal alleviates our poverty and gives us something with which to buy food, the forest can go,” she says.“It’s all because of poverty. We want to have food but we don’t have money to buy the food or fertilizer to boost our food yields. We get something from the charcoal from the forest. We buy food and top up what we get under the farm income subsidy programme. What we get is little and this season was worse.” Every day, bicycles loaded with charcoal zigzag their way out of Dzalanyama forest to Mitundu where it is traded to middlemen. These middlemen take it into the centre of Lilongwe where they sell it to a final consumer.

Daily Trust (2011) surveyed that, The price of charcoal, a cooking energy source, has risen by 100 per cent in Niger State, following the hike in the price of kerosene. A survey by the News Agency of Nigeria (NAN) in Minna and its environs showed that the bag of charcoal that was sold for N500 in March has now risen to N1,000 in the market. The survey revealed that housewives and caterers have shifted from kerosene to charcoal as their source of fuel for cooking. A small packet of charcoal that enjoys high patronage from the public is now sold for N100 as against the former price N50.

Punch (2004) observed that, A total sum of N9.889 billion in form of Negotiable credit certificate (NDCCS) was disbursed to 115 exporters from January to September (The Punch, Thursday, April 8, 2004. page 22) The business of charcoal export is lucrative and this is the reason why many more people should go to charcoal export. Getting capital for the business is easy. All that a prospective entrepreneur needs to do is to source for the orders. Most financial institutions are willing to participate in the business once a valid order is presented. There are also many venture capitalists and individuals with large reserves of fund who will be willing to do the business with you and share your profit at a given ratio.

Wikipedia, (2012) historically, production of wood charcoal in districts where there is an abundance of wood dates back to a very ancient period. Commercial charcoal is found in either lump, briquette, or extruded forms:

Lump charcoal is made directly from hardwood material and usually produces far less ash than briquettes.

Briquettes are made by compressing charcoal, typically made from sawdust and other wood by-products, with a binder and other additives. The binder is usually
starch. Some briquettes may also include brown coal (heat source), mineral carbon (heat source), borax, sodium nitrate (ignition aid), limestone (ash-whitening agent), raw sawdust (ignition aid), and other additives.

**Extruded charcoal** is made by extruding either raw ground wood or carbonized wood into logs without the use of a binder. The heat and pressure of the extruding process hold the charcoal together. If the extrusion is made from raw wood material, the extruded logs are then subsequently carbonized.

**Japanese charcoal** removes pyrolygous acid during the charcoal making. Therefore when burning, there are almost no stimulating smells or smoke. The charcoal of Japan is classified into three kinds.

**Materials and Method**

This study adopted survey research design in Adamawa, Borno and Gombe State to investigate the specific role played by charcoal Business in promoting entrepreneurial status in Nigeria, three states was selected as the study site in the year 2012. It was stratified into four categories of Charcoal Business centers and selling market points, Stratified Random Sampling technique was employed to selected dealers, Suppliers, Distributors, sellers and customers of Charcoals. 100 copies of the structured questionnaire carrying several questions were administered to the respondents and participant in each state of the study site. Charcoal Dealers in the three State answered (125) Suppliers answered (42) Customers answered (120) and then Charcoal Marketers responded to (13) altogether summed to 300 administered questionnaires with each state getting (100).

The study took One (1) year Four (4) Months to capture these data, so that to include both period of dry season and rainy season, these period was to ensure enough time for fluctuating nature of the product in scarcity and abundance. The data for the period covered were merged, questionnaires retrieved were categorized and recorded according to Age, Qualification, cost per bag, Retailers Price, purchasing and selling price, year of experience, reason for being in the business, profitability and the driving force behind the Business. The Data of study were analyzed using descriptive statistics.
Result and Discussion

(Table 1) Demographic Responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex of Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Qualification</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary/ SSCE</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma/HND</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Degree (Bsc)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 - 25 years</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26- 50 years</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51- 61 Years</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State &amp; Business Location</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adamawa</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borno</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gombe</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2012 Authors Field Survey

Table (1) shows the demographics responses of charcoal dealers, suppliers, customers, and Business experts and entrepreneurial in Adamawa, Borno and Gombe State, The majority were males with 59% but female were 41%. They only attend a limit of Primary
and Secondary school Certificates, some had national Diploma and Higher National Diploma respectively, they ages between 26 – 50 Years, other categories were between 10 – 25 years.

(Table 2) Responses of Charcoal Dealers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Charcoal</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local Wood Charcoal</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imported Wood Charcoal</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activated Wood Charcoal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others Charcoals</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source of Charcoal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Charcoal</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Southern Nigeria</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Northern Nigeria</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zandar, Niger</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Koza, Cameroon</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quantity of Bags distributed weekly

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quantity of Bags distributed weekly</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 200 Bags</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300 - 500 Bags</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600 - 1000 Bags</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000 &amp; Above</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Current Price Sold per Bag

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Price Sold per Bag</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N1,500 per Bag</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1,400 per Bag</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1,300 per Bag</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1,200 per Bag</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1,000 per Bag</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Charcoal Business as Promoter of diligent entrepreneur

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Charcoal Business as Promoter of diligent entrepreneur</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes, I strongly Believe</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, I don’t believe</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Extent of lucrative nature of Charcoal Business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extent of lucrative nature of Charcoal Business</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher Lucrative</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Lucrative</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Lucrative</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Lucrative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2012 Authors Field Survey

(Table 2) Discusses the responses of charcoal dealers, 58% served in dealership of local wood charcoal business, very few among the dealers patronized imported, articulated and other charcoals. They mainly sourced the charcoal from Northern and southern Nigeria, some of them imported the product from Niger and Cameroon republic. However, the quality sold per week was between (1-200) bags and (300-500) bags respectively; it was only in rare cases that special dealers sold above (600 – 1,000) bags weekly. The current price of
the charcoal is not stable depending on time and source of the products, but it varies from (N1,000 – N1500) due to many constraints and factors. These dealers in Adamawa, Borno and Gombe State have strongly believed that, charcoal business has promoted diligent entrepreneurial as shown by responses of 94% to an extent that 55% opined that the business was highly lucrative, another group of dealers with 42% agreed that the business is really an aggregate as lucrative, Only less than 1% that disbelief the majority. This confirmed that the business is highly lucrative.

(Table 3) Responses of Charcoal Supplier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in supplying charcoal</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than One Year</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One – Two Years</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three – Five Years</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five years &amp; Above</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Packages of the Charcoal for Supply</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bulk Packaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bag Packaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carton Packaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather Packaging</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Buyers of Charcoal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>House hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Entity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profit margin of Supplying Charcoal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>100% Margin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50% Margin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20% Margin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10% margin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Opportunity in Charcoal Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Create Opportunity to Unemployed youth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create Opportunity to Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reduces Poverty Level in rural Area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote Small Scale enterprises</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges on transporting, delivery and distribution of Charcoal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serious Challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Challenges</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Solution to Challenges of transporting, delivery and distribution of Charcoal
Government Intervention 166 55%
Repairing of Roads 95 32%
Intervention of Community Leaders 39 13%

Source: 2012 Authors Field Survey

(Table 3) Shows the responses of Charcoal Suppliers and buyers respectively, majority of the suppliers had experienced of (3-4) years. While others had 5 and above years; some have even minimum years of experience between (1-2) years, most of the suppliers packages the charcoal in bags as indicated in the table with 73%. Some re-package in leathers for re-sales. And the buyers of the product were household with 51% and business entities such as restaurant, etc. with 47%. These set of suppliers gained a profit margin of (20 – 100%) respectively. And they solely believed that charcoal business has created a lot of business opportunity such as promotion of small and medium scale enterprises, reduction of poverty, women and youth empowerment, and creation of job to un-employed youths. In another contrast, the suppliers complained of serious challenges on transporting, delivery and distributions of charcoal, and they suggested that, the only solutions to the problem is for government to intervene at all level by repairing of roads and low tax and friendly approach to policies, so that community leaders will play their role in educating the local charcoal dealers.

(Table 4) Responses of Charcoal Consumers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of cooking</th>
<th>Energy used</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fire Wood</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerosene</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charcoal</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Years of patronage of Charcoal as customers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of patronage of Charcoal as customers</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 2 years</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - 4 Years</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 6 Years</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 years &amp; Above</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Often Time of purchasing Charcoal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Often Time of purchasing Charcoal</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Daily</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarterly</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Current Price Per Bag

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Price Per Bag</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bellow - N1000</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1100 – N1300</td>
<td>194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1400 &amp; Above</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

224
Compares of Charcoal price with other means of cooking Energy

| Strongly agreed that Charcoal is cheaper | 264 | 88% |
| No, Don’t think Charcoal is cheaper | 36 | 12% |

Advantage of Charcoal over Kerosene, Gas and Fire wood

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantage</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cheap</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Availability</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smokeless</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: 2012 Authors Field Survey

(Table 4) Analysis the satisfactions of customers, compare to other means of cooking energy, majority of the customers with 67% used charcoal as means of cooking energy, very few uses firewood, kerosene, gas and others. These consumers were patronizing the charcoal at an average of (1-6) years. They often purchased the charcoal on daily – weekly basis. While 39% as the majority of buyers were civil servants whose buys the products at the end of every month. The product was mostly bought on price of (N1100 – N1300) depending on season. And then some time the price shoot to N1400 and above depending on occasions. However, the result vividly shows that customers have derived high satisfactions from the products compares to other means of cooking energy as indicated with 88%, they strongly believed that charcoal is cheaper, they stated that the advantage of charcoal over kerosene, Gas and firewood was cheapness, Availability, smokiness, efficiency and convenience.

(Table 5) Responses of Business Experts & Entrepreneurs

Charcoal Business in Promoting Entrepreneur in Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very effective</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not effective</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Specific Role of Charcoal Business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Creations</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty Reduction</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of Rural Economy</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Roles</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Possible ways forward of improving a charcoal Business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Way</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intervention of Government</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provision of Loan by Commercial Banks</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modification of the Charcoal Business</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement of Experts to educate more</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ways for government, Banks and Nongovernment organization to help in promotion of charcoal Business
Raise more Loan for them  153  51%
Support them as entrepreneur  108  36%
Engage Foreign investors  54  18%

Source: 2012 Authors Field Survey

(Table 5) Discusses the opinion of experts and entrepreneurial in relation to charcoal business 74% strongly agreed that, charcoal business is very effective in promoting entrepreneurial status in Nigeria. And they added that some of the special role played by the business were, job creation, poverty reductions and development of rural economy. It was further suggested that, possible ways forward of improving the charcoal business can be done by intervention of government, provision of loan by commercial banks, modification of charcoal business and engagement of experts to educate more on the analysis of the venture, however, these experts suggested a way forwards for government, Banks and non-governmental organizations to help in promotion of charcoal Business through raising more loans (51%) support them as entrepreneurial and (36%) opined of engaging foreign investors to help the business.

Conclusion

From the foregoing, it is inferred that, the cry for alternative energy source has put charcoal Business as lucrative, although, there was alarm raised by environmentalist over massive logging of indigenous tree, but still charcoal business has played a major role in promoting entrepreneurial system in Nigeria. The data reveal that 94% have strongly believed that charcoal business has promoted diligent entrepreneurial, which confirmed that, The charcoal as source of cooking energy is cheaper than Kerosene, Gas and even firewood, as indicated by respondent opinion with 88%. Therefore, the study can authoritatively conclude that Charcoal business has promoted entrepreneurial status in Nigeria.

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SUCCESSIVE FAILURE OF DEMOCRACY
IN NIGERIA- THE WAY OUT

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Abstract
The research is an assessment of representative democracy as an administrative system in Nigeria, by highlighting the failure of the state. It looks at some components of direct democracy. Therefore, the paper focuses on direct democracy, using secondary sources of data. In conclusion, the research offers direct democracy as a solution to the failure of the Nigerian administrative system especially as it affects participation, developmental programmes and institutionalized corruption.

Key words: Democracy, participation, national development, direct democracy, Nigeria, corruption.

Introduction
Democracy is a global system which every nation tries to achieve. The whole world is in a trance for democracy, with Africa not being any different. “Democracy has gathered momentum across the globe as a result of its immense advantages and by implication because of the negative consequences of bad governance” Bello-Imam (2004, p. 1). Nigeria is not an exception, because no state can operate in isolation and thus the need for the country to democratize becomes paramount. Our history reveals an epileptic attempts at democracy with tragic consequences. However, Nigeria since May 29th, 1999 been practicing democracy with little or no dividend of democracy. Nigeria’s rough history shows failure of government policies (development programmes), corruption, apathy and non-participation of citizens among other things towards government and government programmes, largely due to the attitude or failure of leadership.

We the people were looking forward to a smooth history in the making with the achievement of what seemed like a true democracy. However, unfortunately as Ojo (2005) puts it, “the democracy in the African context serves the interest of only the ruling class”.

Democracy is not a restricted concept or form of government that must be practiced only in one prescribed format. The truth is the world has more systems of democracy than
recognized democratic countries. Despite this, there exist certain features and strata of democratic systems that might be differentiated from one another.

Any form of democracy tries in its own way to ascertain the will of the people and to bring public affairs into line with it. Theoretically, this can be achieved by direct participation of all citizens (direct democracy) or by a body of elected representatives (representative democracy). Within the group of representative democracies, the focus may be on a strong president (presidential democracy) or on a strong parliament (parliamentary democracy). As already mentioned, the question is not whether there exist some forms of direct participation or of representation but rather on how much importance they are given in a certain system.

**Nigeria- presidential democracy:**

The president is head of state and leader of the government.

President elected by the people, nominates the ministers (members of government).

Parliament- Elected for a fixed legislative period. Government members need not be members of parliament.

Strong position of the president (veto).

Laws- Are debated and passed by parliament; lobbyists do not have a formal right to be heard, but exercise some influence on members of parliament in reality; the president may block a law by veto; as the president is elected as a personality (not only as a party leader) by the people (not by the parliament).

A strong president may act immediately but there is risk that he rushes to conclusions he may hardly be willing to withdraw from even if they prove to be unwise from a later point of view.

The separation of powers though it might seem very clear in theory does not automatically provide checks that are more effective and balances between parliament and government than in a direct democracy.

**Application of Direct democracy**

Specifically, this paper examines four separate applications of direct democracy.

- Referendums;
- Citizens’ initiatives;
- Agenda initiatives; and
- Recall.

The terminology used to describe the various instrument of direct democracy can vary between different jurisdiction, and different terms have sometimes been used to describe what are essentially the same institutions and processes. Referendums conducted by the government, for example, have sometimes been called plebiscites – a term that remains in used today in some jurisdiction. Citizens’ initiatives – the term used in this research – are sometimes also known as popular referendums or citizen initiated referendums, depending on the context in which the procedures are used. The meaning of some of the terms used to describe the different institutions and processes of direct democracy has changed over time, and it is subject to linguistic variations.
Referendums are procedures that give the electorate a direct vote on a specific political, constitutional or legislative issue. Referendums take place when a governing body or similar authority decides to call for a vote on a particular issue, or when such a vote is required by law under the terms of a constitution or other binding legal arrangement. In some cases, procedures also exist which allow citizens or a minority in a legislature to demand a referendum on an issue. The result of a referendum may be largely binding, as determined by the law or constitution under which it is called, or it may be used by the authorities for advisory purposes only.

Citizens’ initiatives allow the electorate to vote on a political, constitutional or legislative measure proposed by a number of citizens and not by a government, legislature, or other political authority. To bring an issue to a vote, the proponents of the measure must gather enough signatures in support of it as the law under which the initiative is brought forward requires. citizens’ initiatives may deal with new proposals, existing laws or constitutional measures, depending on the provisions of the law under which such a vote take place.

Agenda initiatives are procedures by which citizens can organise to place a particular issue on the agenda of a parliament or legislative assembly. As with citizens’ initiatives, a minimum number of signatures is generally specified by law in order for the initiative to be brought forward to the legislature. Unlike the procedure followed for citizens’ initiatives, no popular vote take place when agenda initiative is brought forward.

Recall procedures allow the electorate to vote on whether to end the term of office of an elected official if enough signatures in support of a recall vote are collected. Although the process of recall is often similar to that of citizens’ initiatives, recall deals only with the question of removal of a person from public office, and the outcome is therefore always binding.

National development plans in Nigeria

We have had series of development plans in Nigeria. Nigeria is permanently hunted by the spectre of development. Its barely fifty years since independence and Nigeria is still rolling by the day in search of development. The myth of growth development is so entrenched that the country’s passes for the history of development strategies and growth models from colonial times up to date. No term has been in constant flux as development. This seems the only country where virtually all notions and models of development have been experimented (Aremu, 2003).

Two years after independence, the first national development plan policy was formulated between 1962 and 1968 with the objectives of development opportunities in health, education and employment and improving access to these opportunities, etc. The plan failed Ogwumike (1995). Collapse of the first republic and the commencement of civil war also disrupted the plan. After the civil war in 1970, the second national development plan 1970 to 1974 was launched, the plan priorities were in agriculture, industry, transport, manpower, defence, electricity, communication and water supply and provision of social services (Ogwumike, 1995). The third plan, covering the period of 1975 to 1980 was considered more ambitious than the second plan. Emphasis was placed on rural development and efforts to revamp agricultural sector. The fourth plan 1981 to 1985 recognized the role of social services, health services, etc. The plan was aimed at bringing about improvement in the living conditions of the people. The specific objectives were: an increased in the real
income of the average citizen, more even distribution of income among individuals and socio-economic groups, increased dependence on the country’s material and human resources, a reduction in the level of unemployment and underemployment Ogwumike (1995).

During these periods, Nigeria’s enormous oil wealth was not invested to build a viable industrial base for the country and for launching an agrarian revolution to liquidate mass poverty. For instance, the green revolution programme that replaced operation feed the nation failed to generate enough food for the masses. In recent past, various strategies for development have also been tried with little or no result; structural adjustment programme (SAP), Vision 2010, national economic empowerment and development strategy (NEEDS), Creation of development centres, seven point agenda, vision 2020, etc.

Discussion of major findings

In spite of series of development strategies, put in place by successive governments, all attempts to generate meaningful development proved futile in Nigeria.

Based on this, one is now confronted with these puzzles: were those previous development plans or strategies bad in their context, or wrongly projected? If nothing is wrong with the plans, then why is it still difficult to generate meaningful development in spite of huge resources at our disposal? Some factors have combined to halt the nation’s development.

There are in most cases, no executive capacity responsible for the formulation and implementation of the plan. What we usually see are officials entrusted to such a position but without any meaningful executive authority.

Some of the previous development plans failed because there was little or no consultation of the public (citizens). Planning is supposed to involve even the peasants in the villages. Even the local government officials who are close to the people were not consulted. Planning is not an edifice where technocrats alone operate (Mimiko, 1998).

Lack of good governance also militates against national development. Where there is no good governance, development becomes a mirage. This is because of bad leadership in the country. Most of our leaders have no sense of commitment to development. Mbaya (2009) captures the situation this way: “The recent disgrace and exposure of corruption and unethical activities among political leaders and the covert conspiracies of governments betraying their own people in Nigeria is evidence that there is lack of servant-leaders…”

Embezzlement and other selfish deviant behaviours of the so-called leaders, could be better comprehended when viewed as “latent” and “manifest” functions as forwarded by Parsons (1960).

Mimiko (1998) presents the situation this way:

The decolonization allowed the crop of leaders that aligned with colonial power to take over Nigeria. This ensured the sustenance of a neo-colonial economy even after political independence. These leaders on assumption of power quickly turned up the repressive machinery of the colonial state rather than dismantling it. Significantly, they have no vision of development to accompany the efficient instrument of repression they inherited. All they were interested in was access to power and privileges and not development.
Another finding is, even though people like Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679)- a social contract theorist, who advocated a standing government for society if man is to avoid a “state of nature” where life is “solitary”, “brutish”, “nasty”, “poor”, and “short”. It is now clear that without good leadership man could go back to the stage of the “state of nature”, as we are witnessing in Nigeria where the state is deteriorating daily. People are increasingly displaying features of a society in a state of anarchy.

Conclusion

It is apparent that the assessment of the administrative system of Switzerland surely has lessons for Nigeria. Through direct democracy and its discussed characteristics. A state where the citizens have a say in the formation and programmes of their government.

In Nigeria the leaders are not altruistic and have a vision of self aggrandizement that run counter to the aspirations of the people. While Nigerians are languishing in poverty, their rulers are revelling in obscene affluence. This paper has carefully discussed various attempts at national development in Nigeria. So what is the way forward?

Recommendation

The thing to note here is there is nothing wrong with the administrative system- democracy; federalism, presidential system of government, practiced in Nigeria. The problem is our “rough history” and the inability of our leaders to change to a “smooth history”. But there are lessons to be learnt from the adoption of direct democracy. The Nigerian constitution provides for limited direct democracy this needs to be amended to give greater participation to the citizens through referendums, citizens' initiatives, agenda initiatives, and recall. This has the advantage of not only ensuring that leaders do their jobs but also to do away with bad elected office holders in government.

Nigeria is a multicultural state the option of direct democracy would not only increase participation but would also help establish a more stable (politically, administratively, socially, etc.) nation-state (a state made up nations). Where leaders are held accountable for their actions/inactions.

Direct democracy would also help not only in state building but also in terms of nation building (loyalty and commitment of both leaders and their people).

It is also recommended that Nigeria adopt the Switzerland part-time job format which direct democracy can ensure. According to Beedham (2002) direct democracy in Switzerland “could turn out to be a model for everybody’s 21st century democracy”. In Switzerland, members of the parliament are not full-time legislators, meaning they have individual jobs like any other ordinary citizen. In fact, apart from a few positions mostly trainers the armed forces in Switzerland are virtually non-existent. This could be adopted for the national assembly and when circumstances permit, the same could be adopted for the armed forces in Nigeria. This has at least two advantages: one, serious reduction in overhead costs in the public sector. Two, having representatives working like every other citizen allows the public to have better interaction with their elected officials and for the representatives to have a clearer understanding of their people as well as their needs.
The problem of latent functions can be checkmated by the principles of direct democracy; I therefore offer Nigeria and its people direct democracy as a key to administrative excellence and development.

References


EFFECT OF CORPORATE REPUTATION AND COMMITMENT OF BUSINESS SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY (BSR) ON PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM MANUFACTURING SECTOR IN NIGERIA

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Abstract
The concern of business social responsibility calls and perceptive among scholars and practitioners has led to postulation that social activities would lead to competitive advantages. This paper examine tactical values in developing nation particularly Nigeria, and how it's related to performances of manufacturing sector. Using a survey data of 248 usable questionnaires, the data were analysed using SEM. However, the result reveals positive association between corporate reputation and organizational performance. Surprisingly, BSR commitment was insignificant to organizational performance. This indicate that despite awareness and understanding of business social responsibility by manufacturing sector in Nigeria, but still concern of social behaviour may be lacking, in terms of commitment to social issues. Managerial implication and direction of future studies were also discussed.

Keywords: Corporate reputation, commitment to BSR, organizational performance and Nigeria.

1. Introduction
For many years a vast body of knowledge has emerged concerning the association between initiatives and organizational performance (Peloza & Papania, 2008). Despite all this attempt of research it suffers with major limitations. This paper seek to address one of the limitation, previous research on this connection between BSR on organizational performance were mainly focused in USA and Europe. To date few scholar have investigate the strategies policy of BSR in developing nation even if any they highly concentrated on multinational corporation (Amaeshi, Adi, Ogbechie & Amao, 2006; Frynas, 2005, Okeye, 2009; Perdeson & Hunnache, 2006).

In this paper we aim to close this paucity by focusing BSR commitment and corporate reputation in emerging nation. Data collected from manufacturing industry operating in Nigeria. Despite the fact that business in developing nations have different system from those in USA and Europe. This information is very significant because organization need to recognized the important of business ethics and social responsibility dimension in their decision making process before they can apply then in business setting (Hsu, 2012; Retab, Brik, & Mellahi, 2009).

The perspective of BSR actions entail the dependence of business success on the relation and interactions between an organization and its stakeholder for example, in ability of the business to satisfy its customers need or want to make available suitable pricing pair safe, hygienic products. Also as component of international strategies business threat losing regular direct if they fail to meet the environmental regulation required by its consumers.
Therefore, business must enhance their corporate reputation to meet the changing demands of the diverse stakeholder.

However, previous studies have empirically identified the associations between BSR and corporate reputation (Lai, Chiu, Yang, & Pai, 2010; Retab et al., 2009). But the way in which BSR initiative influences these outcomes remains uncertain. Consequently, a number of researches have argued that the lack of agreement on the relationship between BSR dimension and organizational performances (Hillman & Keim, 2001; Peloza & Papania, 2008; Retab et al., 2009; Waddock & Graves, 1997; Wright & Ferris, 1997), and this points the need for further studies into this relation particularly in developing nation where there are little empirical evidence. In addition, the research is significant; firstly, there is large inequality in the number of studies on social responsibility especially in small firms (local firms). To date research on BSR are highly concentrated on larger firms (Ahmad & Ramayah, 2012; Egri, & Rosland, 2008; Lee, 2008; Morris, Schindehutte, Walton, & Allen, 2002). Secondly, while there is increasing awareness about BSR in emerging nation still most of the research has been examined in developed economics.

The main objective of this paper is to examine the relationship between BSR commitment and corporate reputation on organizational performance, to the best of our knowledge no related research exist in the context of the study. The paper is organized as follow, the remainder section review previous research on BSR, Commitment and corporate reputation to developed a conceptual framework that indicates the significant relationship between these variables, next we tested the predicted pathway in the framework, finally the paper discuss the managerial and theoretical implication of the study.

2. Literature review
2.1 Business social responsibility

Basically business social responsibility is a displeased and contentious issue; According to smith (2003) BSR refers to the obligation of business to community those who are affected by its corporate strategies and practices. On the other hand Wright (2006) define socially responsible practices as the positive activities a business undertakes in the society in which it operates and this includes responsibility towards customers, employees, and the public. The existing approaches to BSR are split (Porter & Kramer, 2006), but three essential lines of BSR are: Stakeholder - driven, Performance – driven, and Motivation – driven approaches (Basu & Palazzo, 2008). The first, which is stakeholder – driven in this approach business manager try to gather the need and want of stockholder and external holder, the action of BSR is a response to the demands of stakeholder about general social concerns or the business operation. Lack of BSR practices and actions these group of stakeholder might withdraw their support from business (Freeman, 1984; Maignan, Ferrell, & Ferrell, 2005; McWillian, Siegel, & Wright, 2006).

The next approach is the performance- driven which is concerns the association among BSR, corporate strategy and essential performance. This lead the researchers to centre on influential actions to implement BSR and then measuring their effectiveness, BSR actions include incorporating social concern into products, adopting progressive human resources management practices, centre on environmental performance and advancing the goals of community organization (Maignan, et al., 2005; McWillian et al., 2006). And the last approach is the motivation- driven approach which examines the extrinsic reasons for a
firms BSR commitment or the intrinsic rationales to advance notions of its conscientiousness and responsibilities (Basu and Palazzo, 2008). The extrinsic reason concern flattering outcomes toward focal business, for example enhancing reputation (Fombrum, 2005) consumer’s resilience to negative information (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2004) and Managing risk (Husted, 2005). On the other hand the intrinsic rationale draws on philosophic concepts, such as contract theory, Aristolian & Kantian ethical concepts (Basu & Palazzo, 2008).

However, each of this approach mentioned above, lead to unique interpretation of BSR, for instance, the stakeholder- driven explain and measure BSR, the performance-driven define activities and lastly, the motivation-driven reveals penalty, hence, this study will be guided by the stakeholder-driven approach.

2.2 Corporate reputation

Business managers believe corporate reputation is the critical elusive resource that leads to competition advantage (Siltaoja, 2006). The significant of corporate reputation has been supported by a highly positive connection between corporate reputations and its return of assets (Deephouse, 2000; Roberts & Dowling, 2002). There are numerous of enabling machinery support to this procedure, a good reputation insulates the business from stakeholder perception of negative information (Lange, Lee & Dai, 2011). In addition a significant reputation is also attractive to employee and customer (Lange et al., 2011).

Similarly, the association between corporate reputation and BSR in developing economics like Nigeria is not uncomplicated. The impact of BSR on corporate reputation in the eyes of diverse but mostly external stakeholder is twisted by how the business converse its BSR actions and how its activities are reported in the national media and other communication media. A business can use BSR deeds as machinery to indicator desirability features to stakeholder (Fombrun, 2005). BSR can be viewed as a form of strategic investment in reputation building or maintenance by making strategic investment in reputation.

2.3 BSR Commitment

Commitment has got considerable interest in research, due to its important impact on job attitudes such as presentation, non-attendance, and turnover intentions (Ahmad, Veerapandian & Ghee, 2011; Lokand & Crawford, 2001; Rangriz & Mehrabi, 2010). Porter Steers, Moeday, and Boulian, (1974) has provide with the three-parts of organisational commitment definition: A well-built principle in and recognition of the organisation’s aims and standards, a readiness to exercise substantial endeavour on behalf of the organisation, and a strong wish to stay in the administration. Allen and Meyer (1990) conceptualized a form of organisational commitment and classified three parts: affective, continuance, and normative commitment.

However, Steers (1977), Chew & Chan, (2006) found that commitment was generally unconnected to performance (weak relationship). This is due to numerous variables. First, it was reveals that the sample sizes (two organizations) in the study had difficulties in irritating to decrease revenue rate and non-attendance. The business managers also be likely to keep more conscious “settlers” and trustworthy, but to whom better performance was not role significant. The business also finished up being steadier, but less productive or inventive labor force. The managers in both organizations were powerfully disturbed about worker retentions rather than about greater performance.
The result of the above is inconsistent with Miller and Lee (1999) who establish that organizational commitment was absolutely related to the financial performance. This means that organizational commitment could have an effect on the organizational performance. Considering the previous studies, it seems to be that there is a linked concerning firm's commitment and organizational performance. Therefore, each of these associations had been used as independent factors. Other studies have investigate only the affective component of organisational commitment (Ambrose, Arnaud, & Schminke, 2008; Chew & Chan, 2006; Rashid et al., 2003), or all the three parts as well as the total organisational commitment (Ahmad et al., 2011; Huang, Cheng & Chow, 2005). On the other hand, this study has selected this advance, and uses organisational commitment as a uni-construct, and this approach has been adapted in this study for the same reason.

2.4. BSR and Organizational Performance

Previous research on the relationship between BSR and organizational performance found a numerous finding some reveals that positive, others negative and mixed or non-significant relation, those who reveals the positive relation includes (Griffin & Mahon, 1997; Pelozza & Papania, 2008; Porter & Vander linde, 1995; Preston & V' Bannon, 1997; Rettab, Brik & Mellahi, 2009 & Verschoor, 1998) while those indicate negative includes (Meznar et al., 1994; Vance, 1975 & Wright & Ferris, 1997) and lastly, those who indicate mixed result include (Berman et al., 1999; Cochran & Wood, 1984; Graves & Waddock, 1997; Hillman & Kein, 2001 & McGuire, Sundegren, & Schneeweis, 1988). However, as noted earlier we cannot generalize the above finding because all the result comes from USA and Europe as against the developing nation. In line with this Business system theory (Whitley, 1992) state that countries have diverse business systems. This gives ample evidence that in order to assume a relationship between BSR and organizational performance in developing nation particularly Nigeria, one has to consider Commitment and corporate reputation on social issues business has on its numerous stakeholders.

2.5 BSR and Corporate Reputation

Previous research to date provides and evidence that corporate reputation is a fundamental subtle resources that give a firms reasonable benefit (Brammer & Millington, 2005; Fombrun & Shanley, 1990; Hsu, 2012; Lai et al., 2010; Shamsie, 2003; Retab et al., 2009). Although the connection between BSR and corporate reputation in developing nation are not clear-cut this is because businesses functioning in emerging nation are lacking skills and tradition in communicating internal actions such as BSR activities. This limits the business ability to influence stakeholder perception in order to boost its corporate reputation. Hsu (2012), Lai et al., (2010) reveals the association between BSR and brand performance is partially mediated by corporate reputation. This means that consumer perception about firms BSR initiatives positively related to corporate reputation. Therefore, we posit:

H1: Corporate reputation is positively related to Organizational performances.

2.6 BSR Commitment and Organizational performances

The relationship between organisation commitment and performances has been documented by the previous studies, considering the dimension of organisational commitment (affective, continuous and normative). For example Organizational commitment is fundamental within individual and organizational performance studies (Swailes, 2002), with applications to marketing (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993). The literature presents many definitions
of the theoretical concept (Swailes, 2002,) including both employee donations and a sense of togetherness to the organization (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993).

Consequently, Aguilera, Ruth, Rupp, Williams & Ganapathi (2007) emphasis that commitment make judgment about their firms BSR efforts based on their observation of the firms BSR practices, outcomes of the BSR actions and the managing of the execution process. The author asserts that socially responsible or irresponsible actions are serious consequence to organization. A numerous of studies have explored the connection between commitment and organizational performance (Ahmad, Veerapandian & Ghee 2011; Chew & Chan, 2006; Huang, Cheng & Chow, 2005; Rashid, Sambasivan, & Johari, 2003). Above all past research shows that firms commitment to BSR issues action tend to have a positive impact on performances.

In addition, contrary to presumed connection between BSR actions and drivers of financial performance, given that a number of business in developing nations take advantages of weak commitment to social issues. Taking the above arguments as whole, we posit:

H2: BSR commitment is positively related to organizational performances in developing nation.

Figure 1. Research framework

3. Methodology

3.1 Sample and Data Collection

The population of this study consist of 1500 manufacturing sector register with SMEDAN as at 2010 in Kano state North-West of Nigeria. This because the state is the centre of
commerce and virtually all manufacturing industry in Nigeria has one or more factory in the state (Sani & Suleiman, n.d), Additionally, the city and nature of commercial activities attract people of different religions and ethnic background. Hence, to this extent, it could be said the sample that will be derived from this population will be relatively homogeneous. The study employs a simple random sampling technique, in concurrence with sample selection formulae, which is stated as follows, Yemane (1967).

\[
n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}
\]

Where: \( n \) = Sample size; \( N \) = Population of the study; \( e \) = Level of precision.

\[
n = \frac{1500}{1 + 1500(0.05)^2}
\]

\[
n = \frac{1500}{1 + 1500 (0.0025)}
\]

\[
n = \frac{1500}{1 + 3.75}
\]

\[
n = \frac{1500}{4.75}
\]

\[
n = 316.
\]

Therefore, base on the above formulae a representative of sample size of three hundred and sixteen (316) was selected from the population of 1500 manufacturing industry in the state with precision level of ±5% and the level of confidence is 95%. Consequently, out of 316 hundred copies of questionnaire distributed, a total of two hundred and sixty one copies of questionnaires were returned completed, representing 82.6% percent response rate which is superb. 8 copies of questionnaire were discarded due to number of missing data. Before testing, variables were examined through various SPSS version 18 measures for a better precision of data entry, missing value, and fit between distributions and the assumptions of structural equation modelling. 5 cases were identified through the process of mahalanobis distance analysis, as multivariate outliers with a P value <0.05. These respondents were automatically deleted. Leaving 248 cases for analysis.

### 3.2 Measurement

**Corporate reputation**

Corporate reputation is joint representations of business long-ago activities and potential prospects that explain how key resource providers interpret a business initiatives and assess its ability to deliver valued customers (Petrick, 2002). Dodds, Monroe & Grewal (1991) refer it as the prestige or status of a product or service as perceived by the purchaser based on the image of the supplier. Similarly Lai, Chiu, Yang & Pai (2010) sees corporate reputation as the
general intuition dazzling the perception of a combined stakeholder group. Therefore, in the present study we refer corporate reputation as the general impression reflecting the key stakeholder perception about the business initiatives particularly on the social responsibility issue and the assessments about the business product or services. Five items were adapted from Petrick (2002) to measure the construct, and was tested by Hsu (2012) and to achieve internal consistence reliability and convergent validity.

**BSR Commitment**

Organisational commitment was measured using Allen and Meyer’s (1990) this scale is commonly used in social sciences and has excellent psychometric properties in cross-cultural research (Schmidt, 2007). For the reason of this research organisational commitment will be treated as single as earlier mention and measure by nine items out of the fifteen items from (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). The items will be selected on the foundation of having the most face validity in the opinion of the researcher (Ahmad et al.,2011; Huang et al., 2005). The sample items will be adapt and modified in order to suit the study. The following items will be use to measure organizational commitment my organization is willing to put effort normally expected on the issue of BSR. This questionnaire requires organization to indicate their level of agreement with the extent to which they are identified with and involved in their organization. The responses of all items in the questionnaire were made on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree.

**Organizational Commitment**

Organizational performance, or firm performance as we refer to it in this study, is a division of organizational efficiency that covers operational and financial outcomes (Cameron, 1986). This can be characterized into two main groups which are financial performance and non-financial performance. Financial performance is, for example, profitability, liquidity and financial risk, which are earnings, associated to enterprises’ efficiency per operation. Non-financial performance is usually associated with customer base, brand devotion, image and reputation, technology and initiatives development as well as quality of human resources (Kaplan & Norton, 2000). For this reason, the study will adapt this scale because over the years many researchers have suggested that performance measurement should includes both financial and non-financial measurement investigation which is measure by 7 items (Kaplan & Norton, 1992; Venkantrannan & Ramanujan, 1986).
3.3 Analysis Method

Data were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), through Partial Least Square (SmartPLS 2) due to the fact that PLS can accommodate small sample size, Ringle, Wende and Will, (2005).

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The table 1 shows the profile of respondents, the result reveals that 76.2% of the respondents have less than 5 years of existence; this implied that majority of the respondents are not long in the operations. In terms of ownership structures 81.5% of respondents are individual owner, while 9.7% are partnership business. With regards to no. of employees 85.1% have less than 20 employees; this indicates the uniqueness of one man business. Furthermore, most of the Manufacturing industry have less than 1 million, Nigerian currencies as their Assets and represent 46. %.( see table 1).

Table 1. Demographic breakdown of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic profile</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>No. Of respondents</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years of existences</td>
<td>Less 5 years</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-10years</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location</td>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20years</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-40years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joint venture</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. Of employees</td>
<td>Less 20</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>85.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-40</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-60</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-80</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81 &amp; above</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities</td>
<td>Food &amp; beverages</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobacco</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Textiles</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weaving &amp; dressing</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leather &amp; handbags</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-metric</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recycling</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assets</td>
<td>Less 1million</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-100m</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>31</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101-200m</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201-300m</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301 &amp; above</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2 Goodness of Measures

The paper assessed the construct reliability by calculating a composite reliability (CR) for each construct after maximum likelihood estimation was employed. The advice of Fornell and Larker (1981) were taken into consideration when calculating the CR index along with reliability calculation as illustrated in Table 2. Consequently, the average variance extracted (AVE) were assessed for each construct (Anderson, 1982; Bagozzi & Lynn, 1982; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). AVE was used to gauge convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998; Ping, 2004) suggested convergent measures should contain less than 50% error variances meaning that AVE should be 0.5 or above. The paper used cut-off value of 0.70 and 0.50 for CR and AVE respectively (Bagozzi & Yi, 1998; Hair et al., 1998; Hair et al., 2010). The scale of reliability range from 0.89 to 0.93, and the factor loadings ranged from 0.59 to 0.94 \((p < 0.05)\), and the AVE ranged from 0.61 to 0.82 which is above criteria (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 1998; Ping, 2004). See table 2 bellow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Internal reliability Cronbach alpha</th>
<th>Factor Cross loading</th>
<th>Composite Reliability</th>
<th>Average variance extracted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corporate Reputation</td>
<td>RT 03</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.913514</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RT 04</td>
<td>0.8922266</td>
<td>0.948030</td>
<td>0.933416</td>
<td>0.823957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RT 05</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.859419</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational</td>
<td>OP 01</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.589451</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>performance</td>
<td>OP 05</td>
<td>0.831460</td>
<td>0.923204</td>
<td>0.891343</td>
<td>0.678805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OP 06</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.945814</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OP 07</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.787970</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSR Commitment</td>
<td>OC02</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.828303</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OC03</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.747999</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OC04</td>
<td>0.872485</td>
<td>0.863753</td>
<td>0.933416</td>
<td>0.823957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OC05</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.904016</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OC06</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.711391</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OC07</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.597378</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Considering, the reliability analysis, we established discriminant validity by calculating share variance between each pair of constructs and verifying that it was lower than the average variance extracted from the individual construct (Bagozzi & Lynn, 1982; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 3, the squared correlations for each construct are less than the square root of average variance extracted by the indicators measuring that construct indicating adequate discriminant validity. In general, the measurement model demonstrated adequate reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

### Table 3. Discriminant validity of construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Reputation (1)</th>
<th>Commitment to BSR (2)</th>
<th>Performance (3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reputation (1)</td>
<td>0.90772</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to BSR (2)</td>
<td>0.186374</td>
<td>0.785851</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance (3)</td>
<td>0.315168</td>
<td>0.138162</td>
<td>0.823896</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.2 Hypotheses Testing

### Table 5. Model Hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypotheses</th>
<th>Path coefficient</th>
<th>S.E</th>
<th>T. Value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PF&lt;--- RT</td>
<td>0.300</td>
<td>0.09913</td>
<td>3.025</td>
<td>Supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PF&lt;--- OC</td>
<td>0.082</td>
<td>0.12246</td>
<td>0.672</td>
<td>Not Supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study examines the relationship between BSR commitments, corporate reputation on organizational performance in Nigerian manufacturing industry. The interpretation of the hypotheses results is summarized in table 5 above. The result reveals that there is a significant relation between corporate reputation and organizational performance (Path coefficient = 0.300; t = 3.025). This finding is in line with the study of Hsu (2012), Rettab et al., (2009). Hence, H1 is supported. Similarly, the relationship between BSR commitment and organizational performance found insignificant relation (Path efficient = 0.082) and result is not in line with (Ahmad et al., 2011 & Rettab et al., 2009), thus H2 not supported.

5. Conclusion, Managerial, Theoretical Contribution & Direction for Future Studies
In this study the paper examines the relationships between BSR dimension and organizational performance in emerging nation particularly Nigeria. The results are fairly, BSR has a significant and positive relation with corporate reputation and organizational performance. This result is in line with previous empirical studies conducted in western developed nations showing a positive relation BSR efforts and organizational performances, surprisingly, BSR commitment not significant relation with organizational performance in manufacturing industry in Nigeria. Further, this study reveals the impact of BSR on organizational performance in emerging nation like Nigeria which is similar to that of developed nation, e.g. USA & Western Europe. Equally this study has extended the current body of knowledge beyond developed nations.

However, scholars and practitioners in developed nation have a numerous of evidence on the relationship between BSR and organizational performance, to the best of our knowledge this study provides an evidence of this relationship in a non-developed nation context. Similarly, this result raise doubts about the validity of the assertion that, as a result of the absence of strong institutional support for BSR, and presence of weak and in effectual laws to guard against unethical practices (Foo, 2007).

**Theoretical Contribution**

Businesses are progressively in front of pressure to function in socially responsible ways (Mohr et al., 2001). The significant of BSR for firms should be due its relations with financial outcomes or actions outcomes of stakeholders. Thus, BSR can be viewed and used as a firm’s differentiation strategy, a form of strategic investment comparable to awareness (McWilliams, et al., 2006). This study examines the relationship between BSR commitment and Corporate Reputation on organizational performance. The results indicate that perception concerning BSR initiatives of Manufacturing industry have a positive effect on Corporate reputation but not significant effect on BSR commitment of manufacturing industry in Nigeria.

**Managerial Contribution**

The findings of this study have the following managerial for manufacturing industry. First, the fact, that BSR activities improve corporate reputation of manufacturing industry, encourages managers of manufacturing industry to continue investing in BSR actions. Stakeholder tend to be more satisfied with business that are more socially responsible, perceived these business more favourable in terms of corporate reputation, and reward these business. Secondly, managers should employ BSR activities to build corporate reputation without any other purpose when designing corporate reputation. This implication is in line with business ethics from a Kantian perspective (Bowie, 1999), and explains why BSR initiatives may be viewed as real options (Husted, 2005). BSR actions act as safety net to buffer and protect business from unpredictable negative events (Fombrun, et al., 2000). For the role of real option or policy maker in manufacturing industries that BSR actions are key
elements that lead to intangible assets that BSR accrues, such as corporate reputation, commitment, and legitimacy.

Limitations & Direction of future studies

As with any research, these study some limitations that should be noted. First, the data for the study were mainly collected from selected manufacturing industry in Kano metropolis, Nigeria. Thus, this is based on data from a single country and caution must be taken when generalizing the results of this study to other developing nation. Second, the direct effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables are difficult to conclude. In order to overcome some of these limitations, future studies of increasing the sample sizes and examines other industries or across different industries. In addition, future studies should employ a longitudinal research design, so that the direct effect of the independent variables on the dependent variables could be concluded.

References


EFFECTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE USE OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGIES IN THE LIBRARY SECTOR: TOWARDS A TRANSFORMATIVE APPROACH TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Aliyu Musa
Muhammadu Wabi Library
Federal Polytechnic,
Bauchi-Nigeria

Abstract

Although there is an increasing use of emerging technologies in the Library sector in higher education internationally and in Nigeria in particular, there is little evidence that it is used in transforming teaching and learning practice. Teaching and learning would have been more user friendly, with multiple positive recompense and positive feedback mechanism if emerging technologies are adequately put to use. Thus, the gap between technologies supported and used for teaching and the technologies used by students for learning has created pressure for educators and policy makers to come out with an up-to-date transformative approach towards effective and productive use of emerging technologies with a view to transform the education sector and encourage the use of emerging technologies in the library division. This paper seeks to highlight the available technologies in the sector and how to positively explore them. ICT and other sectors of the economy will also not be left out. It will also proffer a transformative approach on how such technologies can be utilized to the maximum for the benefit of teaching and learning and policy makers in particular, and the country’s other sectors at large. The paper draws its data from Secondary source only.

Introduction

In programming, a library is a collection of precompiled routines that a program can use. The routines, sometimes called modules, are stored in object format. Libraries are particularly useful for storing frequently used routines because you do not need to explicitly link them to every program that uses them. The linker automatically looks in libraries for routines that it does not find elsewhere. A building or room containing collections of books, periodicals, and sometimes films and recorded music for people to read, borrow, or...A collection of books and periodicals held in such a building or room. It is an organized collection of information resources made accessible to a defined community for reference or borrowing. It provides physical or digital access to material, and may be a physical building or room, or a virtual space, or both. A library's collection can include books, periodicals, newspapers, manuscripts, films, maps, prints, documents, microform, CDs, cassettes, videotapes, DVDs, Blu-ray Discs, e-books, audio books, databases, and other formats. Libraries range in size from a few shelves of books to several million items.

A library is organized for use and maintained by a public body, an institution, a corporation, or a private individual. Public and institutional collections and services may be intended for use by people who choose not to — or cannot afford to — purchase an extensive collection themselves, who need material no individual can reasonably be expected to have, or who require professional assistance with their research. In addition to providing materials, libraries also provide the services of librarians who are experts at finding and organizing information and at interpreting information needs. Libraries often provide quiet areas for studying, and they also often offer common areas to facilitate group study and collaboration. Libraries often provide public facilities for access to their electronic resources and the Internet. Modern libraries are increasingly being redefined as places to get unrestricted access
to information in many formats and from many sources. They are extending services beyond the physical walls of a building, by providing material accessible by electronic means, and by providing the assistance of librarians in navigating and analyzing very large amounts of information with a variety of digital tools.

There is no doubt that Information and Communication Technology has found its niche in every sphere of Nigeria’s polity. Information and Communication Technology has been defined as “a broad based technology (including its methods, management and application) that supports the creation, storage, manipulation and communication of information” (French, 1996). According Hang and Keen in Nworgu (2007), information technology means a set of tools that helps you work with information and perform tasks related to information processing”. The definition of French is more encompassing than that of Nworgu, which was limited to information processing and did not extend to the communication of ICT. Actually, the term originated as Information Technology (IT) until recently when it was thought that the communication component ought to be highlighted because of its significance. It was then that the concept transformed to Information and Communication Technology ICT (Olusanya and Oleyede, 2003).

The ICT industry according to Nworgu (2007) appears to be making significant in road into the Nigeria society. Prior to 1999, ICT resources and facilities were grossly limited in the country. Only very few wealthy Nigerians had access to these facilities and services. Internet facilities and services were rare to come by and the facsimile (ie. Fax) remained for a long time, the only means available to Nigerians for transmitting and receiving data or documents to other parts of the world. Public awareness of ICT and its application was low.

But now, the picture is entirely different. Huge investments have been made by both the public and private sectors in the ICT business in the country. Within the last three (3) years, the country has witnessed tremendous expansion in ICT resources and facilities. About 70 million Nigerians now have access to GSM. With the liberalization policy of the Federal Government, more GSM operators and Internet Service Providers (ISPs) have been licensed and are now operating in the country. Millions of Nigerians now have access to these facilities and services even in the rural communities.

A significant milestone in the development of the ICT industry in the country is the formulation of a National Information Technology Policy (NITP), which was approved in March, 2001 by the Federal Executive Council. With the enactment of this policy came the establishment of an implementing agency—the National Information Technology Development Agency (NITDA) in April 2001. This agency is charged with the responsibility of implementing Nigeria’s IT policy “as well as promote the healthy growth and development of the IT industry in Nigeria (Isoun, 2003).

* Alleviation of uncertainty. According to Mark and Pierce (2001), Shannon, as long ago as 1948, defined information as the resolution of uncertainty. This is perhaps one of the intangible attributes best known among a variety of researchers.

* Interdependency. Information almost always forms part of technology - it is the "soft" part (Röling 1990: 12). Without its information component, technology has little value as a resource for potential users who are not familiar with its workings or its background. With regard to developing rural communities, one should bear in mind that it is not necessarily new technology that brings about these achievements. All outside technology applied for the first time could be viewed as new to the user group or that particular situation, and could have similar effects.
* Enhancement of economic growth. A frequent complaint is that information is often
denied its role as a resource (Neelameghan 1980; Boon 1992). Yet, when looking at the
effect of information in development situations, there seems to be an underlying awareness
of its importance. Kaimowitz et al., (1990: 238) refer to the impact of new technology
(including information as the hidden component) in agriculture on the basis of such aspects
as increased farm income, reduced risk, resource conservation, improved health, better
(food) security, and overall economic growth.

* Extension of the knowledge base. From a development point of view, there is more
emphasis, first, on improving peoples' lives socially, and only secondly on economic
improvement. In development, outside technology is often introduced with the help of
education, training and visual demonstrations. Rogers (1992: 137) states that training helps
people in rural communities to expand horizons, increase perceptions, enhance
competencies, enlarge sense of perspective, and enhance self-esteem.

The above seem to emphasise the impact of the dynamic force of information, where the
'extension or altering of people's stores of knowledge' (Eaton & Bawden 1991) positively
affected their social well-being. Thus, although information is an intangible entity, it has the
ability to bring about change for the better; which is the ultimate goal of development.

Available Technologies in the Library Sector for Sustainable Development

According to Attama and Owolabi (2008) the following are primary ICT resources,

1. Computers: Computers are no longer just mathematical tools but essential
management resources. As we all may know, different operations can be handled more
efficiently using Computers. With the computer, such activities as information generation,
processing, analyzing, storage and communication for sustainable development could be
executed easily. The greatest assets of the computer are speed, cost-effectiveness and optimal
utilization of available resources. Some other computer accessories worthy of mentioning are
CD.ROM, diskettes, flash drive, etc.

2. The Internet: This has proven to the most valuable vehicle for accelerated
information flow. According to Ogbomo (2004), it is a network of computers that
communicate with each other, often over telephone lines. The potentials of the internet lies
in the provision of global platform for information sharing among organizations and
individuals. Information sharing creates awareness, ensures continuous use of products and
services, provides feedback and support for organization. The contention here is that any
organization or government that has current and useful information is empowered to
enhance productivity and good governance.

3. Electronic Mail (E-mail): This is the most widely used resource of the Internet. It
is provided for sending and receiving mails (messages) through electronic devices. Intra and
inter organizational communication has been made faster and cheaper. E-mail has become
the life-wire for many business and organizational communication.

4. World Wide Web (WWW): World Wide Web is also an Internet-based resource. It
is a utility based on hypertexts (Hypertexts simply documents through keywords in
document or page). A visit to a website helps individuals or organization to locate products,
information, pursues political or social agenda and transacts business (Chilvetalu, 2003).
From the above, we can infer that being on the web would put any nation or organization
on the right course of speedy and sustainable development in line with the emerging changes
in technology, economic and political paradigms. Consequently, many organizations,
ministries and parastatals in Nigeria have their own websites through which they make relevant information available to members of the public.

**Benefits of ICT to the Library and other sectors**

The importance of ICT to different sectors of national, economic and educational life of the nation cannot be over stressed. The specific benefits of ICT to these sectors and how the use has been contributing to sustainable national development are discussed under this segment.

**ICT for Good Governance**

The potential attributes and benefits of ICT to policy makers in the society have been accepted as imperative paradigm (Attama and Owolabi, 2008). In all intents and purposes, ICT is the acclaimed engine room of modern day global development and sustainable growth (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, 2005). In the same vein, Anchobi (2007) maintains that no institution or organization can still rely only on the traditional printed information resources to perform efficiently.

The infusion of ICT into public administration enhances efficiency in the delivery of services to the people. Heber (1990) in his own view maintains that ICT helps in taking high quality decisions and at the same time saves time. It is in line with the laudable roles that the federal government of Nigeria in order to ensure the full exploitation of the potentials of ICTs in sustainable democracy laid foundation for e-government in Nigeria (Aragba-Akpore, 2004).

Countries that have adopted and applied electronic services (ICT) to their operations have witnessed dramatic improvement in their development efforts. For countries such as Singapore, United States, Canada, Japan and most European nations, ICT is a strong tool for sustainable development and improving governance, widening democratic space, increasing productivity, administrative effectiveness and cost savings (Adamali, Coffey and Safdar, 2006). It is not surprising therefore that the application of ICT in governance is engendering much concerns in many countries of the world.

**ICT Application in Education**

Most of the discussions and initiatives on ICT in Education tend to focus on the use of ICT for teaching and learning only (The Commonwealth of Learning, 2006; Becta, 2004; Akale, 2003). This emphasis on instructional applications of ICT in education has an antecedent. From the earliest times, educational interest in technology has always centred on the instructional application of such technology to improve teaching and learning. The case of the computer provides a perfect illustration of this point. Long before the emergency of ICT, educational interest in the computer centred on its instructional applications as exemplified by computer-assisted instruction (CAI), computer-aided testing (CAT), etc.

It is perhaps easy to understand why the emphasis at the basic and secondary education levels should exclude research application of ICT. The primary responsibility of the teachers at these levels is defined exclusively in terms of teaching. However at the higher education level, teachers’ primary responsibility is of a tripartite nature involving teaching, research and community service. In effect it can be suggested here that any approach to ICT adoption at the higher education level that stressed only instructional applications and ignores research applications, will be grossly inadequate in meeting the needs of both students and teachers:

The indispensability of ICT in education research in particular includes

- Learning how to optimize the creativity of African Scientists through participation in international networks and working with data sets.
• Accessing various kinds of research information, which would necessitate a link to the libraries group
• Learning new methods for disseminating knowledge produced in Africa and using them.
• ICT applications run through the entire gamut of the educational research process. The advocacy for the indispensability of ICT in educational research can be further strengthened by the following arguments that tend to underscore the values derivable from applying ICT in educational research.
  • It reduced time and cost of conducting educational investigation.
  • Data sets and library resources can be shared by institutions in different locations
  • Educational researchers have easy access to current literature materials
  • Data sets, irrespective of size can be stored and retrieved when needed.
  • Researchers in different locations can collaborate more easily, etc (Nworgu, 2007)

Ijafuyi and Adebanjo (2006) while speaking on the usefulness of ICT in sustainable development advised on the need for a well-equipped ICT centres in all educational institutions to enable them live up to their social and political responsibilities.

Benefits of ICT in Legal System

Globalization driven by ICT is having a phenomenal impact on acquisition of legal, and other relevant learning, teaching and research materials in law libraries across the country. Through ICT, lawyers and students can have access to current court proceedings/cases and law reports anywhere, any time and in any form in the country.

There is no doubt that the integration of ICT into the practice of law is of much benefit to the profession in Nigeria in the 21st century. ICT is a remarkable tool for providing comprehensive, current and timely legal services to the citizenry. (Okon and Bassey, 2008). The relevance of ICT adoption and utilization in Nigerian legal system for effective and efficient service delivery is a contributory factor to sustainable development in Nigeria.

ICT in Business Management

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) is an essential part of national infrastructure and factors greatly in both public and private sector business enterprises. It creates business opportunities, especially for companies located far from urban centres, and improves links among firms, suppliers and clients. When used well, ICT can also make management and operation more efficient.

In another development, Sangowusi cited by Attama and Owolabi (2008) maintains that ICT is very useful in corporate environment because it promotes performance and improves efficiency.

Transformative approach in the Library sector-A way out

• Creation of a talent forum to ensure succession planning across departments for Senior Civil Service ICT vacancies;
• Establishment of a streamlined selection process for the Technology in Business Fast Stream, enabling a larger intake to be assessed;
* Development of a Career Paths Framework to enable staff to plot and drive their own careers and enable organizations to move ICT staff across government to fill vacancies, reducing reliance on external contractors;

* a draft model for the functions required for retained ICT capability enabling a clear picture of the essential skills required; and

* a proposal for ICT Higher Level Apprentices working with industry and eSkills. This scheme will be a joint public/private sector initiative leading to an opportunity for candidates to gain a work-based qualification and experience working in Government ICT.

* Making government ICT more open to the people and organizations that use our services, and open to any provider - regardless of size;

* Reducing the size and complexity of projects, and better manage risks;

* Enabling reuse of existing ICT systems and ‘off the shelf’ components, reducing duplication, over-capacity and saving money;

* Moving towards a common infrastructure in government, increasing efficiency and interoperability;

* Reducing procurement timescales and making it easier and simpler for SMEs to compete for government business, supporting the aspiration that 25% of Central Government procurement spend should go to SMEs by the end of this Parliament (2015); and

* Improving the implementation of big ICT projects and programmes, and supporting the IT profession in government and the public sector.

**Summary and Conclusion**

It has been commonly accepted and proven that information and communication technology (ICT) is the engine of the 21st century and beyond; as it will chart the economic, religious, cultural, legal and social life of nations, particularly that of developing countries (Ukodie, 2004). Hence, according to Nkereuwem (1996), the importance of information and communication technology for sustainable development, has long been recognized by developing countries. ICT has impacted on different sectors of the Nigerian economy. The application of ICT has emerged as the most radical development of the 21st century. It has facilitated speedy information transmission, high level decision making, reduces cost in resources/organizational management and as well opens vast opportunities for information sharing among individuals, companies and governmental institutions. It is a truism that information and communication technology (ICT) is very indispensable to Nigeria’s sustainable development drive. Today, ICT has been successfully integrated in the process of state administration, leading to a view concept of e-government. The potential benefits of ICT to sustainable development in Nigeria has been accepted as an imperative paradigm.

* Alleviation of uncertainty. According to Mark and Pierce (2001), Shannon, as long ago as 1948, defined information as the resolution of uncertainty. This is perhaps one of the intangible attributes best known among a variety of researchers.

* Interdependency. Information almost always forms part of technology - it is the "soft" part (Röling 1990: 12). Without its information component, technology has little value as a resource for potential users who are not familiar with its workings or its background. With regard to developing rural communities, one should bear in mind that it is not necessarily new technology that brings about these achievements. All outside technology
applied for the first time could be viewed as new to the user group or that particular situation, and could have similar effects.

* Enhancement of economic growth. A frequent complaint is that information is often denied its role as a resource (Neelameghan 1980; Boon 1992). Yet, when looking at the effect of information in development situations, there seems to be an underlying awareness of its importance. Kaimowitz et al., (1990: 238) refer to the impact of new technology (including information as the hidden component) in agriculture on the basis of such aspects as increased farm income, reduced risk, resource conservation, improved health, better (food) security, and overall economic growth.

* Extension of the knowledge base. From a development point of view, there is more emphasis, first, on improving people's lives socially, and only secondly on economic improvement. In development, outside technology is often introduced with the help of education, training and visual demonstrations. Rogers (1992: 137) states that training helps people in rural communities to expand horizons, increase perceptions, enhance competencies, enlarge sense of perspective, and enhance self-esteem.

The above seem to emphasize the impact of the dynamic force of information, where the 'extension or altering of people's stores of knowledge' (Eaton & Bawden 1991) positively affected their social well-being. Thus, although information is an intangible entity, it has the ability to bring about change for the better; which is the ultimate goal of development.

* Context dependency. The value of information as a resource in rural development depends largely on situation-specific issues: for example, one could argue that agriculture-related information is mostly technical in nature. However, people with little exposure to modern society have many related issues they need to know about. Ozowa (1995: 17), for example, identified certain types of basic information needed for the development of crop production by traditional farmers; inter alia, information about agricultural input (seeds, fertiliser, etc.), extension, technology (farming equipment, etc.), implementation techniques (ploughing, sowing, pest and weed control), soil, water and climatic conditions, conservation, credit, marketing and infrastructure.

* Culture dependency. Another attribute of information that can influence its usefulness as a development resource is that it is culture dependent - involving conceptual and cognitive differentiation. Pickering (1996: 451) is of the opinion that because information is culture specific, it is incomunicable unless acculturated - that is, adapted for the cultural environment or the cultural mind-set of the recipient group. Here, Shields and Servaes (1989: 49) also point out that information is not totally value-free, but is socially conditioned and shaped by the social structures that apply it. This aspect has serious implications for developers' efforts to transfer information to the rural communities of developing countries.

* Medium dependency. Information is not only culture dependent, but also medium dependent. Once information is concretized outside the human memory it should be packaged in some or other format (i.e., print, images, sound, electronic digits, etc.) to be communicated to someone else. Unless receivers know how to use that particular format, the information will remain inaccessible and rendered useless; for example, an electronic medium directed at users who are unfamiliar with such facilities can impede access to available information.
References


SMALL SCALE INDUSTRIES AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN EDO STATE

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Abstract

The future of the industrial development of this nation depends to a large extent on the growth and development of the potentials of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs). Small scale industries play a considerable role in the employment of manpower and productivity, distribution of income across the regions through increased investments and profits. In fact, they are termed ‘rural developing motors’. The objective of this study is to highlight the roles and constraints of small scale industries in the rural development of Edo state. The data collected were obtained through field observations, oral interviews and questionnaire administration. The data received were analysed using statistical techniques. Findings revealed that small scale industries have seriously impacted in the area of employment and household income generation. It also shows that there is lack of management skills, poor record keeping and weak access to financing.

Keywords: Rural development, small scale industries, employment, growth and development.

Introduction

“About 70% of Africa’s poor are rural and Nigeria’s population is predominantly rural with rural community dwellers making up 70% of the total population” (Onyenechere, 2010).

Rural development generally refers to the process of improving the quality of life and economic well being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated area. The need for rural communities to approach development from a wider perspective has created more focus on a broad range of development goals rather than merely creating incentives for agricultural or resource based businesses. Education, entrepreneurship, physical infrastructure and social infrastructure all play an important role in developing rural regions.

In recent years, many third world countries have come to realize that the development strategies they pursued in the past three decades were inappropriate and in some cases irrelevant to their real needs. They have also come to realize that a development strategy aimed primarily at economic growth and Gross domestic Product (GDP) will not by itself solve problems of employment, income distribution or improve the condition of the poorest segments of the population.

Adejumo and Olaoye (2012) observed that:

After early 1960s, the Nigerian government pursued the programme of import substitution industries (ISI) more vigorously than “the processing of raw materials for exports” programme which she did before 1954. The programme of ISI and export processing did not generate employment opportunity proportionately to the number of accumulating manpower, other problems include: regional economic disparities undue concentration of wealth and powers in the hands of few people in
the urban centre, wasteful utilization of productive resources and mass migration of youths from rural areas to urban centers.

The migration of youths from rural areas to urban areas is a resultant effect of increased rural population, unemployment of rural people, decreased inputs of rural people’s income and high supply of labour in rural areas. In order to address the various problems mentioned above, the Federal and State governments decided to try an alternative industrialization strategy – development of small scale businesses especially in the early 1970s.

Most Nigerian small businesses were at one time collage industries that developed into small industries. Most of these are in the rural areas working raw materials such as leather or wool into textiles. According to a 1992 study, the main types of small industries were centered on weaving, baking, welding, shoe making, tailoring or pottery. Most of these were one person operations.

The government has defined “small industry” numerous times over the years depending on the nature of the “development plan”.

In general, the government defines a “small industry” as one that employs fewer than 50 people. Older plans define it as employing fewer than 10 people. In addition, the state defines a small business as one that has a basic capital value of less than N500,000 ($3,320 US. as of September 2010).

Bachama Nigel Yusuf (2010) observed that:

In all economies, (especially developing economies) small scale industries play important roles in the provision of immediate employment, complementing large and medium scale enterprises in the provision of goods and services, help build supplies of managerial and entrepreneurial skills, promote indigenous technology, ensuring the nation becomes self reliant in agricultural production, help in alleviating poverty especially among the rural communities ensuring equitable distribution of national income and mobilization of resources.

Inspite of the relevance of small scale industries to both developed and developing economies, in Nigeria, the sector faces a lot of problems. These problems include among others; managerial problem, lack of appropriate technology, a harsh policy environment, inadequate infrastructural facilities and finance. This is why inspite of her vast natural and human resources, today, Nigeria is still struggling to survive.

Given the scenario above, the objective is to highlight the roles and constraints of small scale industries in the rural development of Edo State. For SMES to be sustained in this challenging environment there is a need for systematic analysis of their problems and identification of strategies for survival. Some of these SMES are thriving in Nigeria despite the challenging environment as a result of the effective option strategies they have internalized while others have closed shop. It has become important to identify the major problems and the strategies employed by the thriving ones.

**The concept, functions and characteristics of small and medium scale enterprises.**

The concept of a small and medium scale enterprise (SME) is quite relative and depends on both the geographical location as well as the nature of the economic activity being
performed. This is why literary works as well as legislations and practices of countries lack unanimity on the definition of SMES.

In Nigeria, for instance, among the various definitions used by different agencies include the following:

1. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) defines a small scale enterprise as an enterprise whose total cost, excluding cost of land but including working capital, is above N1.0 million but does not exceed N10.0 million (CBN, 1996:7).
2. The Nigerian Directorate of Employment (NDE) defines Small and Medium Scale business in the 1989 National Budget to include project with a capital investment as low as N3,000 and employing as few persons as three persons.
3. The centre for Industrial Research and Development at the Obafemi University, Ile-Ife defines SMEs as those whose total assets in capital equipment, plant and working capital do not exceed N250,000.00 and employing not more than 50 full time workers.
4. The Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (NIDB) defines Small Scale Enterprises as enterprises with project cost (investment and working capital) not more than N750,000.00 while medium scale enterprises is defined as those business with project cost between the range of N750,000.00 and N3.0 million).
5. The World Bank defines SMEs as those with fixed assets (excluding land) but including cost of the investment project not exceeding N10 million in constant 1988 prices (Umar 1997)
6. The National Economic Reconstruction Fund (NERFUND) defines SMEs as enterprises with fixed assets other than land but inclusive of the cost of new investment not exceeding N10 million.

**Functions**

(1). SMEs constitute the very basis of the Nigerian economy. They have come to realize the value of small businesses. They are seen to be characterized by dynamism, witty innovations, efficiency, and their small size allow for faster decision making process. Governments all over the world have realized their importance and thus have formulated comprehensive public policies to encourage, support and fund them.

(2). Ability to generate employment opportunities particularly in the rural areas. Lewis (1974) highlighted one of the contribution of Small Scale Industries as the provision of immediate large scale employment to the unemployed as well as to nearly all marginal labour; such as house wives, students on vacation under aged children, disabled and even a times old age people both skilled and unskilled.

(3). Small Scale industries ensure a more equitable distribution of national income and at the same time facilitate effective mobilization of resources (which were hitherto lying idle) of capital and skill.

(4). Mobilization and utilization of domestic savings. Initial capital investment for small scale businesses are obtained from the non formal lending sources, that is, from friends, relatives, local money lenders, traditional cooperatives for savings and credit as well as from personal funds. This goes to show that idle funds especially in the rural areas will find their way into productive uses. Associated with this fact is that human beings clever brains and skillful hands are adequately utilized in the process.
High local value added since most of their operations are based on the exploitation of indigenous technology. Small scale industries mostly use domestically produced materials inputs including tools, equipment and power which makes it possible for a country to redirect its foreign exchange to other channels of development, especially in the present global economic crisis that seriously impacted on revenue base of the country. The products of these companies could also be exported to earn the country foreign exchange.

SMEs help to mitigate rural-urban migration. It can among other things help promote an agro-based industry which is another threshold for development in the rural areas that are industrially backward and thus help curb rural/urban migration in which cities are prone to, thus reducing unemployment, crime and other vices as a result of the menace of such movement. Most importantly is that it complements large industries in producing goods and services which are hitherto imported.

It helps to stimulate indigenous entrepreneurship. The development of Small Scale industries seems to carry the greatest hope of truly indigenizing the Nigerian economy. It is the believe of this study that small scale industries can tackle more efficiently certain problems of industrialization. For example, cottage industries as analyzed by some writers, as the kind of industries which depends on traditional skills and so can help build supplies, managerial and entrepreneurial skills especially as they are widely distributed over wider regions including rural areas.

Characteristics of Small and Medium Scale Enterprise

Iregbeyen (1999) opined that:

Our knowledge about SMES will not be enough if we do not know their characteristics which to a large extent, enable them to perform the above function on the one hand and on the other hand pose as a stumbling block, particularly in their ability to source for funds. The main characteristics of SMEs as contained in the literature (Brewer M et al, 1997:4; World Bank, 1994 and 1996; U.N 1994:3) and confirmed by our findings are as follows:

1. Ownership and management are often held by one individual who exercise greater dominance and influence. Hence, ownership is highly family centered.

2. The small size and relatively short history of most SMEs often affect their behavior and performance

3. The inability to separate company’s fund from proprietor’s fund contributes to the inefficiency in financial management of many SMEs and their inability to easily secure loans from financial institutions

4. SMEs are more reluctant at taking risks on new ventures because for their low capital base and low level of qualified employees.

5. Reluctance in shifting production from an old product to an entirely new product.

6. Many SMEs are family businesses and as such performance standards are almost impossible to establish and enforce.
Major problems or constraints of small and medium scale enterprises.

Osanwonyi and Tafamel (2010, pp 195-196) is of the opinion that the major problems faced by small and medium scale enterprises are;

Poor and inadequate start up process: The start-up process of a business is important to its failure or success. Nzeribe (1996) opined that business especially small ones are started by the entrepreneurs and are usually guided by a vision, an intuitively experienced image of what it to be achieved and how to get there. The way an entrepreneur structures and creates his business reflects his personality, and cannot be transferred to his successor. The severity of the succession problems in family businesses is significant in their success and any future combination.

Financial problems: The problem with funding of SMEs has to do with sourcing and accessibility. Factors inhibiting funds accessibility of SMEs are the stringent conditions set up by the financial institutions, the lack of adequate collateral and credit information and the cost of processing funds.

Management Problem: Technical problems/competence and lack of essential and required expertise in production, procurement and maintenance, marketing and finances have always led to fund misapplication, wrong and costly decision making. Lack of trained manpower and management skills constitute major challenges to survival of SMEs.....inefficiency in overall management and poor record keeping is a major feature of SMEs.

Lack of Infrastructural Development: The problem of infrastructure ranges from shortage of water supply, inadequate transport system, lack of electricity to solid waste management. Governments have not done enough to create the best conducive environment for the striving SMEs thus businesses have to provide expensive parallel infrastructure.

Strategic Planning Problems: Sound planning is a necessary input to a sound decision-making. SMEs often do not carry out proper strategic planning in their operations.

A major challenge to the success of SMEs in Nigeria is irregular power supply which requires urgent genuine government attention if the vision 2020 project is to be achieved (Chiedu, 2012).

SMEs also face the problem of low patronage. Most Nigerians have developed a high propensity for the consumption of foreign goods as against their locally made substitutes thus making the market for locally made goods to be poor.

Research Design and Methodology

The study has been narrowed down to three lines of business in Edo State, these are welding, shoe making and tailoring. The random sampling method has been used in generating respondents for the questionnaires and interviews. The data was collected by combining primary sources with secondary sources. The main data instrument employed is the questionnaire. The questionnaire was design as multiple-choice and open ended. Interview of the owners and managers of SMEs were also used to supplement the output.
Data Analysis

A total of 105 copies of the questionnaires were distributed, 105 was retrieved and useful. The response rate is a satisfactory 91% and the distribution as in table 2 below.

From table 3, it was seen that majority of the SMEs are one-man business with a response rate of 90.48%, 1.90%. This indicates that most SMEs in Edo State are sole proprietorship. Majority of those who manage SMEs in Edo State pass through apprenticeship with 23.81% and are poorly educated WASC/SSCE 33%. The meaning of this that SMEs owners may not be informed enough to respond to enlarged and heightened competition of modern business. The table reveals that 50.48% of them indicated age of business of one to five years while 43.81% indicated age of between 5-10 years. This picture shows a weak educational background. From table four, 52.14% respondents believe that their present level of education is not adequate for effective management of their business operations. Inspite of this, 59% rejected the infection of additional qualified personnel into their business for fear of that they may take over the business (38.10%) and reduction in profits resulting from additional employing a staff. Also, it is clear that most SMEs owners require loan to finance their operation of their business. This is evident from the 57% positive response. 60% of the respondents require loans from specialized government agencies and institutions while 40% prefer short term loans and overdrafts.

From table 5, 86 respondents (81.9%) agree that they have problems obtaining funds from governmental banks and financial institutions. This may be due to inability to meet the strict conditions and terms of loans demanded by the banks. This may inhibit their desire scope of expansion and the level of productivity and in some cases result to closure. This is shown by 50% response. 19% respondents say they do not understand banks procedures and requirement while 28.57% attributed it to lack of collateral security. 76% of the respondents believed that the problem can be resolved while 23.8% of the respondent that the problem cannot be resolved. The table shows that 80% of the respondents believe that the government have a greater role to play in resolving fund accessibility while 20% disagree implying that the SMEs owners have a greater role to play.

Table: shows option strategies employed by thriving SMEs. The rating can be seen on the table.

Recommendations and Conclusion

Summary of findings:

- SMEs have seriously impacted in the areas of employment, development of indigenous industrial sector
- Ownership/ management of these SMEs are mainly managed by individuals who do not have adequate qualification and management experience to effectively manage their business in a challenging environment.
- Problems facing the SMEs in Edo State include poor management, lack of access to financing, inadequate policy environment and lack of technological know-how.
- Governments in conjunction with the owners of SMEs have a great role to play.
- The options employed to survive by striving SMEs include creativity and innovation in product packaging, use of trained employees, political patronage and relationship,
creative financing, planning, committed response to stakeholders, understanding of market and response flexibility and personal commitment.

**Recommendations:**

- The SMEs owners should be committed to their business and be growth oriented rather than consumption oriented.
- Informal education of SMEs owners should be promoted through seminars and workshops which should be organized regularly to create forum for interaction of SMEs owners/managers with other and thereby improving on their management capabilities.
- The various loan guarantee schemes of government, its agencies as well as banks should learn the operational methods of NGOs that have been successful in finding SMEs.

**Table 1: Distribution and Return of questionnaires**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SMEs</th>
<th>Questionnaires Distributed</th>
<th>Total Returned</th>
<th>Total returned</th>
<th>Total % of total response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Welding</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoe making</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>47.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey returns

**Table 2: Analysis of ownership structure, qualification**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ownership structure</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One man business</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>90.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-operative society</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>07.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited liability</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Owners Qualification</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First school leaving certificate</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>40.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WASC/SSCE</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>No of Respondent</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OND/NCE</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BSC/HND</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBA/MSC</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprentice</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of Business</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 5-10 years</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>43.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 years and above</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>5.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Survey responses to questions on qualification to funding**

Do you think your present level of qualification and experience is adequate for your business in a difficult economic situation?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>42.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Do you require additional qualified personnel to join in your management?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>40.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>59.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>10000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Reasons for rejection of additional qualification personnel

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fear of taking over the business</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>38.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of misunderstanding in the future</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diffusion of control</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of paying additional management</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff will be high and lead to reduction in profit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>105</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Do you have adequate finance for your business operations?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>36.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>63.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>105</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Do you require loan for your business operations?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>57.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>42.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>105</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### From which source do you require loan to finance the operation of your business?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short term Bank loans and overdraft</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long term Bank loans</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Loans from specialized government agencies and institutions e.g. Micro credit schemes | 63 | 60
--- | --- | ---
Total | 105 | 100

Sources: Survey report

**Table 4: Survey Responses to questions relating to details of funding**

Do you have any problem obtaining funds from governmental Banks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>81.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What are the problems of obtaining loans from Banks and Financial institutions?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The company cannot meet the Banks lending requirement</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>50.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of understanding of the Banks’ procedures and requirement</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of good project proposals</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of collateral security</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**How can the problems of access to loans be resolved?**

Do you think that these problems identified can be resolved?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>76.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Does the government at all levels have a major role to play in resolving these problems?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What should government do to resolve the problem of obtaining loans form banks?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Option</th>
<th>No of Respondent</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging Banks to provide loans to SMEs by guaranteeing such loans</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>38.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create an enabling environment for value SMEs</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide training and educating SME owners</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing the loanable funds and banks should guarantee its effective and efficient usage</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: survey report

Table 5: Indicate the strategies for SMEs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity and innovative in product packaging</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of trained employees</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political patronage and relationship</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative financing (especially from NGOs)</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality product</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good location</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Committed response to stakeholders</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1: Percentage of respondents per strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Understanding of market and response</th>
<th>75</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal commitment</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey Report

Note: Respondents gave multiple strategies

References


THE IMPACT OF WEB PORTAL IN LIBRARY AND INFORMATION SERVICES IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Ahmed Tijjani Abdul
College Library, Federal College Of Education, Zaria-Nigeria

Abstract

The advent of website which is also referred to as “web portal” is one of the greatest revolution in the world of providing and promoting library and information resources and services. Today, accessibility to information and information retrieval as a result of websites as helped libraries and information centers to effectively render quality library services to their customers. Web portal has great advantages in information generation, processing and accessibility to information on demand. Users have the advantage of visiting websites to obtain readily available information via internet. Therefore, this paper attempt to discuss the concept of web portal as an emerging technology that could help to facilitate the storing and retrieval of information and its services particularly as it affect the modern flow and management of information in the 21st century. The concepts of library service were also highlighted as that phase of library work that assists library users with relevant information through the use of library resources. The applications of the technology within Nigeria context were discussed as well as factors that could pose are posing threat to its management in library services to library users. Finally, recommendations were proffered as solutions for the use of web technology within the context of library and information services.

Key Words: Web Portal, Library Services.

Introduction

As digital resources increased exponentially over the last decade, academic libraries have heavily invested in electronic books, research databases, as well as electronic journals, and made them accessible via their library Web portals. Some libraries also undertake usability initiatives to improve their Web portals in order to provide users with better and easier access to their electronic collections and services. In the late 1990s, the web portal was a hot commodity. After the proliferation of web browser in the late 1990s, many companies tried to build or acquire a portal to have a piece of the internet market. The web portal gained a special attention because it was for many users, the starting point of their web browser. The World Wide Web continues to be the preeminent application on the internet because it has regularly reinvented itself. Infact, for most people, the World Wide Web has become synonymous with the internet. These changes may prove to be more far-reaching than any other change to hit the web. Portals are not pad or a new name for something that we’ve been doing all along; they serve as a repository information centre for dynamic and potential users who subscribe to their site. Portal virtually gives every users a customized, personalize and unique web page. Every information technology (I.T) vendor and many I.T professionals are rushing to produce portal ware and portal-like web pages without fully understanding the scope of a portal undertaking for an institution or even really understanding what a web portal is or should do. With recent development, many library and information centers have been modernized to meet the need of the global change. The traditional practices of librarianship are fast adapting to the new age technologies for better service delivery to library users.

The Concept of Web Portal

According to Howard (2007) web portal is a web site that brings together information from diverse sources in a unified way. Usually, each information source gets its dedicated area on
the page for displaying information. Web portals offer services such as e-mail, news, stock prices, information, data bases and entertainment. According to Osuala (2006) Opines that web portal is computer files, encoded using Hypertext Mark- up Language (HTML) and containing text, graphics and sound files that is accessible through the World Wide We According to Duncan (2010) defined web portal as compendium of knowledge which exposes library customers to varieties of information on subject disciplines which they need as tools for study and research purpose. Macdonald (2009) Submitted that web portal is in contestable and indispensable in information management. While Okon (2005) define web portal as a designed site where users can easily go from one page to another navigating the information of their choices. He further explain that, web portal have the information stored into links to various topics such as news, business, sports, entertainment, finance, travel and much more. Yahoos, Google, AOL are popular portals on the internet.

Spenser (2009) further described web portal as a site that allow global computers net work called the internet to display multi media document such as text, photographs, illustrations, video, music or computer programs. They also often include links to other site in the form of hyper text, highlighted or colour text that the users can click on with their mouse, instructing their computer to jump to the site. Richard (2008) opined that web portal is divided and categorized into three; namely:-

1- Personalized web portal  
2- Customized web portal  
3- Corporate web portal  

The above were further classified into two groups. Vertical Enterprises Portals (VEPs), and Horizontal Enterprises Portals (HEPs), also called mega portal.

Horizontal Enterprises portal is a public web site that attempt to provide its users with all the services they might need. Such as net centre and my excite. All HEPs includes shopping, weather, stock prices, news, search engines, chat groups horoscopes and so forth, and they all urge you to make their page the first page you see when you use the web. They allow you to personalize the page you see by selecting the cities for which you would like the weather, choosing the stocks and news sources you’d like to display. Some HEPs lets you do extensive personalization, allowing you to build multiple stock portfolios and see frequently updated valuations. Typically, but not always, the personalization is held in web cookies that are stored on local computer. Accessing a HEPs from another computer loses all your personalization. HEP always include advertising that pays for the portal and their goal is to attract as many eyes balls as possible. HEPs do not allow academic or corporate employees access to every thing they really need on the web. Much of what an employee needs on the web is specific to where he or she works and his or her role in that organization, for example, if an employee working in the department of a university could only have access to information that concern his or her department and related to his or her job in the university because it has been codified and personalized. On the other hand if an employee is in need of information outside the scope of his department and roles, he or she would have to restore to the use of Vertical Enterprises Portals(VEPs).

Vertical Enterprises Portals (VEP) is a portal that delivers organization- specific information in a user-centric way. Whereas HEPs looks the same to all who first enter it, VEPs looks quite different. Unlike HEPs, VEPs require authentication for access. When a user logs on to VEPs, it produces a customized portal page, tailored to the user who logged on. It knows a great deal about the user who logged on because the user is a member of the organization that produced the VEPs. A customized web portal is done by the portal soft wares knowledge of an authenticated portal user, when you authenticate to a vertical portal, it can gain access to a great deal of information about you and present you with a customized portal page. The portal customization engine that resides on the portals application server is responsible for determining each user's roles, responsibilities, work flow, and the information that the person is authorize to access. HEPs have little or no customization, since the initially have access to very little information about you. A VEP is a single page with access to all the information and the
applications a user commonly needs. It will contain alert, navigation tabs and icons, directories, graphics and links.

**Concept of Library Services**

James (2008) defined library services as varied activities that is rendered to library users for effective and efficient patronage and given the required information for research work. Akintunde (2004) opines that, library services in many tertiary institutions have either earned the institution accreditation or failed them in the provision of effective and efficient services for academic excellence. In another development, Mohammed(2011) in his lectures delivered to undergraduate students on security and preservation of library resources said that, library services are categorized into two namely, solicited and unsolicited library services. Solicited library services are those services that are mandatory and compulsory for any library to provide for its users. Services such as reference services, bibliographic services, current awareness services, reader services, information services, bindery services, indexing and abstracting services, document delivery services, inter library loan services, internet services, lending services, online public access catalogue(OPAC), photocopying services, research advisory services, referrer services etc. Unsolicited library services are those services that are not mandatory and compulsory for library to provide for its user but it add more value to the mandatory library services. These services are as follows:- Book talk, Display and Exhibition, TV show and radio services, Teleconferencing, Extension services such as film show, puppet shows, picture book time, story telling etc.

**Library and Information Application in the age of Science and Technology**

It has become pertinent and necessary for library and librarian to move from the traditional way of acquiring, processing, storing and dissemination of information to a modern way through the use of computers and communication technologies. More so, that users are no longer coming to the library to obtain and acquire relevant information in text using various text books, journals, and magazines. They prefer to use their computers, phones, other storage facilities in their domain without covering much distance to get their needed information.

The adoption and use of these technologies made library and information centers to be recognized as information scientist because they adapt to any changes so as to pursue effective and efficient service delivery to their patrons or customers. The integration and adoption of this technology into library services has not only improved library services, but also added more value to the profession of library and information science. Web portal was adopted to complement and supplement the traditional way to a modern conducive and stressless way of obtaining information.

Williams (2009) opined that, the introduction of web portal into library has greatly enhanced the efficiency and effectiveness of library services. Client can get satisfactory answer to their queries within the shortest time. Librarian can perform their services more efficiently. Among the greatest benefit of internet to library services is the inexpensive way to communicate with other internet users world wide. It is used to obtain important resources for teaching and learning in schools. It is possible to send out orders to publishers and producers of teaching and learning materials and equipment.

Thompson (2011) submitted that, services such as ordering and processing of library materials are made easier through internet. Libraries using appropriate commercial databases can locate selected materials and send out e-mail orders to publishers. Reference services and resources are moving away from its conventional book format to electronic format. When there is a need, information obtained can be printed. Students, teachers and other researcher can look up items of interest in electronic encyclopedias. Articles on particular subjects from a variety of publication could be called without having to buy the publication. Services offered by the internet is the inexpensive way to communicate with other internet users world wide. It is used to obtain important resources for teaching and learning in schools. It is possible to send out orders to publishers and producers of teaching and learning materials and equipment.
Benefit of Web Portal to Library Services

The adoption and integration of web portal into library services has changed and improved the phase of providing or making information available to users and these are:

1- It has improved speed limitation in searching and retrieving information.
2- It has encouraged resource sharing among two or more libraries.
3- It has added more value to information professional.
4- It has increase users patronage with the view of accessing library collections.
5- It has enable sending and receiving of information within a short period of time.
6- It has made ordering and processing of library materials easier.

In a related development (2008) identified the benefit of web portal as follows:
1) Web Portal provides information on all subject discipline
2) Web Portal address saves time in searching and retrieving information
3) Web Portal exposes users to many researches
4) Web Portal provide addresses for accessibility
5) Web Portal can be connected to web cam camera for photographic information
6) Web Portal promote good information management
7) Web portal technology is highly flexible as you can search for different information at a time.
8) Once the server is “on” you can manipulate web site to your advantage.

Global Implication of Web Portal in Providing Library Services

The trends of librarianship in library and information centre require much more than the traditional way of providing and disseminating information to their customers. But looking at the implication of web portal, one will be curious in asking such questions as; will librarians and information professionals practice librarianship and still be relevant without adopting this technology; can they render services as the traditional way and still be current?. Patrick (2008) submitted that global web portal has changed the way we handle information. The world is referred to as” Global Village” therefore; web portal has created a situation of open communication and interaction among members of the community. In a related development Murray (2009) observed that web portal has nothing to do with distance barrier. People all over the world can connect to the web without problem of getting different kinds of information. Web portal exposes internet users to various kinds of web sites. Dennis (2010) agrees with Murray (2009) but stressed that web portal should present its information comprehensively and well organize. The web site should give details of how to access web site and get relevant information for career development.

Today, many libraries have come into lime light because of the adoption and application of new technology in providing library service. The implication means that no printed books or other printed materials of any kind will be use in the library, no one including the staff will be allow to bring any of those materials into the library, information will be available only in digital format and accessible only electronically. The library will have no photocopying machines, no computer printers, and no provision for the receipt of mail and no waste baskets and recycling bins. Neither staff nor users will be allowed to bring note books or any other form of paper into the library. Only personal data assistance, computer and other paper- free electronic devices may be used to bring information into, or, take information out of the library or information centers.

Application of the Technology within Nigeria Context

In context to Nigeria as a developing country, web portal has been accommodated, adopted, in most academic institution (both private and public), companies, hospitals, and government agencies, but the syndrome of maintenance culture, funding is inadequate, staff are not qualified to operate the
equipment, the problem of obsolescence’ is causing more harm than good. Most web portals are designed for commercial purposes so as to inform their customers on latest development as regards to goods and services. It is also used in transacting business such as buying and selling of products. Nigeria as nation is also faced with the problem of insufficient power supply and problem of connectivities thereby putting the customers at disadvantage than advantage. For Nigeria to adapt to this technology, training retraining of information professional need to be made so as to meet the main stream of digital revolution because library services today require more global networking in delivery effective and efficient services.

**Challenges of Web Portal in the Provision of Library Services.**

In as much as web portal initiative is good; there are observed obstacle that can render library services ineffective and disappointing among which are;

1) Problem of dialoging among librarians for improve library services
2) Problem of enacting a policy mandating libraries to adopt web portal in providing library services to customers.
3) Problem of qualified staff in the management of information resources using Web Portal technology.
4) The problem of interrupted power supply particularly in Nigeria
5) Problem of maintenance culture as web portal require good maintenance for sustainability and development.
6) Web Portal can be affected by bandwidth as the bigger the bandwidth the wider the area network.
7) Web Portal is expensive to manage as it requires constant activation from time to time.
8) Problem of constant power supply to operate the technology without interruption.

**Conclusion**

In Africa and, particularly, Nigeria, adoption and adaption of web portal is the case; Nonetheless, significant progress will have to be made for Nigerians libraries to be in the main stream of the digital revolution. Library services require more global networking in delivering service. Cost of technological infrastructure and services, dwindling financial resources, all contribute to inefficiency of staff and the technology to function properly even when they are made available for effective library services, electricity (power supply) is another problematic phenomenon, therefore rendering library inefficiency in the 21st century. Librarians and other information profession needs to complement and support each other for a meaningful and functional development.

**Recommendations**

The following recommendations were drawn for effective and efficient library services in the 21st century as regard the adoption and adaptation of new technology such as web portal.

1) There is a need for collective dialogue and corporation among information professionals.
2) There should be a policy mandating every library and information professional to adopt and make functional practice of web portal in making information available to their customers.
3) Training and retraining of library staff locally and internationally should be encourage in all aspect of information management and resource development using web portal.
4) Constant power supply should be maintained or making available generator set for power failure
5) Maintenance culture should be emphasize to increase the life span of the technology
6) Information professionals should be encouraged to acquire big bandwidth for improve library service using web portal.
7) Funding should be made and checked judiciously for maintenance and Management of web portal.
8) Constant power supply should be maintained or making available generator set for power failure.

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FEDERAL CHARACTER PRINCIPLES, NATION BUILDING AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION IN NIGERIA: ISSUES AND OPTIONS

Cornelius, O. Okorie

&

Esheya Greg

Abstract

Nigeria remains a product of British political experiment of social cloning. There are about 250 ethnic nationalities in Nigeria. Prior to 1914 amalgamation, each of the 250 ethnic nationalities in Nigeria existed independently and distinctively in culture and tradition. The amalgamation midwifed birth of a country which is a replica of catholic marriage which may not be palatable but cannot be separated easily. By 1954, British government further displayed their political dexterity by introducing federalism. Yet it did not provide the desired unity. Giving the problems inherent with federalism, federal character principles were introduced along with national integration and nation building as a palliative measure in the 1979 and 1999 constitutions respectively. The extent to which the principles and policies have achieved its fundamental objectives in terms of nation building and integration demands scholarly excursion. Significance of this work lies in the understanding of why in spite rich content of the principles; national integration and nation building have not been fully achieved. Are there some issues with their application? The crux of this paper was to identify issues with the principle as well as options that would facilitate attainment of a desired nationhood. Central issues identified among others include, ethnocentrism, mutual suspicion, elitism, and mediocrity. The paper adopted content analysis of scholarly inputs. In conclusion, the paper opted for value orientation, patriotism, honesty and fairness which would seemingly enthrone confidence among Nigerians and facilitate the attainment of the desired peaceful co-existence.

Key words: Nigeria, federal character, nation building, principles and integration.

Introduction:

Among comity of nations, a country is distinguished not only by its geographical location but of certain peculiarities which may either be natural or have evolved over a period of time. Nigeria’s peculiarities include; ethnic diversity, religious and cultural differences particularly the feeling of superiority by an ethnic group over the other. It is remarkably relevant to note that ethno-cultural and religious superiority have contributed significantly to most of the problems in the country (Kukah, 2003). Over the years, several regimes have designed and constitutionalised some principles, provisions, policies and programmes aimed at promoting peaceful co-existence among the diverse ethnic nationalities. Specifically and currently too, section 14, subsection 3 of the 1999 constitution of Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN) states that:

The composition of the Government of the Federation or any of its agencies and the conduct of its affairs shall be carried out in such a manner to reflect the federal character of Nigeria and the need to promote national unity, and also to command national loyalty thereby ensuring that there shall be no predominance of persons from a few states or from a few ethnic or other sectional groups in that government or in any of its agencies.

It is widely believed by advocates of the principle that federal character would deeply promote nation building and national integration both of which are sized as the panacea for peaceful co-existence. It is rightly understandable that Nigeria’s history towards federalist status was inadvertent in nature and chequered in composition. There were notable stages and activities during colonial period and in recent time. It is argued and rightly too that Nigeria is a mere geographical expression (Awolowo, 1947). This responded directly to why federal character principle was strongly proposed by the 1976 Constitution Drafting Committee (CDC) and upheld in the 1999 constitution. The extent to which the provision/principle (federal character) and advocacy have achieved its aim remains imaginary.
Afigbo (1987:21) in Ezeibe (2012) identified some stages in the evolution of federal character which is originally a colonial heritage. The stages include: The period of informal federation 1900-1946; The period of formal federation, first phase, 1946-1966, and The period of formal federation second phase: 1967-present. Afigbo further noted that the principle arose out of a compromise among the protagonists of the 1976 CDC. In another perspective, “Amalgamation” theories of the 1898-1914 type were not necessarily the first to hit the political horizon in the territories that later became Nigeria”. (Tamuno, 2003:15). He further noted that federalism developed and grew from 1954. The political exercises by the colonialists (then) signaled a marriage of about 250 ethnic nationalities. In order to keep and sustain the marriage, 1979 and 1999 constitutions respectively introduced federal character, while nation building and national integration were propagated by its pandits as the blending cream. On the contrary, the provision and affiliate concepts paradoxically nurtured ethnic and primordial nationalists. Were as Tamuno, (2003:16) noted that the growth, development and practice of federalism, from 1954, allowed both elite and the masses to encounter severe crises, Shivji (2009) aptly states that nationalism became cultural relativism at best or fundamentalism at worst. As it were, these constitutions (1979 and 1999) are products of the military juntas, designed for democratic practice. The beauty of democracy globally lay in equity. Its applicability in Nigeria infers equitable representation of the ethnic nationalities in political appointments, career positions and such other positions of national representation or significance. The beauty and strength in the merger is probably preferred on democratic principles, such as good moral value and ethics, patriotism and nationalism which stand to promote and sustain synergy among the ethnic nationalities. The question is, do Nigeria’s elite and the masses possess the courage and will to uphold and apply those values and tenets that promote peace rather than crises, democracy rather than sentimentalism?

According to Mohiddin, (2009), there is no universally acceptable model of democracy. Implicit in the idea is that a country is at will to develop democratic principles that promote good understanding, unity and development. This is likely the task which federal character is set to achieve. The principle is home grown in nature and practice. Practice of federal character principle in Nigeria so far raises curiosity and doubts.

The paper is therefore anchored on identifying issues in the application of federal character as well as options that would promote peaceful co-existence. The paper is contextually and methodologically opinionated as well as based on scholarly, visual and experienced observation. Again, it was deliberately partitioned into three main sections: firstly, it presented conceptual and contextual explications which are remarkably the very foundation of the paper. It further x-rays issues with the application of federal character and this is considered the crux of the paper. The third section was dedicated to options to federal character in Nigeria. In the end, the paper drew conclusion and acknowledged some notable scholars that directly or by extension discussed similar points.

**Federal Character:** Olagunju (1987) defined federal character as a deliberate design to accommodate less dominant but often forcibly expressed interest. Ezeibe (2012) says that federal character principle involves a deliberate plan to construct means of ensuring the proper distribution of amenities and government projects in a country. Implicit in the above definitions is that federal character is introduced where there are observed differences in culture, tradition and inequality either in human, natural or both. Therefore, federal character is a palliative principle aimed at uniting once existed autonomous sub-nationalities through quota system for purposes of equality of opportunities and peaceful co-existence. Exenwa (1987) and Heirmexy (2011) noted that federal character was introduced for equitable sharing of posts and even distribution of natural and economic resources. Contextually, the policy evolved through three main phases: implied, expressed and applied/practiced. From 1914-1953 the principle was saliently applied as encapsulated by the amalgamation policy. From 1953-1976, it was applied under federalism, introduced in 1954. From 1976 to date, the principle is constitutionised and fully practiced. Throughout the phases, the principle consummated Nigeria into a catholic marriage which may no longer be enjoyed but conditions for separation is near impossible. For the period, it has only achieved co-existence devoid of peace and this is evident in most national issues and developments.

**Nation Building:** Elaiwu in Okorie (2009) defined it as the process of creating unity and sense of belonging among heterogeneous groups in the state. In the view of Wikipedia (2013), it refers to the process of constructing a national identity using the power of the state. It further stated that it involves the process aimed at unification of the people within the state so that it remains politically stable and viable in
the long run. The concept gained popularity due to the observed diversity in culture, tradition and religion in Nigeria after amalgamation and 1960 independence. It became obvious that the existence of Nigeria is marriage of divergent bed fellows and so its corporate existence hinges on advocacies and policy trust that can restore confidence, safety and sense of accommodation irrespective of the differences. Federal character/quota system is one of the principles and policies introduced to guarantee nation building.

**National Integration:** This refers to the awareness of a common identity amongst the citizens of a country. It means that though we belong to different castes, religions and regions and speak different language, we recognize the fact that we are all one (Shona, 2003). Nigeria is a country with about 250 ethnic nationalities distinctively isolated in terms of religion, languages. National integration implies that we should de-emphasize these differences and promote such policies that could unite Nigeria. Alapiki (2005) observed that introduction of Unity Schools, National Youth Service Corps (NYSC) state creation, quota system are some of the policies aimed at achieving national integration.

**ISSUES WITH THE APPLICATION OF FEDERAL CHARACTER, NATION BUILDING AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION**

In view of the fact that Nigeria is a country of diverse religious and ethnic nationalities, it is strongly believed that introduction and application of federal character and its affiliate concepts are faced with certain problems, some of which include:

**Ethnocentrism:**

"The new nation called Nigeria should be an estate of our great grandfather Othman Danfodiyo. We must ruthlessly prevent a change of power. We use the minorities in the North as willing tools and South as conquered territory and never allow them to rule over us and never allow them to have control over our future" (Shilgba, 2011).

This was said to be the statement of one of the famous nationalist from northern oligarchy, Alhaji Ahmadu Bello in 1960. Further prove was instructively recorded in 1986 when, a Sokoto Prince, Alhaji Shehu Malami and Alhaji Maitama Sule, one of the Nigeria’s respected bureaucrats created a storm among southerners when they respectively informed their listeners of Hausas superiority. To their bewilderment (southerners), they were informed that they (Hausas/Fulanis) acquired their dark skin from inter-marriages with the local Africans and that they were endowed with leadership qualities (Kukah, 2003:98).

The evils of tribalism in Nigeria are many. Tribal appellations cause tribal idiosyncrasies, these lead ultimately to variety and superciliousness and disharmony. An Hausa man may think a Yoruba man is inferior, while the Yoruba man in turn commonizes the Igbo; and Igbo man concedes to himself that both the Hausa and Yoruba are just the people without gut (Ngozi, 2012).

The above quotations capture the reason and current situation in Nigeria due to ethnocentrism. An ethnic group is distinguished by language, culture, religion or both (Nnoli, 1978). Ethnocentrism is a self judgment that ones ethnic group is superior to others. Such assumption promotes antagonism evidenced in Nigeria. In response to many challenges orchestrated by ethnocentrism, Awolowo (1968) described Nigeria as divergently and almost irreconcilable entity.

"Drawing from the above quotations, principles of federal character, nation building and national integration are irreconcilable with the composition and attitude of most Nigerians. Nweke (1995) described ethnocentrism as being attitudinal in form and perceptual in content. It is not easily erased particularly when the leaders do not display sufficient and convincing attitude that our strength lies in the diversity and exploration of resources for equitable benefit of every citizen irrespective of affiliation or originality.

**Elitism:**

Afigbo (1987) noted that the principle of federal character arose out of a compromise among the protagonists of 1976 CDC. In the view of Agbodiike (2003), federal character has been manipulated and
channeled to serve the overall interest of the petty bourgeoisies ruling class. In a similar opinion, elitism represents interests of the few minorities (Guaba, 2004, Agarwal, 2006 and Chaturvedi, 2006). Implicit in the above explanations is that those who champion the principle and policies are indirect benefactor hence it is another form of expanding their solid-political and economic empire.

Emergence and rise of elitism in Nigeria is traced to the unmanageable amalgamation and introduction of federalism in 1914 and 1954 respectively. It is understandable that significant number of pre and post-independent nationalists do not have sound economic base. Gboyaga (1989) aptly says that federal character principle is merely an elite ploy which could not materially improve the lot of the downtrodden in whose name it is raised. They constitute corrupt cabals and use ethnic sentiment to cover their ills. They strategically position their few agents in offices who act as political representatives against the set out goals of the establishment where they work.

Nigeria has had more crises since the introduction of federal character, some of which includes; the Nigeria civil war, several election violence particularly in 2011. Why and who is responsible? These concepts serve interest of elite who are eager to use their slaves to unleash terror and destabilize the country when they are schemed out.

Mediocrity:

Federal character is introduced for purposes of ensuring ethnic balancing. In Nigeria, ethnic balancing is conceived, perfected and applied by elite for the promotion of their egocentrism through an institutionalized mediocrity. Nigeria is divided along ethnic nationalities. The most outstanding is language and it impliedly forms the basis for consideration in federal appointments. Given the share size and nationalities of the sub groups, it is repeatedly vital to acknowledge that difficulties of nation building and national integration are deeply rooted in putting the wrong peg in the right hole. This has been identified as one of the major challenges of public enterprises in Nigeria. There are other countries with federal system but has viable public enterprises, why? Federal character is introduced in Nigeria as an acceptance of bad and non responsive governance.

Okata (2004:179) posited that public enterprises management is a progression and requires that administrative managers should possess certain kind of education, knowledge, skills and values as prerequisite for effective performance in the job. This suggests that competence not quota system or ethnic balancing as opined by apostles of federal character is the nexus for successful, effective and efficient performance of public organizations. Abba (2003) and Sharma et al., (2011) affirmed that politicization of public enterprises breeds mediocrity which is destructive and thus contributes significantly to the inefficiency of most public organizations. Mediocres are more loyal to their godfather because they lack competence. They tend to frustrate organizational goals and go unpunished. Utume (2003) shares the view stating that there is genuine fear that officers, secured by provisions of federal character may begin to act like political representatives without paying due attention to their duties. The variation in human and material resources across ethnic nationalities is known but competence promotes good governance and in turn reduces tension of ethnic revolt. What Nigerians need most is good, responsive and responsible government that has the courage and will to do the right thing at all times and for all Nigerians.

Mutual Suspicion

Before 1914 amalgamation and 1954 introduction of federalism, each of the sub-nationalities lived independently. Each of them enjoyed autonomy which explains insignificant social strive when compared to experiences after the amalgamation. In expression of the volume of problems bedeviling Nigeria state, Awoyowo (1947) described it as a mere geographical expression. Ahmdu (1962) and Onu (2008) affirmed that the amalgamation is the mistake of 1914.

Shortly after independence, Nigeria was faced with plethora of problems including mutual suspicion. Afifigo (1987), and Ezigo (2007) pointed suspicion and hatred among the major problems in Nigeria. To cushion the effects, protagonists of 1976 CDC compromised for inclusion of federal character in the constitution. Nation building and national integration were some of the slogans advocated in justification of its inclusion.
Major crises ever recorded in Nigeria since the amalgamation is significantly rooted to suspicion. This cuts across ethnic and religious boundaries but more pronounced across ethnic boundaries. They include 1964 federal election, where political parties and alliances were more ethnic than ideological. Nigerian civil war 1967-1970, 2011 general election and so on. Each of these crises shook the foundation of Nigeria due to suspicion as against reasons for the introduction of federal character. There can be no successful implementation of federal character principles amidst suspicion and hatred amongst the ethnic groups.

OPTIONS FOR ACHIEVING NATION BUILDING AND NATIONAL INTEGRATION IN NIGERIA

Inclusion of federal character into the 1979 and 1999 constitutions is a display of heinous attitude by the elite. Since its inclusion, Nigeria has known no peace. That Nigeria is still united is not unconnected to the elite tie that sacrifices popular agitation for personnel gains. The raising security challenges orchestrated by militia groups are indications of disillusionment among different ethnic groups and sub-nationalities.

Against the provision, Sanusi (2012) aptly criticized the constitution as a document that hinders development. The mistake has been made and is unlikely that it will soon be deleted. Efforts should be to thinker smart options for survival as a nation such as true federalism, patriotism, honesty and fairness.

There is need to replace quasi or centripetal federation with true federation. Federation purports that everybody can be satisfied (or nobody permanently disadvantaged) by nicely combining natural and regional/territorial interests within a complex web of checks and balances between a general, or federal government on the one hand, and a multiplicity of regional government, on the other (Mclean and Mcmillian, 2003:194). Drawing from the above assertion, true federalism is a system of government in which the individual states within a country have control over their own affairs, but are controlled by a central government for national decisions (Kobojunkie 2012). True federalism will significantly grant constitutional autonomy to states as well as local governments. This will undoubtedly reduce tension at the centre because the different tiers will have shared responsibilities. For years Nigeria has been practicing quasi federalism meaning that a shift from the status quo would either require constitutional amendment or sovereign national conference which will permit autonomous and independent status in decision making for the continuation (or not) of Nigeria state. At present, we practice centripetal federalism in nature and practice. There is need for regional/sub-national autonomy in areas of resource control, policy making and implementation, fiscal relationship and so on.

There is need for value re-orientation. In the past Nigerians are known for hard work, high moral standard which is the epitome of each sub-nationality. In recent times, corruption and immorality is celebrated thereby promoting evil. Value orientation will help re-shape the attitude of Nigerians particularly the elite who are the major actors and benefactors of federal character. Good moral value will entrench national patriotism rather than ethnic patriotism/primodialism, fairness rather than sentimentalism/bias.

Conclusion

Any successful strategy to promote peaceful co-existence in Nigeria ought to consider other options rather than federal character. Peaceful co-existence in Nigeria requires focused emphasizes on those tenets and values that promote individual habit for integration. The paper has presented conceptual and contextual explications of the principle of federal character and the affiliate concepts such as national integration and nation building. It also x-rays issues with the application of federal character in Nigeria some of which include: ethnocentrism, elitism, mediocrity, mutual suspicion and so on. It further highlighted the options such as: true federalism, patriotism, honesty and fairness. It is the ample submission of the paper that more efforts should be dedicated in inculcating high moral value in every Nigerian and more importantly making political office holders and corporate institutions and career officials more responsive and responsible. This will undoubtedly give every Nigerian hope, improve their future and make government accountable to the people.
REFERENCES


Federal Republic of Nigeria, the 1999 constitution


LOCAL GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION AND OPPOSITION
PARTIES IN NIGERIA: 1999-2011

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Abstract

Local government administration shapes the fate of modern democracy; because it is a medium where interest groups in the state stake and resolve their claims to political power through peaceful means. The grass root election in Nigeria since 1999 till date has been complex especially with opposition party since 1999 till date; and this violence cut across Nigeria. The democratic experiment in the administration of local government is marred with chaos, fraud, rigging, and all imaginable form of malpractices. This makes electoral process uninteresting in the grass root. The question remains is there active competition among competing aspirants of various political parties at the grass root level. The process of democratization will thrive when rural dwellers that form the bedrock of political process are allowed to make inputs in policies at the local level. Local government administration in Nigeria has been consistent with the exclusion of opposition parties. The theoretical nature of the paper examines concept, evolution and factors that hang ruling party in power against opposition party on the process of grass root election in Nigeria fourth republic, and suggest ways to resolve some attitudes meted by ruling party during electioneering to sustain our nascent democracy.

Keywords: Democracy, Elections, Violence, Council, Political Party, Grass root

Introduction

Local government administration is the third tier of government that serves as a vehicle for rural transformation. The philosophy of local governance stems from the fact that it is the government closer to people in the grass root in a democratic setting, and the best system to engage people in their own governance. Awasthi and Sanjay (2002) assert that an ideal local government administration means good government achieved through decentralized local governance. The local government that has relative autonomy display high levels of performance in its administration and service delivery. Omotola (2009) assert the major reason for various and endless local government administration in Nigeria was as a result of non-performance or gross under-performance of the local government. The 1976 local government reforms brought a watershed in the administration of local government in Nigeria through uniformity, multi-purpose and single tier structure (Ajayi, 2000 and Agagu, 2004). Chukwumerije (2003) assert that all efforts to free local government administration from anti-democratic hurdles for unified structure in 1970 to 1979 prove abortive. On May 29\textsuperscript{th}, 1999 marks another round of civilian regime in Nigeria; the 1999 constitution guarantees the existence of local government administration on democratic principles but the term of office was not provided in the constitution, but “Decree 36 of 1998” state three years term for elected officers in council, later the constitution was vitiated by section 7 (1) and 8, under the control of state governors (FRN, 1999). The provisions empower state governors to operate grass root with non-elected officers (Nkwocha, 2009).

Local government administration has turned a care-taker council imposed by state governments. In some cases care-taker ship is perpetuated through promise of elections which are invariably postponed. If the outright denial of democratically elected local councils through care-taker committees demonstrates the
increasing authoritarian holds of the councils by state governors, the case of those where elections manage to hold does not give cause for cheers (Musa, 2011:10).

In Nigeria, anytime a governor assumes office his first point of call is dissolution of local government councils whether elected or selected, for instance Governor Rochas Okorocha of Imo state was elected in 2011, for him to secure grass root support because his party All Progressive Grand Alliance (APGA) lost woefully in 2007 local government election conducted by former Governor Ikedi Ohakim of Peoples Democratic Party (PDP), to ensure his second term in office, he has to capture the local government administration by hook or crook. This generates legitimacy claims between rival appointee and elected official in the state (The nation, 2012). However, the report card of local government administration has not portended flying colours in Nigeria grass root level (Ogundiya, 2007).

Clarification of Concepts

**Local Government** Local government is the government at the local level; some scholars distinguish local government depending on the political arrangement of a nation, unitary or federal system. Adeyeye (2000) defines local government in the unitary state as non-sovereign community possessing the legal right which is essentially administrative agents of the central government. Olowu (1988) state that local government is a political sub-division of a nation state constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs to impose taxes for prescribed purposes, the governing body of such entity is elected. Similarly, the guideline for local government reform (FGN, 1976) defines local government as government at local level exercised through representative councils established by law to exercise specific powers in a defined area. The power give the council substantial control over local affairs as well as staff, institutional and financial power to initiate the provision of services to determine and implement projects to complement the activities of the state and federal government in their areas, and ensure devolution of functions to these councils through active participation of the people and traditional institutions, local initiative and respond to local head and conditions are maximized. Mill cited in Ajayi (2000:6) state that local government is one of the free institutions that provide political education, a plank by which grass roots politics can be promoted, a vehicle for political training and leadership qualities fostered in young politicians at the local level. Lawal (2000), states that local government is the tier of government closest to the people and is vested with certain powers to exercise control over the affairs of people in its domain. It is expected to play the role of promoting the democratic ideals of a society and coordinate development program at the local level as a basis for socio economic development in the locality. According to (FRN, 1999), local government means government at the local level exercise through representative council, established by law to exhibit specific powers within defined areas. Local government council is an institution whose operations address the needs and aspiration of the citizenry and extends the administrative and political control to rural community (Wanjohi, 2003). The idea for creating local government makes people at the grass root level to participate in governance. Emezi (1984) sees local government as system of local administration under local communities that are organized to maintain law and order, provide some limited range of social amenities and encourage cooperation and participation of inhabitants towards the improvement of their conditions of living. It provides the community with formal organizational framework which enables them to conduct their affairs effective for the general good. The foundation of local government administration in Nigeria was anchored on the 1976 local government reforms, the reform create autonomy and viable local government. The autonomy gave them power to control their jurisdiction as granted by the central level especially in functions assigned them.

**Opposition party** is a system where two opposing political parties are opposing or resisting, being in conflict; antagonism, being in contrast with another, an obstacle. It involves two political parties or an organized group opposed to the group, party, or government in power. A body of opposites; specifically, those members of a legislative body who are opposed to the administration for the time being, or the political party opposed to the party in power, frequently used adjectively: as, an opposition scheme; the opposition benches in the British House of Commons (Wikipedia, 2010). Opposition is the fundamental bases for the development of democracy, as it recognizes rights for political and social actors to publicly criticize and challenge the government in its actions and policies. In this perspective, whoever is interested in studying democracy is compelled to tackle, in a way or another, the question of political
opposition which one of the greatest political theorists of our times has defined as the first axis constituting polyarchies, alongside the inclusion or participation axis (Dahl, 1971). Sometimes, this is anchored on checks and balances, institutionalized conflicts to minority parties. Most often, the notion is refer relationship, standing in some form of disagreement to another body.

Evolution Local Government Administration in Nigeria

Local government administration in Nigeria is traced back to the pre-colonial period when powerful empires and kingdoms existed in Nigeria, these empires and kingdoms have bulk of administrative activities at these levels of administration (Okoli, 2000). The advent of British brought a change from traditional to colonial government based on indirect rule. The administration was under the traditional rulers in a place where there are no traditional institutions. This led to native authority ordinance promulgated in 1910, this make input to indirect rule system and recognized traditional rulers as sole authority to maintain law and order. In south-west, the existing traditional institutions did not recognize traditional rulers as absolute rulers, in the south east, there was non-existing traditional institutions; In the north, indirect rule system was accepted due to existing traditional system that regard emir as sole authority (Imuetinyan, 2002). The federal system of 1950 marked another stage of local government administration in Nigeria with three regions, where each region decides to adopt its own system, the regional system of local government administration collapse in the first republic. The military intervention of 1996 brought a radical change to accommodate the hierarchy of military structure and redress the abuse in the system (Gboyega, 2001). The regions and their successor states takes over the control of local government policy-making and carry out reforms that are appropriate to their circumstances with mixed results. The 1976 reform is a turning point in the development of local government administration in Nigeria, Ugwu (2001) states that the reform is a watershed in the evolution of local government administration in Nigeria; the reform makes way for national local government system. Orewa and Adewumi (1983) states that the major thrust of the reform entrust beneficial political responsibility to people for effective service delivery, but other reforms restrict scope but the reform follow due consultations at the federating units. The reform conceptualize local government as the third tier of government operating in a common institutional framework with defined functions and responsibilities, local government was funded from the federation account and has control over its spending, and provisions for a democratically elected officers were entrenched in the 1979 constitution of the second republic. Gboyega (2001) observes that the second republic was turbulent in the history of local government administration; it was a time when state and federal level went in agog to contest the control of local government with each other. The state abuse some provisions of 1979 constitution to suit their desires, they void aspects of 1976 reforms. The 1979 to 1983 did not experience local government council election; sole administrators were appointed (Iyoha, 1997). The re-emergence of military to political arena in1984-1998 brought a change in local government from state to federal level, in 1985-1993, Babangida regime enhance local government autonomy, abolish ministry of local government, establish executive and legislative arms in local councils and disburse allocation direct with increase of 15% to 20% in 1992. Igbuzor, (2003), states that the reform transform the status of local government by transferring powers to local councils more than state government, Abacha regime of 1993-1996 revised some reforms by Babangida administration. The democratic government of May 29, 1999 reincarnates the problem of local level administration; the provisions of sec. 7 and 8 recognize local government as the third tier of government and gave state power to lord over local level (FRN, 1999). The local government election held on 5th December, 1998 by Abdulsalam Abubakar administration assume office six months after May, 29, 1999. The electoral law in which local government officials were elected (Decree No. 36 of 1998) provides three years term, but Association of Local Government of Nigeria (ALGON) went to Supreme Court to pray for a period of four years term in collaboration with national assembly, the apex court ruled that national assembly does not have power to alter the tenure of local government officers. On May 2002, the three years term was put to a halt by state governors, they now appoint care-taker chairmen in 774 councils pending the date of election. The election was postponed twice due to tussle between state independent electoral commission (SIEC) and independent national electoral commission. The election was postponed to 21st June, 2003 few days after general election, on 17th June, 2003 the Association of local government of Nigeria (ALGON) push for the amendment of constitution to empower state governors, to appoint council chairmen and councilors, when Nigeria governors forum (NGF) met with Mr. President at the council of state they set up a technical committee on the review of local government
structure in Nigeria (Obasanjo, 2003). The committee submits its report in 2006, local government election was held in 2007. Many states like Kogi, Lagos, Niger, Enugu, Oyo among others created new council areas in line with the modalities of 1999 constitution, federal government refused to recognize them. Nwabueze (1983) in Ugwu (2003), observed that the constitutional power to establish local government administration structure, composition and functions is state government affair.

Local Government Administration and Opposition Parties in Nigeria

Sunday Independent (2007:7) state that governors were bent on holding elections as a fall back on the tribunals’ nullification of the elections; they use the local government officials they installed to get their exalted positions. There are indications that some governors may lose their seat, since the tribunal sittings, they have been jittery over a possible outcome of the cases. Some governors have not been going to tribunals because the cases against them are overwhelming, they are using the local government election to consolidate their hold in various states as the ‘elected’ chairmen would not like their paymasters to be disgraced in a possibly bye-election.

The PDP governments relied on the law which stipulated that State Independent Electoral Commission is responsible for local government elections. Sunday Independent (2007) learnt that PDP’s insist on conducting election despite protests by the opposition parties was responsible for the spate of violence that greeted the exercise. The opposition believed on lopsided arrangement by the ruling party to scuttle the ambition of candidates of the opposing parties for instance, voters burnt down at least five offices of Edo State Independent Electoral Commission (EDSIEC) in protest of alleged irregularities. The offices in Owan East, Igueben, Orhionmwon, Ovia North East and Ovia South-West, the chairman Justice Anthony Okunega confirmed the destruction of voting materials in these areas. The trouble started in Owan East when voting materials for the exercise found their way in the house of the PDP chieftain. The youths set the area ablaze due to misconduct on the April election, the EDSIEC office at Oredo local government area, there was no voting because the materials were destroyed by some party members following counter claims that materials were smuggled out to some leaders of PDP in the area. The intervention of security agents averts blood-letting, state anti-robbery squad arrest thugs in Benin City for violating no movement order. They were in the city with commercial vehicles perfecting their rigging strategy, while others that boycott the election were busy going about their lawful business. The ACN chieftain, Chief Tom Ikimi condemned the election in the state in Igueben local government with 27,000 registered voters; but 10,000 ballot papers were delivered to the electoral officer. The remaining 17,000-ballot papers was handed over to PDP for their candidates, but reports from all the local governments areas across the state is same pattern. The party official and Press sought shortfall in delivering electoral materials, a contingent of thugs dispatched from Uromi invaded and burnt down the premises of the commission. The mobile policemen and soldiers pave way for the evil machinations of PDP leadership; Justice Okunega loaded vehicles with electoral materials. Instead of distributing the materials amongst the various electoral officers took unprecedented step of delivering the sensitive materials to government house where the ballot papers were shared between PDP, 70% Edo State PDP and 30 percent to the people. Governor Osunbor and Chief Tony Anenih were accused of perpetuating the evil in the state but the governor will turn around and adopt the result for announcement to bow on the whims of their political master and benefactor. The last 4 years installed one of his cronies, as chairman of the local government council. It is important that President Yar’adua must take more than an interest in these disgraceful acts to perfidy against people of Edo State by leaders of his own party, the PDP (Ugborgu, 2007:B7-B8).

In Ogun State, it was a battle ground among PDP members as opposition parties boycotted the election like All Nigeria Peoples Party (ANPP), Action Congress (AC), Democratic Peoples Alliance (DPA), National Conscience Party (NCP) and Alliance for Democracy (AD) held a meeting on Tuesday December 11 in Lagos, and resolved to boycott the election due to lack of confidence in the Ogun State Independent Electoral Commission (OGSIEC) to conduct a free and fair election. They alleged that OGSIEC led by Chief Tunji Fadairo (SAN) did not provide a level playing ground for all parties with a perfect plan to deliver all the councils to the PDP. This amount to waste of time in an election the worst result has been prepared. Some dragged the state electoral commission to court asking them to review its reconstitution of the electoral body on the aegis of coalition of progressive political parties. Unfortunately, they did not grant the prayers of the opposition and state government went ahead to
conduct the election without opposition parties on the election. Sunday Independent (2008) observed that ballot boxes arrive late at the polling stations in Abeokuta, Ilaro, Ota and staff of the umpire body was observing siesta, combine team of policemen, immigration officer and Nigerian Security and Civil Defence Corps manned the polling stations. There was impressive turnout at Mokola wards 5 where the Minister of Mines and Steels Tunji Ishola voted in the Asasi centre and former President Obasanjo vote in his home polling unit. The scenario in Oyo State was marred by violence following the exclusion of opposition parties. The godfather of Ibadan politics, late Chief Lamidi Adedibu and PDP hawks unleashed mayhem on their perceived opponents. There was total anarchy throughout the period of election; the police assert that 130 suspects were arrested across Ibadan the state capital and Shaki area for electoral offences. The police public relations officer, Olabisi Okuwobi said that suspects were caught with dangerous weapons and thumb-printed electoral materials. The AC, ANPP, AD, UNPP and AA insist on no election because of the precarious situation in the state but the State government went ahead with the election. Governor Lam Adesina and AC leader called for the cancellation of local government election conducted in the state on December 15 which could have being an election in a civilized society like Oyo state. The former chief servant opined that he never trust PDP, as a satanic party with dubious agenda. But Adedibu described the poll as free and fair in the history of the state. The governor Chief Alao-Akala assured the residents that election would be free and fair on a different ball game when the election started. The poll was characterized with late arrival of materials to some polling stations and absence of voters’ registers across the state. The troubled area manifested in Enugu State on December 15 local government elections, where two people lost their lives in Igbo-Eze South local government area due to election violence in the state. The victims whose identities could not be ascertained died when fighting broke out between supporters of PDP and Labor Party at Ibagwa-aka town, communities in the council. The three buses belonging to the supporters of a member of House of Representatives member from the area whose election was quashed by tribunal were set ablaze by political thugs. The police public relations officer (PPRO) in Enugu, Mr. Mike Abatam, and Deputy Superintendent of Police (DSP) confirmed the violence in the area cannot access the number of casualties including deaths. The command arrested Labour Party supporters for master minding the violence; they burnt one L300 bus at Igboeze south local government area while the election was ongoing, they suspect the tampering of the materials. The officer of Enugu State Independent Electoral Commission (ENSEIC) in the council bowed out from his duty post because of the tense atmosphere, that raise fears for possible cancellation of the election in the local government. The ENSEIC Chairman, Chief Abel Nwobodo denied the violence and ruled the possibility of canceling the election, stressing that the exercise was peaceful, irrespective of the 5pm extension time in Igbo-eze, Udenu andNsukka Local councils, due to late arrival of materials. Barr. Sullivan Chime voted in his home town former Speaker state House of Assembly, Hon. Abel Chukwu in company with Deputy Senate President Senator Ike Ekweremadu voted in Aninri his home town and access the exercise as peaceful. However, PDP swept the results in an exercise marred by massive rigging. In Kano State election, many people lost their lives and property worth millions of naira was destroyed with the incumbent ANPP’s bid to win at all cost brought smoke that catches fire, as these states are licking the wounds inflicted by the December 15 local government election, Nigerians are yet to witness another battle that awaits the local government election (Ugoani, 2009). In Abia state, the ABSIEC scheduled January 19, 2008 for their local government election. The Commission got its approval from all political parties in the state to conduct the proposed local government poll. In a swift reaction, PDP denied the claims insisting that the matter was never discussed. Speaking with Sunday Independent(2008), in Umunia, the acting chairman, Benson Ezem states that there was no way they would be part of the agreement to hold the election in January 19 when there was court order restraining ABSIEC from conducting grass root election in the state. He requested all other political parties other than PPA to stay away from the election because it is unconstitutional. He urge other political parties to stay away as PDP believes in the rule of law and we’ll not have nothing to do with the election, and criticized Prof. Stephen Emejuiwe, for misinforming the public that all the political parties had filed documents to participate in the election. From all indications, PPA government of Abia State went ahead with the election.

Factors Constraining Local Government Administration in Nigeria

Autonomy: all efforts in 1976 to recognize local government as a tier of government were futile; local government administration is still an appendage of state and federal governments. Despite the
constitutional elasticity provided for local government system beginning with the 1979 constitution and subsequent ones that defined functions and sources of funding of the system, local governments have not been able to extricate themselves from the apron string of state and federal governments in Nigeria (Osaghae, 2006). The higher levels of government interfere in their operations in ways that undermine their autonomy. The structure of power that ensures' unitary-federal system and political value of the political elite as shown in state and federal governments interventions in the affairs of local government have gone a long way in diluting the innovations brought about by the entrenchment of local government as a tier of government.

**Funding:** The financial paucity in local government administration could be blamed on what Suberu (2004:16) referred as the cost of distributive federalism in his words, for a federal system that is dominated by the redistribution of central collected revenue. Most local governments in Nigeria are contented with the federal or state financial allocation to them, thereby becoming a mere distribution outlet for federal and state generated revenue. The architect of 1976 local government reform bewailed that local government have produced exactly the opposite of their original objectives. Instead of bringing development closer to the people in the grass root they bent on producing absentee chairmen who are seen only at the council headquarters when the monthly “Abuja Allocation” arrives and vamoose with their standby Jeeps and Mobile police escorts after super-intending over the sharing of the national cake among the relevant stakeholders. Most governors exploited the constitutional provision for the establishment of joint state and local government account to control local government funds; they hijack the nomination and subsequent election for their acolytes as council chairmen. Aspirants who emerge victorious after rigorous process paid allegiance and political dues to the governor by accepting whatever deductions they make from the joint state- local government account. Nigeria lacks equity and fairness in sharing revenue as epitomized by the incessant manipulation of revenue allocation criteria and tax policies by the political class. The local government in its attempt to provide some social services nationwide assumes more responsibilities than would ordinarily be the case under a federal constitution. Table 1 below shows the summary of federal allocation to local government from 1999 to 2007.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beneficiary</th>
<th>State Government.</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Abia</td>
<td>113,956,322,728.62</td>
<td>66,957,033,320.83</td>
<td>180,913,356,049.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Adamawa</td>
<td>111,973,469,608.66</td>
<td>88,385,118,660.50</td>
<td>200,358,588,269.16</td>
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<td>3 Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>384,370,238,540.34</td>
<td>110,896,366,303.24</td>
<td>495,266,604,843.58</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 Anambra</td>
<td>97,592,169,763.11</td>
<td>85,847,453,591.19</td>
<td>183,439,623,354.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Bauchi</td>
<td>128,248,345,518.84</td>
<td>98,833,751,081.01</td>
<td>227,082,096,536.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Bayelsa</td>
<td>414,158,710,867.12</td>
<td>38,101,830,075.82</td>
<td>452,260,540,942.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Benue</td>
<td>120,963,431,284.39</td>
<td>100,676,342,004.41</td>
<td>221,639,773,288.79</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 Borno</td>
<td>127,814,189,455.35</td>
<td>114,329,322,081.28</td>
<td>242,143,511,536.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Cross River</td>
<td>115,403,682,833.25</td>
<td>74,990,493,054.89</td>
<td>190,394,175,888.13</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Delta</td>
<td>463,459,893,918.76</td>
<td>97,961,571,804.08</td>
<td>561,421,465,722.84</td>
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<td>11 Ebonyi</td>
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<td>51,780,333,382.06</td>
<td>149,606,220,047.59</td>
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<td>12 Edo</td>
<td>119,085,051,909.31</td>
<td>77,565,785,400.62</td>
<td>196,650,837,309.93</td>
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<tr>
<td>13 Ekiti</td>
<td>92,732,057,109.79</td>
<td>60,134,219,325.71</td>
<td>152,866,276,435.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State</td>
<td>2001</td>
<td>2002</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Enugu</td>
<td>103,979,483,787.19</td>
<td>68,964,491,966.13</td>
</tr>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Gombe</td>
<td>96,583,878,576.74</td>
<td>49,916,381,357.36</td>
</tr>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Imo</td>
<td>132,104,455,243.39</td>
<td>99,280,101,362.71</td>
</tr>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Jigawa</td>
<td>117,009,316,440.23</td>
<td>108,615,763,243.89</td>
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<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>138,928,609,161.09</td>
<td>117,182,125,094.69</td>
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<td>179,437,799,067.94</td>
<td>191,497,373,448.88</td>
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<td>139,822,729,992.43</td>
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<td>86,187,515,182.33</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Kwara</td>
<td>99,576,991,214.56</td>
<td>66,011,107,696.79</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Lagos</td>
<td>182,535,977,642.02</td>
<td>149,392,517,393.59</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Nassarawa</td>
<td>90,518,301,030.98</td>
<td>54,487,876,090.81</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Niger</td>
<td>126,254,889,591.23</td>
<td>111,114,801,956.06</td>
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<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Ogun</td>
<td>114,180,594,528.10</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>Ondo</td>
<td>183,313,507,542.89</td>
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<td>29</td>
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<td>107,476,926,982.08</td>
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<td>73,434,508,057.07</td>
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<td>32</td>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>517,682,993,860.57</td>
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<td>33</td>
<td>Sokoto</td>
<td>118,067,536,171.07</td>
<td>96,232,809,149.69</td>
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<td>34</td>
<td>Taraba</td>
<td>103,462,234,004.51</td>
<td>72,869,810,839.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>Yobe</td>
<td>104,904,723,192.25</td>
<td>72,326,009,351.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>Zamfara</td>
<td>112,898,217,046.50</td>
<td>70,091,324,490.36</td>
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<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>FCT</td>
<td>149,703,394,069.21</td>
<td>43,324,238,682.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>5,742,903,843,313.33</td>
<td>3,313,534,856,541.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fed Govt</td>
<td></td>
<td>7,390,688,951,768.72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>16,447,127,651,623.80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Federal Ministry of Finance 2007
Despite that local government received ₦3,313,534,541.80 from the federation account within the periods of 1999 to 2007 financial years for service delivery to Nigerians, their performance remain poor (Eboh and Igbokwe, 2006). Public resources have been poorly managed, characterized with frivolous activities, leaving little for essential services. The provision of services is available mostly in affluent areas and the quality of services is highly variable, and cost recovery within the sector is increasing and individuals that pay for such services are poor.

**Managerial Credibility Gap:** Most local government staff inhibit poor work attitude detrimental to productivity. The poor work attitude to work like absenteeism, indiscipline, laziness, non commitment, lateness to work (Ogunrin and Erhijakpor, 2009). The poor work attitude like absenteeism may be linked to poor remuneration, lack of equity and stagnation on the job and this compel workers to seek extra incomes from private firm (Maduabum, 1990). Thus today many local governments carry a lot of redundant workers who receive huge salaries and wages. This development has indeed financially weakened the local governments in the pursuit of their tenets. This problem is further compounded by some state governments which have created unnecessary political offices and authorized payment of salaries to the wives of local government councillors. In local government councils, from chairman to messengers are lawless, they are found wanting in their place of duty. In this type of scenario, the government cannot be close to the people and the necessary development at the grass-root cannot take place (Abdulhameed, 2013). This is why virtually all the 774 local government areas in the country have become a desert of under-development.

**Poverty of Leadership:** is a nationwide phenomenon in that local government administrations have come under serious criticism in recent years for their role in poor service delivery and bad governance. The growing perception among local citizens is that local governments are citadels of sharing national cake. For example, it is now public knowledge that local government chairmen are not supposed to account for security vote. There is the eagerness among the poor rural folk to share from this so-called free money. If properly applied and judiciously spent, the vote is supposed to be used by the local government chairmen to pursue their protective functions. Aiyede (2005) states that the management of resources have made it difficult for people in the grass root to enjoy the dividends of democratic elected local government administration in Nigeria. The experience in the first twelve years produced a situation of either no election or pseudo election. The reason for these developments is not far-fetched from state governors who control local government councils for obvious reasons. This is why care-taker committees are appoints to administer local government councils where they cannot rig local government election because of formidable opposition parties. Some states organized election if the state independent electoral commission is strong enough to rig the elections especially in states like Benue, Edo, Kogi and Lagos states (Abdulhameed, 2013). The 2003 re-election of President Obasanjo threaten local government chairmen, councilors and patrons who are worried that the third tier of government is to be scrapped. The flag bearers of respective political parties at huge financial costs were alert when Mr. President pronounces the postponement of local council elections pending the reform of local government as follows:

> What we are witnessing is abysmal failure of local government system. It is on record that no time in the history of the country has there been the current level of funding accruing to local governments from the federation account, yet the hope for rapid development has been a mirage as successive councils grossly underperformed in almost all the areas of their mandate (Obasanjo, 2003)

**High Level of Corruption:** Indeed, corruption and abuse of office by local government administrators have assumed a different dimension. It is perpetrated by both bureaucrats and political office-holders. These categories of local government administrators are neck deep in inflating contracts, outright embezzlement of council funds, taking kickback on contracts; and non-execution of contracts among other corrupt practices. The inability of local governments to
provide quality services as demanded by the people has been linked to corruption virus among local governments’ officials. There is the growing practice among the state governments to divert local government funds through state-local government joint account. This is possible because local government allocations from the federation account are disbursed through the state governments. Most state governments have taken this advantage to divert part of the allocation to otiose projects thereby robbing the local governments of the capacity to perform their functions and live up to the expectations of the people. In 2010, Benue state House of Assembly suspended 12 council chairmen in the state and directed that the chairman should refund 150 million naira financial misdeeds associated with the excess crude funds received by local governments in the state (National Mail, Issue 12). Also in Enugu state, former governor Chimaroke Nnamani was arrested prosecuted on the allegation of diverting local governments’ funds by the EFCC (http:www.articlesbase.com), it is surprising that 31 former governors tampered with local government funds (Ukiwo, 2006).

Conclusion and Suggestion

The local government administration impacts on the lives of the rural people directly; the imperative is that people should be allowed to choose their own leaders freely at that level. Many greedy Nigerians view it as opportunity to install their stooges and to consolidate their political stronghold which brought massive rigging that accompanies such exercises. In order to ensure democratic local government in Nigeria, there is need for all interests to twist the flag of integrity and honor for the democratic system to endure and survive. The events since independence is the abuse of the system from the hands of unscrupulous politicians always lead to failure.

In the present dispensation, the officials of the electoral umpire have shown a high degree of ineptitude and corruption. The electors themselves have not helped matters. Their problems range from inertias to culpability in the manifestation of “do-or-die” electoral history, and lose and die affairs’ for those trying to confront the fraudulent electoral system in Nigeria. The option to win is to join the mainstream politics or the political party in power. The alternative is scorching heat and dryness in the wilderness of opposition political party. Presently, we have the soul-less political prostitutes and entrepreneurs of bread and butter, who change conditions that advance for “come and eat” in the stores of malfunction electoral system. The paper expresses that since political independence, the way elections are conducted especially from political elites who endanger our democracy because of their attitude in the quest for power. Election legitimizes a regime and if elections are illegitimate, then the government is illegitimate, the paper concludes credibility as a step in democratizing process with opposition party.

References


Journals


Newspapers and Magazines


Internet and Other Electronic Sources


D. Official Publications, Documents and Conference Papers


THE ROLES OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND SECURITY
CHALLENGES OF BOKO HARAM IN NIGERIA

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Social Studies Department
Ebonyi State College of Education, Ikwo-Nigeria

Abstract

The thrust of this paper is to know the roles of Federal Government towards insurgency of Boko Haram. It had been a source of worry to commentators, observers and scholars on insecurity vis-à-vis activities of Islamic extremists in the North-east. The area had witnessed wanton destruction of lives and property which had been on increase. It had affected socio-economic and political life of the people which led to Declaration of State of Emergency. International Organizations, Human Rights activists, individuals, had been pointing accusing fingers on Federal Government, on inability to Stop Human Rights Violation. This work x-rays the roles of Federal Governments to end the insurgency. The paper argues, if unguided utterances, derogatory statements and hidden interests are not thoroughly checked, instead of ameliorating, will be adding salt to injury. And advocated for honesty and dialogue for unity in Nigeria.

Keywords: Boko Haram, Challenges, Roles, Federal Government, Security

INTRODUCTION

Meaning of the Concept “Boko Haram”

The concept of Boko Haram had its origin from Islamic fundamentalist. Boko Haram means “Western Education is Forbidden or Sinful” Ogbonnya (2015). It base in Nigeria is North-east of the country and worst heated areas include: Borno, Yobe and Adamawa. This led to declaration of State of Emergency by President Jonathan. World News (2013). Others areas slightly affected include Kaduna, Benue, Plateau, and Kano. The jihadists group frowned at non-Sharia Legal System and sees westernized Education and Culture as crime as they believed to be corrupting Muslims opposing the Islamic creed. France (2011). The Islamic movement turned to armed militant terrorist believed to have wasted many lives and property in the country. Its effects outweighed the initial Religious crisis previously experienced in the region.

Historical Review of the Concept “Boko Haram”

Boko Haram is an insurgency that is not very new in Nigeria. It origin dates back from 1995 when it was called Shabaab Muslim Youth; Mallam Lawal was at the helms of affairs when he left to further his education. Mohammed Yusuf took over as the head of the group. His leadership exposed the group to political influence and cheap popularity Takofraija (1970). Later in 2009, Boko Haram was founded as indigenous group (jihadist group) David (2011). With the attitude of winners takes all by most Nigerian politicians they were abandoned after elections. It metamorphosed to evil wind that blows no one any good in the country till date. The true situation in the Northeast of the country is that high magnitude of damage of lives and property in very alarming with bloodletting and mayhem. This led to the caution of US secretary that the Nigeria Army should show restraint and not violate Human Rights as it pursues the militants, Osewa (2013). He further noted that, “there were credible allegations of gross Human
Rights Violations by the Nigeria military” In the same vain, the Africa Program Director for international Crisis Group Sis. Comfort Ero noted that,”Today there are no boundaries and they are targeting the civilian population in a way that shows Nigeria is in a dangerous turning point,” Ero (2013). Adding her voice, the Ambassador Wendy Shema of the US Bi-National Commission Regional Security Cooperation Working Group in Abuja, said that, “the problem of insurgency remains the greatest challenge to Nigeria development presently” AFP (2013). Therefore, the damages are unquantifiable, though it was estimated at the end of third quarter of 2013, that over 3,600 lives were lost in the menace of Boko Haram insurgency and the Nigerian military that lunched offensive in the area but were accused of Human Rights abuses. World News (2013).

Claimed Objectives of the Islamic Jihadist Militants Terrorist Called Boko Haram

1. to create an Islamic States in the country
2. to achieve its anti-Western Education target.
3. to fight for provision of job to the unemployed Youths in the region
4. to fight for poverty reduction as over 75% live below poverty level of one dollar per person in the region. World news (2013)

The above reasons seem to be the objectives of the Boko Haram Islamic Sect but the militants group has been accused of having other hidden agenda to Islamize Nigeria and for power shift in 2015 to the North.

Target of the Boko Haram Sect

From evidence available based on the operation of the insurgent the mostly heated areas as their target includes: churches, markets, government public and private institutions, security agencies, forests, hills/caves, roads, homes buildings and in extreme cases mosques.

Instruments Used For Operation by Boko Haram

The Boko Haram members use the under listed weapons to carry out their operations and attacks on the people. For example, commander-in-charge of JTF in Kano Brigadier-General Illyaasu Abba, “enumerated items recovered from the insurgents as follows;...assault rifles, twoAK58Rifle magazines, with 193 round of 5.56mm ammunition, one AK-47 rifle magazine with 107 rounds of 7.62mm special ammunition as well as bows and arrows, three primed cylinders, 24 detonators small bags of fertilizers IED IMERS cortex wires and three remote control garget, Motorola hand radios, four communicators, six alarm clocks, two cartons of 9 volt batteries, one scale, one heavy duty charger/battery” said commander-in-charge of JTF in Kano. ICC (2013). Other dangerous instruments include; Bombs, Heavy artillery, Strafing, Cutlasses, Daggers, Disguise in military uniform (JTF), gun of different varieties and motorbikes.

Roles of Federal Government to End the Insurgence Of Boko Haram Militancy In Nigeria


2. Training of 9,000 Soldiers at once for six month, ‘it is a security strategy by the Army to contain the increasing wave of terrorism and other crimes that threatens the nation” and “the training involves heavy financial costs which was described as necessary cost to save guide the nation. killete (2013)
3 “… the establishment of 7 Division of the Nigeria Army in Borno, to take charge of security operation in the north east”, said Chief of Army Staff Lt-Gen. Azubuike Iheejirika. He further stated, “that Problem of difficulties of transportation of the troops from 3 division of Nigerian Army from Maiduguri to Jos ad-hoc JTF arrangement was not sufficient to deal with the magnitude of the problem it was confronting … procurements of Arms and ammunition”

4. On May 21, 2013, the Nigerian President ordered the release of women and children held in connection with the terrorist activities, says the defense minister

5. The Joint Task Force initiated the Formation of vigilantes Group called, “Civilian Joint Task Force”.

6. Setting up of Committee on Dialogue and Peace Resolution of Security Challenges in the North Chaired by Defense Minister Tanimu Tuuraki

7. Dialogue and open talk with the group: this disclosed that the group had decided to enter into genuine peace negotiation with the government based on the tenant of Islam, the teaching of Prophet Mohammed and the writing of the eminent Islamic Scholars and Jurists according to the Peace Resolution Committee.

8. Federal Government directive to Security Exchange Commission which reads thus; “All capital market operators are by this letter required to check their database for the names”, “Jamatu Ahlis-Sunna Liddaawati Wa’i Jihad” otherwise known as “Boko Haram” sect and Jama’atu Ansarul Muslimina Fishermen Biladis Sudan” as well as their association and report same to the Securities and Exchange Commission. Where no business relationship is maintained for any of the proscribed names or their associations, a nil return should be rendered,” the apex regulator stated. (Salako 2013)

9. Director General of Security and Exchange Commission (SEC), Ms Aruma Oteh had recently inaugurated Committee of Chief compliance Officers in the capital Market with the primary responsibility of preventing the injunction of illegal funds or proceed of criminal acts into the capital market. (Salako 2013).

10. Handing over the suspected detained terrorist to the state government of the affected State for rehabilitation

11. Opened opportunity for freedom and dialogue for the suspected terrorists

12. Military offensive, air strike over 2000 soldiers were deployed to the troubled region to enhance peace efforts.

13. The Federal Government directed the blockage of cellophone services in the troubled areas in the Northeast namely: Borno, Yobe and Adamawa (UPI 2013).

14. Air Force enlightenment campaign in the barrack on the operation tips and mode of terrorist by the NADF at schools by the Director Air Provost Marshall Air Commodore, Nojeeed Sanusi

15. Frequent change of posting of Nigeria Army to avert illegal deals

**Effects of Boko Haram Terrorist Attacks In Nigeria**

- scares away investors in the country
- creates widespread of insecurity in the country
- greatest Challenge to Nigeria development
• increases tension among the ethnic groups in the country
• it creates fear and generate tension in Nigeria Northern Neighbors
• it increases the socio-economic and political crisis of the nation
• protest over killing of JTF Civilians by Policeman members in Borno State
• Students flee over the rumour of planned attacks in Bauchi by Boko Haram eg Federal Polytechnic in Gwalameji and the attack (burial killing) of students of College of Agriculture Gubi in Yobe Boko harm insurgents

Details of Attack of Boko Haram and Military Offensive in the Northeast of Nigeria

The extent of attacks of both the Boko Haram and the military offensive to the insurgence in the Northeast region is extensively illustrated in the appendix (Table 1a and 1b).

Funding of Boko Haram In Nigeria

For now there no officially established sources of revenue of the Boko haram jihadist group in Nigeria. Though, Federal government has tried to close some sources. For example, “Securities and exchange Commission (SEC), directed all the capital market operators to review their data base and check for any transactions involving entities and individuals related to proscribed extremist groups, especially Borno –based ‘boko haram’” …the aim was to ensure compliance with proscription orders on some persons and organizations and also global and national anti-money laundering laws.(Salako,2013). Other sources may include disgruntled politicians, financial assistance from sis, Taliban, El-Quad a groups internationally and money got during looting of peoples property during some attacks.

Recommendations

1. Recalcitrant leaders should be brought to justice in consonance with the laws of the Land.
2. Dialogue should be encouraged.
3. Victims of the unfortunate insurgency should be adequately compensated by the governments at different levels.
4. Members of the sect should be made to face the music in the court of law in the country.
5. The borders should be seriously checkmatted by the hiring foreign securitymen to avert the incidents of proliferation of arms and ammunitions in the country.
6. Sources of funding should be made known and closed
7. Stakeholders aiding and abating the insurgents should be exposed and disgraced publicly and jailed.
8. Employment opportunities should be created though functional entrepreneurship.
9. Nigeria should abstain from guided democracy.
10. The National Conference/dialogue should not be hijacked by greedy and self-centered politicians and while culture, religion and resources as bases for tolerance should be adequately addressed, and defined in the Conference.
10. Political leaders of different wards, communities, Villages, local governments and State apparatus should be held responsible for violence in their areas and forced to give account of the stewardship in their areas to end the scourge of Boko Haram in Nigeria.

11. The security collaborative efforts with border nations should be intensified.

12. The standard of living of the people living in the borders communities should be increased by provision of infrastructures/amenities to avoid proliferation of arms and ammunitions in the area.

13. Uncomplimentary remarks and deregulatory statements should be seriously checked, and lawfully punished, dialogue remains the best option.

Conclusion

The truth is that the situation in the North-east cannot be handled by standing akimbo. The nature of the fighting or expressing annoyance in this regards is not the solution to Nigerian unity. The use of physical and unjustified force approach, to violate, harm, damage, and destroy the future of innocent Nigerian citizens is a crime and threat to the existence of humanity. The outcome of the warfare and uncontrollable force of Islamic extremists’ boko haram on whatever cause they are defending is extremely destructive with its intimidating emotional effects. Therefore, to be proactive, formal discussion and negotiation, as part of transformation agenda should apply, style to apply not withstanding, should commence because the Nigerian population is being reduced everyday for unjustified reasons to avert the overwhelming fear being intensified in the region by the militant group called Boko Haram. Since, the group is illegal and terror based and even condemned by notable Muslims and Northern leaders.

References

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World news (2013), 25 killed by book haram sect in Nigeria, August 28,
Table 1a

Attacks by Boko Haram and Military Offensive in Northeast of Nigeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>s/n</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Place</th>
<th>incidents</th>
<th>remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7/09/10</td>
<td>Bauchi prison</td>
<td>Frees 721 inmates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>31/12/10</td>
<td>Abuja</td>
<td>Market blast</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>22/04/11</td>
<td>Yola, Adamawa</td>
<td>Frees 14 inmates</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>29/05/11</td>
<td>North</td>
<td>Bombs after inauguration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>16/5/11</td>
<td>Abuja</td>
<td>Police Headquarters bombing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>26/05/11</td>
<td>Maiduguri beer garden</td>
<td>Bombing</td>
<td>25 dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>10/07/11</td>
<td>All Christian Fellowship Church Suleja</td>
<td>Bombing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>11/07/11</td>
<td>University of Maiduguri</td>
<td>Citing security concern</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>12/08/11</td>
<td></td>
<td>Killed Muslim Cleric</td>
<td>Liman Bonna dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>26/08/11</td>
<td>Abuja</td>
<td>bombing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>4/09/11</td>
<td>Damaturu</td>
<td>attack</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>25/12/11</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>bombing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>5-6/01/12</td>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>attack</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>20/01/12</td>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>bombing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>28/01/12</td>
<td>Nigeria Army</td>
<td>Boko Haram members killed</td>
<td>11 dead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>DATE</td>
<td>PLACE</td>
<td>INCIDENT</td>
<td>SOURCES</td>
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<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>8/02/12</td>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>Suicide bombing Army Headquarters</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>16/02/12</td>
<td>Central Nigeria</td>
<td>Prison Break</td>
<td>119 inmates frees and 1 warden died</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>8/03/12</td>
<td>British hostage</td>
<td>Franco Lamolinara and Briton Chistopher were killed</td>
<td>2 foreigners were killed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>31/05/12</td>
<td>JTF</td>
<td>5 sect members killed 1 German killed</td>
<td>One foreigner died</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>03/05/12</td>
<td>Bauchi</td>
<td>15 Church Goers killed</td>
<td>Several injured</td>
</tr>
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<td>21</td>
<td>17/05/12</td>
<td>Kaduna</td>
<td>Suicide bombers</td>
<td>At least 50 people were killed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>17/05/12</td>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>130 bodies found in Plateau were presumed to be killed by boko Haram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>03/10/12</td>
<td>Mubi Nigeria</td>
<td>Massacred 25—26 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>18/03/13</td>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>Bus bombing 22 injured</td>
<td>65 injured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>07/05/13</td>
<td>Bama</td>
<td>Army Barrack prison 55 killed</td>
<td>105 injured</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>06/07/13</td>
<td>Yobe</td>
<td>School shooting</td>
<td>42 people killed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


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TABLE 1B

SOME OF THE UPDATE OF THE INCIDENTS OF BOKO HARAM AND MILITARY OFFENSIVE IN NORTHEAST OF NIGERIA

<table>
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<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>DATE</th>
<th>PLACE</th>
<th>INCIDENT</th>
<th>SOURCES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>27/08/13</td>
<td>Maiduguri--Bama and Damasak</td>
<td>Two Attacks 24 killed</td>
<td>Retrieved from AFP News Agency <a href="http://www.afp">www.afp</a> news; Tuesday AFP News, 27/08/13</td>
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301
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• Sources, see references as in remark Column in the table 1b.
Abstract
Vocational and Technical Education (VTE) is education which aims to deliver people with knowledge, skills and competences required in particular occupations or more broadly on the labour market. VTE is very important as it develops a person for life and it affords the competences which are necessary in a democratic and knowledge-based society. Hence, VTE should be a vital aspect of the educational process in all countries. Most civilised countries realize valued role of the VTE as an effective mechanism for career development of people. However, a number of developing countries have been facing some difficulties to conduct quality VTE in their countries, Nigeria is included. Current issues towards VTE in Nigeria have been discussed in scholarly published documents indicating a need for change. The objective of this paper was to synthesize selected documents indicating current issues on VTE in Nigeria for the next step of social and economic development.

Keywords: Vocational and Technical Education, Issues, Nigeria

Introduction
The Federal Republic of Nigeria (2004) defined Vocational and Technical Education (VTE) as a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life. VTE consists of vocational training packages or educational activities for improving people’s current careers and vocational training packages or educational activities for the unemployed. VTE is important as it enriches a person for life and it provides the competences which are necessary in a democratic society. Societal and economic development depends on the strength of VTE as it provides access to skills and entry routes into the labour market. For under-privileged and marginalised groups in particular, it can be an important route towards a better life. VTE takes a significant role to solve unemployment problems in developing countries.

In Nigeria, unemployment rate increased to 23.9% in 2011 from 21.1% in 2010 with youth unemployment rate at 56% (National Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Unemployment is one of major problems in Nigeria since it has been increasing for years. This might reflect how the government dealt with Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria.

Policies and practices implemented by the Federal Government of Nigeria could be very influencing factors for those mentioned VTE issues. Government organizations responsible for VTE policy and practice may have some revisions in order to improve vocational development of the country. This study tried to investigate VTE policies and practices as well as problems within Nigeria. The study also emerged some possible solutions for the existing problems.

Objectives
To explore current issues on vocational and technical education in Nigeria including current states, problems, and prospects for developing vocational and technical education in Nigeria.

Methods
The research was based on ‘documentary research’ in order for the researcher to describe Vocational and Technical Education focal concentrations, current problems and prospects for VTE development in Nigeria. The selection criteria of the document used ‘criteria for quality assessment’ (Scott, 2006) as follows:
1. Authenticity- is the evidence genuine and of unquestionable origin?
2. Credibility- is the evidence free from error and distortion?
3. Representativeness- is the evidence typical of its kind, and, if not, is the extent of its untypicality known?
4. Meaning- is the evidence clear and comprehensible?

Data were analyzed mainly by content analysis. The documentary data was examined under the headings of (1) source of the document; (2) audience – for example the Board of Trustees or Principal; (3) relevant text to expectations for principals leading learning; (4) analysis – an interpretation of what each document is saying to the intended audience. This involved considering the clarity of the message of each of the documents. “Documentary analysis is a form of qualitative analysis that requires readers to locate, interpret, analyse and draw conclusions about the evidence presented” (Fitzgerald, 2007). According to Wellington (2000) documentary research can be used as a main focus for educational research or as an adjunct.

Information was gathered and analysed from a range of sources that held relevance to the current issues on vocational and technical education in Nigeria. These were:

- Refocusing Nigerian Vocational Education for Relevance and Sustainable Development (Apagu and Andural, 2007)
- Vocational Technical Education in Nigeria: Challenges and the Way Forward (Okolocha, 2012)
- Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria: Issues, Problems and Prospects’ Dimensions (Ojimba, 2012)

Findings

**Refocusing Nigerian Vocational Education for Relevance and Sustainable Development**

Apagu and Andural discussed about VTE in Nigeria awakening of Nigerians and the Federal Republic of Nigeria from the long negligence of vocational education. The authors reviewed some crucial documents indicating that all scholars accept that VTE is very important for country development. The authors concluded strategies for refocusing vocational education in Nigeria in the 21st century, there were:

- Ensuring equality of access to vocational education by all Nigerians
- Coping with possible enrolment explosion in vocational education programmes in Nigeria
- Relevant curricula in vocational education
- Reviving handicrafts subject at the primary school level
- Planned talent search and development
- Adaptation rather than wholesale adoption of the teaching/learning of imported technological knowledge/skills
- Suggested vocational perspective of university education

The authors concluded that:
It is a thing of joy that Nigerians are now questioning the quantity and quality of vocational, technical and technological education in the country’s educational system and among Nigerians. It is therefore, high time the country refocuses her vocational education to serve the nation better. The refocusing could be through further recognition of vocational/technical and technological education, relevant programme curricula, improved funding, further re-orientation of youths towards these vital aspects of education in the form of vocational guidance and counseling, planned talent search and development, provision of more teaching/learning facilities for improved enrolment and so on. The time is now; tomorrow may be late.


Akpan et al wrote this academic article focusing on standard in vocational education in Nigeria in terms of supervision, curriculum, methods of instructional delivery, equipment, and quality of teaching staff. The authors made some recommendations include: making of the school curriculum to be vocational education-based; drawing up policies that make vocational education the foundation for all forms of education; and employing qualified teachers in all the vocational areas of the school curriculum.

The authors concluded that:

Thus, setting and maintaining standards remain elusive. Since the attainment of rapid technological and socioeconomic development of any developed economy is based primarily on this type of education, Nigeria has to strive to tow the line of the developed nations of the world for her to develop.

Vocational Technical Education in Nigeria: Challenges and the Way Forward (Okolocha, 2012)

Okolocha critically reviewed the micro and macro vocational technical education policies in Nigeria, their current challenges and the way forward. The author stated key challenges to vocational and technical education in Nigeria and also strategies for revamping vocational and technical education include:

- Institute flexible, workable and adaptable programme
- Ensuring high quality and appropriately skilled vocational professionals
- Promotion and proper Coordination of education, Industry and Work Environment
- Encouraging Continuing Vocational Technical Education
- Investing in Quality Vocational Technical Education Programme
- Training and learning should take Place in Authentic and Real Work Environment
- Sharing ratio of Education Trust Fund (ETF) among the Three Tiers of Higher Institutions in Nigeria
- Adoption of Uniform Standard of training and Certification
- Setting up a National and Local Structure of VTE Councils
- Keeping Appropriate/Up-to-date and Indicators for Vocational Technical Education
- Assessment Criteria
The author emphasized that:

The success of vocational technical education programme in Nigeria hinges on proper planning, efficient implementation, adequate funding and motivation. The three tiers the government needs to re-access and reinforce the implementation of the VTE policies. The focus now should be on the development of a viable natural system of vocational technical education programme that will have easy access and exit learning pathways, which must be validated by accredited learning that will lead to work or continued progress along another learning pathway. This will help to ginger youths and adults to see VTE as challenging and worthwhile not just as a ticket to second-class status and citizens.

Vocational and Technical Education in Nigeria: Issues, Problems and Prospects’ Dimensions (Ojimba, 2012)

In this academic article, Ojimba critically examined the issues, problems and prospects of vocational and technical education in Nigeria and suggest ways to improve the teaching and learning of vocational and technical education with enhanced enthusiasm and vibrancy. The author raised issues and problems mitigating the training of technical education or vocational education; there were:

1) Funding  
2) Facilities  
3) Brain Drain  
4) Staff training and retention  
5) Staff situation  
6) The curriculum of technical education  
7) The apathy of political office holders/law makers:

The author suggested the government for a comprehensive reform towards vocational and technical education and a deliberate attempt to uplift the programme is the only panacea to a technological enderado in Nigeria.

Conclusion and Recommendations

There are many issues regarding VTE in Nigeria. The results showed that there were insufficient concern about VTE in Nigeria especially for those who are unemployed brought about very high unemployment rate nowadays. There are several current issues that have to be governed as they are very crucial for development of the nation. The Federal Governments of Nigeria should give more concern about VTE in all issues mentioned and come up with strategic plans, policies and practices for vocational development of people. Effective policies and practices of VTE would bring about better economic development of the nations. Nigeria should begin now to take very seriously investment in vocational and technical education and become not only the most populous country in Africa, but also the most competitive country in international labour market.

References


ISSUE OF FISCAL FEDERALISM AND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA DURING OBASANJO ADMINISTRATION
Abstract

Nigeria operates a fiscal arrangement that caters for the needs of component states. Federalism is characterized by extensive inter-governmental relations in which federal, state and local tier interact to seek policies and programmes that will cater for the welfare of the public. This can become a reality when there is financial insubordination from any levels of government. It implies that federal, state or local level should depend on one another in performing their statutory functions in a federal state. The challenges of fiscal relations and national development is enormous in Nigeria, the paper will x-ray issues within the ecology of Nigerian federal structure, ranging from revenue sharing to fiscal decentralization, allocation expenditure and tax-raising power among the three levels of government. The paper concludes that the prospect of any nation depend on proper arrangement rooted in equity, fairness and justice to enhance equitable revenue formula for the best interest of Nigerian state.

Keywords: Tax, Allocation, Fiscal relations, national development, Revenue

Introduction

The issue of fiscal federalism in Nigeria seems to have derailed national development due to fiscal imbalance, over-dependence on the centre, agitation for resource control, among others. Thus, inequitable revenue sharing practices have not addressed the problem of true federalism. Fiscal Federalism is a political-economic arrangement whereby the public revenue of a federation is shared among the various levels of government. These levels are centre, the federating states or provinces and the applicable regional governments (Uchendu, 2001). Fiscal federalism necessitates revenue sharing arrangement to enable the component units carry out their various functions (Danjuma, 1994). Federalism recognizes two or three levels of government (central, state and local), each level has different expenditure responsibilities and taxation powers for national development (Buettner and Wildasin, 2007). The issue of revenue sharing formula generated intense debate that led to the demand for sovereign national conference in Nigeria, but the revenue resources have not tallied with constitutional responsibilities (Onuoha, 2007). Put differently, financial subordination makes mockery of federalism no matter how carefully the legal forms may be preserved. The states must not permanently remain dependent on the federal government for allocations. The degree of fiscal decentralization in a federal state contributes to national development, employment generations and poverty alleviation (Owolabi, 2011). The paper reviewed some extant literature on Fiscal federalism, national development, evolution of fiscal federalism and Challenging issue affecting fiscal federalism and national development during Obasanjo Administration.

Problem statement

Fiscal federalism is the dynamic interaction between different tiers of government. It poses questions as to how the nature of financial relations in any federal system affects the distribution of the nation’s wealth. Nigeria is beset with structural imbalance, and true federalism implies that component units should freely pursue their own development.

Revenue sharing in Nigeria, has witnessed a plethora of reviews, as evidenced by various committees and commissions instituted in this regard, yet no reliable formula has been evolved in meeting the country’s yearnings and aspirations (Teidi, 2003:39). Such experienced deficiencies have triggered off many untoward actions, particularly among the sub-national governments that complain of fiscal imbalance (Okeke, 2004:28). The statutory allocations from the Federation Account, even when it is disbursed, result into zero allocation for some of the federating units to
run their affairs (Yusuf, 2008:1). Disharmonious fiscal federalism reflects on low level of political maturity and inability to allow true federalism to evolve without undue politicization. Nigerian federalism is fraught with the external imposition of arrangement and political will, amongst others.

Revenue allocation among various units of government in Nigeria is replete with agitations, controversies and outright rejections due to the nature of politics in vogue. Sec. 149 (7) of the 1979 Constitution provides for state-local government fiscal relations, while Section 162 (5) of the 1999 Constitution regards local government as an extension of the state tier, this leads to disharmonious fiscal federalism. The 1977 Aboyade Technical Committee on population was illogical as the principle of national interest it recommended defied particular interpretation in the prevailing circumstances in Nigeria. Moreover, the 2005 Political Reform Conference was stalemated because; delegates from South-South Region staged a walk out on the issue of fiscal imbalance. Financial relations of the component units of any federation should bring about federal progress and productivity. In Nigerian federation however, it appears as if fiscal federalism brings disharmony among the federating units, and this reduces the productive capacity of the federation as an entity.

Clarification of Concept

Fiscal Federalism

Federalism is an institutional arrangement aimed at addressing governmental problems that bothers on maintaining unity while at the same time preserving diversity. This implies that each tier of government is coordinate in its sphere of authority and should have appropriate taxing powers to exploit its independent sources of revenue (Vincent, 2001:42). If state authorities, find that the services allotted them are too expensive for them to perform, and if they call on federal authorities for grants and subsidies to assist them, they are no longer coordinate with the federal government but subordinate to it. Financial subordination makes an end of federalism in fact, no matter how carefully the legal forms may be preserved. It follows that both state and federal authorities in a federation must be given the power in the constitution have access to control its own financial resources. Each must have a power to tax and to borrow for the financing of its own services by itself. Sagay (2008:11) states that federalism is an arrangement whereby powers within a country are shared between central and component units in such a way that each unit operates directly within their jurisdiction. The cardinal principle of federalism is that no level of government is subordinate to another, though there must be central government for this exercise. Tekun (2000:13) states that fiscal federalism is the form of government where the component units of a political organization participate in sharing powers and functions in a co operative manner through the combined forces of ethnic pluralism and cultural diversity. Musgrave (1959) and Oates (1972) state that fiscal federalism concern the division of public sector functions and finances in a logical way among multiple layers of government. Musgrave (1959) and Oates (1972) opined that the finances and functions of government should be shared in a manner that is acceptable by all involved. Fiscal federalism is the allocation of tax powers and expenditure responsibilities between various levels of government. Tella (2000) posits that Nigerian fiscal federalism structure involves the allocation of expenditure and tax raising power among federal, state and local governments. Nyong (1999), states that fiscal federalist is the relations among various levels of government in respect to allocation of national revenue and tax powers to the constituent units in a federation. He asserts that the principle of fiscal federalism is anchored on revenue sharing (vertical) and distribution of revenue (horizontal) among various tiers of government. Ekpo (2003), states that fiscal federalism refers to the allocation of resources among tiers of government to discharge the responsibilities assigned within their jurisdiction. Mobolaji (2002) supports the views of Akindele and Tella (1996), when he opined
that in a federal state, each unit should have its own sphere of responsibilities, and each should be blamed or commended on how it functions within its own sphere. The former governor of Akwa-Ibom state Chief Victor Attah acknowledged the view of Mobolaji when he states that the 1999 Constitution constitutes a fundamental aberration and a violation of our association as Nigerians. He states that the founding fathers of Nigeria agreed on the basis of the foundation in Nigeria as a true federal state, including fiscal federalism but this has been purportedly marred by the Obasanjo administration. Fiscal Federalism refers to the fiscal arrangement among the different tiers of government in a federal structure (Ekpo, 2003). Uche (2004), states that fiscal federalism is the criterion for government to share revenue among various tiers of government. Ofuebe (2005) indicates that these revenues have fixed principles; and this heightened its inclusion in section 162(2) of the 1999 Constitution of Nigeria.

National Development

Development as a concept is a victim of definitional pluralism; attempts have been made by scholars to conceptualize national development. Some of these definitions will be explored for the purpose of this study. Wood hall (1985) defined national development as the improvement of a country’s productive capacity through changes in social attitude, values and behaviour and finally, changes toward social and political equality and eradication of poverty. Tolu and Abe (2011) refers national development as a phenomenon that embraces a whole nation, it is the overall development or a collective socio-economic, political as well as religious advancement of a nation. This is best achieved through development planning, which can be described as the country’s collection of strategies mapped out by the government. National development is the ability of a county or countries to improve the social welfare of the people by providing social amenities like quality education, potable water, transportation infrastructure, medical care (Wikipedia, 2010). Gboyega (2003) captures national development as an idea that embodies all attempts to improve the conditions of human existence in all ramifications. It implies improvement in material well being of all citizens, not the most powerful and rich alone, in a sustainable way such that today’s consumption does not imperil the future, it also demands that poverty and inequality of access to the good things are drastically reduced. It seeks to improve personal physical security and livelihoods and expansion of life chances. Naomi (1995) believes that national development involve not only economic growth, but some notion of equitable distribution, provision of health care, education, housing and other essential services all with a view to improve the individual and collective quality of life. Chrisman (1984) describe national development as the capacity of political systems to initiate and domesticate positive changes, including meeting basic needs, democratization and social justice as well as becoming increasingly less dependent on international capitalism. National development is not only an economic exercise, but involves both socio-economic and political issues and pervades all aspects of societal life.

Evolution of Fiscal Federalism in Nigeria

Federalism as practiced in Nigeria today is a far cry from what true federalism represents. As the nation awakens to the realities of its ethnic, religious, political diversities and corporate existence, the structure of her federalist claims has to be revisited and refocused. True federalism in the real sense of the word promotes accelerated economic development, it unifies and binds people together, and this triggers intellectual dialogue and provokes a healthy rivalry in revenue generation. These laudable goals are only achieved where the federating units are given free access in decision making and inputs into governance. Federalism, as practiced in Nigeria today is linked to a lion chasing an antelope and squeezing out life from it (the lion represent the federal government while the antelope represents the states government). The federal structure of Nigeria today is a gross anomaly, this present structure has positioned itself as an octopus
firmly gripping the federating units with its poisonous clutch and constantly dictating its destiny (Denial, 2002). The evolution of Nigeria’s fiscal federalism emanated from historical, economic, political, constitutional, social and cultural factors. In view of this, fiscal federalism has been a central feature of intergovernmental relations in Nigeria, The construction of stable and acceptable revenue formula has been the subject of many commissions and committees since 1914 (Ekpo, 2003). Fiscal federalism in Nigeria has its legal basis laid in the constitution. The 1999 constitution contains copious citations in the second and fourth schedule on the tax powers of the federal, state and local government and also on the system of revenue allocation and management of public funds in Nigeria. The details of these are contained in section 162-168, item 59 (part 1), items A 1a, b and 2(part II) D7-10 in the second schedule, item 32a-c in the 3rd schedule and item, 1b, section 7 of the 4th schedule.

**Pre-independence Period:** The process of federal structure was not smooth on the amalgamation of northern and southern protectorate in 1914; the Nigeria sub-national government and colony of Lagos enjoyed complete fiscal independence. The unified fiscal system was in place while a centralized budgeting system was introduced in 1926 before the amalgamation. However, the regionalism of 1946 evolved a decentralized fiscal structure. The Phillipson Commission of 1946 came as the first revenue commission, and quasi-federal structure of 1951 followed by self-government from various regions in 1954. In the colonial era, four revenue commissions of Hicks-Phillipson commission (1951) and Chicks commission (1954) were established. Hicks-Phillipson recommends principles of derivation, even development and continuity of government services among the regions, need and national interest as revenue sharing principles (Ike, 1981).

**Post-Independence/Military Period:** The emergence of mid-western region brought the nation into four regions; in 1967 twelve states were created from the existing regions. In 1976 Nigeria has 19 states; 1987 additional two states were created thus bring the total to twenty one states, in 1991 the number rose to thirty states and Abuja. Since October 1996 till date, we have 36 states with 774 local councils. The Binns (1964), Aboyade (1977) and Okigbo (1979) commissions failed to give acceptable formula to Nigeria (Ozon-Eson, 2005).

**Post-Democratic Era:** The inception of democracy in 1999 brought civil authority to power; the central government was accused by oil states of not adhering to derivation principles as enshrined in the 1999 constitution of Nigeria. The onshore-offshore dichotomy states that oil found in the sea cannot be ascribed to the adjoining state; invariably this was done to reduce huge revenue allocation to oil producing states by the Obasanjo government. The controversy surrounding the onshore-offshore dichotomy is a clarion call for oil states to agitate for “resource control” from oil proceeds; these culminated in some states suing the federal government. The Revenue Mobilization and Fiscal Commission (RMAFC) inaugurated in 1999 were effective because Mr. President with federal Ministry of Finance were barred from interfering in revenue sharing. In 2004, the Federal Ministry of Finance in a letter to the Commission requested 54.68 percent for central government and they ignored their request for non-compliance with the provisions of section 164(1), 1999 constitution. The call for sub-national units and the central government to have more decentralized fiscal arrangement fell on deaf ears, fiscal commissions appointed by central government and national assembly formulate revenue principles centered on fiscal centralism, even when federal government attempted not to respect those formulas. The long incursion of the military into politics contributed to centrist fiscal federalism in Nigeria and this has distorted true federalism.

**Issues of Fiscal Federalism during Obasanjo Administration in Nigeria**
(i) Resource control: The controversy between the Nigeria government and nine oil producing states of Akwa-Ibom, Cross River, Rivers, Bayelsa, Delta, Edo, Ondo, Abia and Imo states agitating for resource control in Nigeria, ranks as one of the major issues (Sanyaolu and Dunmoye, 2004). The federal government contended that the southern seaward states were inland waters within the state; the natural resource located within the continental shelf of Nigeria was in contention. All the oil states claimed that their territory extended beyond the low water mark on territorial waters and the exclusive economic zone. The natural resources derived from both onshore-offshore are national security irrespective of their territory and thereof entitled to 13 percent derivation formula set aside for oil states as provided in section 162, 1999 Constitution (Supreme Court, 5 April 2002). The issue of resource control has been a subject of controversy since 1999 till date, even the unanimous judgment of the Supreme Court could not put it to rest.

(ii) Non-Correspondence Problem: Ideally, each level of government should have adequate resources to enable it discharge its responsibilities, and this is impossible due to non-correspondence between the spending responsibilities and revenue sources to different levels of government. In Nigeria, most of the revenue sources fall within the jurisdiction of central government. The problems of fiscal federalism remain unresolved as divergence between assigned functions and tax powers (horizontal and vertical allocation), over-dependence on the Federation Account makes federal presence unfelt in Nigeria (Fadahunsi, 1998). Federalism has the notion of unified national wage structure for federal, state civil servants and educational institutions, the component unit should establish salary structure based on capabilities (Okpe, 2005). In vertical formula, central government share should be reduced to 10 percent, state government 55 percent and local government 30 percent. On horizontal formula, equality ratios 40 percent, financial efficiency 10 percent, financial responsibility 10 percent, education and health 10 percent, derivation 20 percent and population 10 percent (Ekong, 2003).

(iii) State and Local Government Joint Account: There is unbridled diversion of local government funds by state governors to the extent that hardly can any local government impact positively on its people after payment of staff salaries and personnel emoluments. In this arrangement, state government is the clearing house for councils’ share from the federation account. Instead of state governments adding the mandatory 10 percent of internally generated revenue to local governments’ they siphon resources allocated to them from the federal level. This situation worries the former chairman of Peoples’ Democratic Party (PDP) Chief Audu Ogbeh, who threatened to deal with those governors with the penchant for deducting council funds and passing pittance to the localities (Ola, 2004:1). Despite this threat, the situation is unabated, and the worrisome is the continued denial by council chairmen of this fact, in the face of obvious evidence. This can be attributed to what most of these governors need from the chairmen, total loyalty to the governors who helped to put them in position, and this is so in that everywhere the last local council election was everything but credible. The diversion of local government funds has serious negative effects in Nigeria, on grass root development.

(iv) Fiscal Dependence: The oil boom makes the state and local levels dependent on the Federation Account for revenue resources. In Nigeria, fiscal laws allocate more powers to federal level, while sub-national government lacks financial autonomy in their areas of jurisdiction. This has distorted constitutional mechanism to address problems of fiscal management. The inception of democracy in 1999 improved the situation. Barkan, et.al. (2001) states that local governments in Ogun, Nasarawa, Delta and Rivers states provide complete financial autonomy, the contract approval comes from the approval of local council legislative arm of their annual budget process. Military intervention weakened the revenue base to state and local levels due to the penchant for state creation and over-dependence on crude oil (Akpan, 1999:218).
(v) **Revenue Sharing:** The current revenue formula allocates more funds to central government at the expense of states and local levels. The system has killed the urge for internally generated revenue (IGR). Even when the monthly allocations to councils come, it is reallocated by States Joint Allocation Committees (JACs). Agba and Bello-Imam (2004), assert mutual suspicion between the component groups on revenue allocation, the shift from resource control manifested arguments for and against derivation principle and other principles. Odoko and Nnanna (2009), state that fiscal federalism is anchored on who gets what, when and how of national cake. Akindele (2009) states that by virtue of constitutional provision, revenue should be disbursed to three tiers of government directly, but federal level has not justified its lion share with small expenditure assignment to component states (Nasir, 2011).

The literature reveals that fiscal federalism expenditure must be in the same level with taxation to reduce over-dependence in financing expenditures. Some challenging issues bordering on fiscal dependence, state local government joint account, resource control, non correspondence and revenue sharing formula inhibit national development from pre-colonial era to post-independence era in Nigeria.

**Theoretical Framework**

The Theoretical framework for the paper is “System Relations Approach to Inter-governmental Relation (IGR)” as propounded by Chin (1969), and cited in Olugbemi (1980). The systems model provides a comprehensive framework for identifying, coping with and integrating the institutional, behavioral and management dimensions of IGR. Furthermore, the systems model has a potential for resolving the allocation controversies which bedevil inter jurisdictional relationships. The theory is conceived as an organized purposeful whole, composed of structurally and functionally identifiable though inter-related parts and delineated by identifiable boundaries from the supra-system (environment) in which it is embedded. Ackoff (1972) states that the emergence of systems construct marked an important transition from the mechanistic conception of social reality which sought to explain a phenomenon from the standpoint of its component units to holistic view parts in terms of a whole. He sees a system as a whole which cannot be taken apart without the loss of its essential characteristics which include:

(i) A set objective which the entity seeks to achieve, without which it cannot exist.
(ii) A hierarchy of inter-dependent units among which the system objectives are divided for national development.
(iii) Specificity of sub system roles, each system has a defined and specialized role in the realization of the total purpose(s) of the unitary whole and sub-system roles are mutually reinforcing.
(iv) An input transforming technology which refers to the processes and techniques by which resource inputs extracted from within and outside the system are transformed into outputs which themselves have implications for system persistence and effectiveness through feed-back mechanism.
(v) A boundary that excludes the plethora of other systems and defines the threshold of transactions among the universe of systems.

**The Challenges of Fiscal Federalism during Obasanjo administration**

The agitation for resource control and recent clamour for new revenue sharing formula bequeaths more to the states and reduces that of the central government. Ozo-Eson (2005:20), states that Fiscal federalism issue must resolved if Nigeria is to continue as a federation for “true federalism”. It is an established fact that the manner of revenue generation and distribution in a federal structure is critical to the sustenance of such relationship (Onuoha, 2007:76). Indeed, Nigeria’s fiscal federalism emanated from geographical, historical, political, economic, cultural as
well as social factors; the basic point has remained that in all fiscal arrangement that can guarantee peaceful co-existence has remained a mirage. Uche and Uche (2004) state that the main reasons for the amalgamation of Northern and Southern Nigeria in 1914 by the Colonial Government was to enable the Colonial Government reduce its subsidy on the Colony of Northern Nigeria by using the surpluses from Southern Nigeria. Irrespective of the formula in use, before the 1914 amalgamation of Nigeria, the principle of derivation was in vogue as each of the regions collected revenues of its internal resources mainly from agricultural, cash or export crops, taxation on import and export duties (Nwokedi, 2005:24). Egwaikhide (2001), state that the federal government takes “lion share” of the vertical allocation to itself and delegate more constitutional functions to the states. In the last fourteen (14) years of democracy, the nation has not been able to work out a revenue formula that complies with section 16 (2) of the 1999 Constitution that empowers the RMAFC to determine the mode of distributing the nation’s wealth. Obasanjo then arrived at a formula that gave the Federal Government, 54.68 percent, states 24.72 percent and the Local Governments, 20.60 percent. Two years later, Dr. Ngozi Okonjo-Iwuala, modified the executive order by raising state allocation by two percent to 26.72 percent. The two percent was taken from the federal government’s share bringing its own down to 52.68 percent. However, political observers believe that the lion’s share of the national revenue given to the federal government runs against the grains of the current global trend in federalism, vis-a-vis, fiscal federalism. Against this background, there is a clamour for the return of “true federalism” thwarted in 1967 with the creation of 12 states. In addition, the high percentage of federal government’s share of the revenue caused corruption, alienation, marginalization, instability and reckless agitation for restructuring in the country (Ugwu et al 2012:83).

The practice of fiscal federalism and poor national development in Nigeria during Obasanjo administration

Watts (1970) argues that federal finance is an important subject as it affects the allocation of administrative responsibilities, because the financial resources available will place limits on the scope of administration, which either level of government is able to sustain. Secondly, it affects the political balance because, whichever level of government has the major financial resources, finds in its hand the means of political control, third it is significant because, the assignment of fiscal and expenditure powers will determine which governments are able to use these instruments to control the economy (Watts, 1970). An important finding of the study is that the fiscal practice in Nigeria lacks equity and fairness as epitomized by the incessant manipulation of revenue allocation criteria and tax policies by the political class. The federal government in its attempt to provide some social services nationwide assumes more responsibilities than would ordinarily be the case under a Federal Constitution. Example of these include, provision of shelter, roads, transportation facilities, water supply amongst others, inevitably the functional responsibilities outweigh the available resources in line with statutory allocation from the Federation Account. Hence, the stringent measures taken by the federal government to cope with the situation include the use of dedication accounts, stabilization funds, petroleum special trust fund which substantially reduces the statutory allocations for state and local governments. The overall impact is that fiscal federalism has not been able to Reform optimally to national development. Adebayo (2002) noted that the internally generated revenue of the states and local governments, the statutory allocations from the federation account are not enough to match the responsibilities of these tiers of government. The oil producing states feel greatly marginalized as most of the resources from oil proceeds are to the central authority and few percentages are given to host communities. The internally generated revenue of the oil producing states could not attend to their development needs, and this situation applies to other states. The high concentration of federal wealth to central government has bogged down national development in Nigeria.
Table 1 below shows the Summary distribution table of federal allocation to various tiers of government federal state and local government from the period of 1999 to 2007.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Beneficiary</th>
<th>State Government.</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Abia</td>
<td>113,956,322,728.62</td>
<td>66,957,033,320.83</td>
<td>180,913,356,049.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Adamawa</td>
<td>111,973,469,608.66</td>
<td>88,385,118,660.50</td>
<td>200,358,588,269.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Akwa Ibom</td>
<td>384,370,238,540.34</td>
<td>110,896,366,303.24</td>
<td>495,266,604,843.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Anambra</td>
<td>97,592,169,763.11</td>
<td>85,847,453,591.19</td>
<td>183,439,623,354.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Bauchi</td>
<td>128,248,345,518.84</td>
<td>98,833,751,081.01</td>
<td>227,082,096,596.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Bayelsa</td>
<td>414,158,710,867.12</td>
<td>38,101,830,075.82</td>
<td>452,260,540,942.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Benue</td>
<td>120,963,431,284.39</td>
<td>100,676,342,004.41</td>
<td>221,639,773,288.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Borno</td>
<td>127,814,189,455.35</td>
<td>114,329,322,081.28</td>
<td>242,143,511,536.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Cross River</td>
<td>115,403,682,833.25</td>
<td>74,990,493,054.89</td>
<td>190,394,175,888.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Delta</td>
<td>463,459,893,918.76</td>
<td>97,961,571,804.08</td>
<td>561,421,465,722.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Ebonyi</td>
<td>97,825,886,665.52</td>
<td>51,780,333,382.06</td>
<td>149,606,220,047.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Edo</td>
<td>119,085,051,909.31</td>
<td>77,565,785,400.62</td>
<td>196,650,837,309.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Ekiti</td>
<td>92,732,057,109.79</td>
<td>60,134,219,325.71</td>
<td>152,866,276,435.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Enugu</td>
<td>103,979,483,787.19</td>
<td>68,964,491,966.13</td>
<td>172,943,975,753.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Gombe</td>
<td>96,583,878,576.74</td>
<td>49,916,381,357.36</td>
<td>146,500,259,934.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Imo</td>
<td>132,104,455,243.39</td>
<td>99,280,101,362.71</td>
<td>231,384,556,606.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Jigawa</td>
<td>117,009,316,440.23</td>
<td>108,615,763,243.89</td>
<td>225,625,079,684.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Kaduna</td>
<td>138,928,609,161.09</td>
<td>117,182,125,094.69</td>
<td>256,110,734,255.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Kano</td>
<td>179,437,799,067.94</td>
<td>191,497,373,448.88</td>
<td>370,935,172,516.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Katsina</td>
<td>140,721,433,816.83</td>
<td>139,822,729,992.43</td>
<td>280,544,163,809.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Kebbi</td>
<td>109,325,901,797.25</td>
<td>86,787,009,340.22</td>
<td>196,113,911,137.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Kogi</td>
<td>108,937,683,153.98</td>
<td>86,187,515,182.33</td>
<td>195,125,198,336.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 Kwara</td>
<td>99,576,991,214.56</td>
<td>66,011,107,696.79</td>
<td>165,588,098,911.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 Lagos</td>
<td>182,535,977,642.02</td>
<td>149,392,517,393.59</td>
<td>331,928,495,035.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Nassarawa</td>
<td>90,518,301,030.98</td>
<td>54,487,876,090.81</td>
<td>145,006,177,121.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 Niger</td>
<td>126,254,889,591.23</td>
<td>111,114,801,956.06</td>
<td>237,369,691,547.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Despite that the federal government kept about ₦7,390,688,951,768.72, state received ₦5,742,903,843,313.33 and local government received ₦3,313,534,541.80 from the federation account within the periods of 1999 to 2007 financial years to provide service delivery to Nigerians, their performance remain poor (Eboh and Igbokwe, 2006). Public resources have been poorly managed, characterized with frivolous activities, leaving little for essential services. The provision of services is increasingly available mostly in the affluent areas and the quality of services is highly variable, and the cost recovery within the sector is increasing and individuals that pay for such services are poor.

**Discussion**

The fiscal federalism practice in Nigeria reveals that the central authority has the lion share of the national cake. The states and local governments are denied adequate funds to take care of their responsibilities. The budgetary allocation from 1999 to 2007 reveals that Nigeria is currently running an un-federal fiscal federalism and the South-South geo-political zone is indeed marginalized. Ailoje (2001) observes that the reliance of the revenue allocation formula on population and land mass does not favour South-South and South East, relative to other zones of the country. Edevbie (2003) noted that the Southern states which generate 90% of the nation's revenue are supposed to receive more allocation; instead they receive one tenth of its contribution. The issue of resource allocation have triggered of many actions, especially among the sub-national governments that complain of fiscal imbalance (Okoro, 2006). In addition, the federal government went ahead to treat external debt service as a first line charge on oil revenue. With all these the country cannot experience national development, when there are no resources at the disposal of sub-units in Nigeria, the oil producing states are left with nothing. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Revenue 2007</th>
<th>Revenue 2006</th>
<th>Revenue 2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Osun</td>
<td>107,476,926,982.08</td>
<td>102,574,611,292.67</td>
<td>210,051,538,274.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oyo</td>
<td>135,928,952,381.15</td>
<td>127,369,093,326.38</td>
<td>263,298,045,707.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plateau</td>
<td>81,759,592,808.53</td>
<td>73,434,508,057.07</td>
<td>155,194,100,865.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rivers</td>
<td>517,682,993,860.57</td>
<td>104,313,280,579.65</td>
<td>621,996,274,440.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sokoto</td>
<td>118,067,536,171.07</td>
<td>96,232,809,149.69</td>
<td>214,300,345,320.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taraba</td>
<td>103,462,234,004.51</td>
<td>72,869,810,839.60</td>
<td>176,332,044,844.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yobe</td>
<td>104,904,723,192.25</td>
<td>72,326,009,351.84</td>
<td>177,230,732,544.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zamfara</td>
<td>112,898,217,046.50</td>
<td>70,091,324,490.36</td>
<td>182,989,541,536.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCT</td>
<td>149,703,394,069.21</td>
<td>43,324,238,682.88</td>
<td>193,027,632,752.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5,742,903,843,313.33</td>
<td>3,313,534,856,541.80</td>
<td>9,056,438,699,855.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fed Govt</td>
<td>7,390,688,951,768.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Total</td>
<td>16,447,127,651,623.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Federal Ministry of Finance 2007*
our analysis, we conclude that the problem of national development has been as a result of imbalance in fiscal federalism among the three levels of government (federal, state and local).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper focused on fiscal federalism and national development, in relation to Nigeria from 1999 to 2007. The outcome of the hypotheses clearly states that Nigerian political leaders have not demonstrated genuine willingness to address the challenging issues that have incapacitated national development between 1999 and 2007. The non-implementation of the constitutional provisions has not addressed the problem of efficient revenue allocation formula, resource control, state and local government joint account, fiscal dependence and non correspondence as a feature of fiscal federalism. The nature of fiscal federalism has not addressed national development in Nigeria. Based on the outcome of this the following recommendations were made to proffer solutions to the undesirable effects of defective fiscal federalism and national development in Nigeria.

i. The lopsidedness in the revenue allocation formula which gives 50% revenue to federal, 35% to states and 15% to local council should be restructured in favour of states and local government to increase their capacity towards national development in their respective administrative units.

ii. Since the states and local council are the federating units in a federation, at least 60% of the revenue should be shared between these two tiers in a ratio to be determined by all relevant stakeholders to be more responsive to people’s need.

iii. There is need to strengthen the fiscal base of sub-national governments, by assigning more revenue heads and eliminating non performing tax heads from their revenue collection.

iv. The sub-national government must strive towards more effective and efficient collection of sources of revenue generation to plug of all leakages in the IGR collection and utilization process.

v. Finally, the persistent agitation for resource control by the oil-producing states need to be addressed not just the increase on quantum of money accruable to them, but through building up of the capacity of their youths to engage or participate in the oil-extraction process in their region.

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PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIP (PPP) AND SOCIAL SERVICE REFORM IN NIGERIA: 1999-2007

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Abstract

Public Private Partnership is a policy strategy of Yar’adua/Jonathan’s administration to provide, rehabilitate and manage infrastructures in Nigeria. The correlation between infrastructures and economic development is acknowledged, and the problem of slow development in Nigeria is the consequence of its underdeveloped infrastructure. The capacity of Nigeria on exclusive funding of infrastructures was seriously challenged in the early 80s, but when the economy hit the crisis culminating on the adoption of International Monetary Fund (IMF) and Structural Adjustment Program (SAP) requirements were disengaged from social service delivery and infrastructural provision. The global economic recession declined revenue base of Nigeria and sources of revenue as an alternative means of funding infrastructure. Public Private Partnership overcome the challenges posed by the global financial crises, the premise in Nigeria contends that the initiative has prospects in attaining the availability of revenue, improved business environment and regulatory framework management. The paper links the imperative for sustaining the initiative of infrastructural management in Nigeria. The economic downturn remains worst since the depression of 1929, and this constitutes a serious threat to the state as its revenue base adversely affect oil price. Conclusively, the priority of Public Private Partnership cushions harsh effects of revenue shortfall on infrastructural provisions in Nigeria.

Key words: Service, Revenue, Policy, Infrastructure, Economic, Reforms.

Introduction

Actually, inadequate infrastructure experience slow economic growth and in some cases social unrest with frequent human and material casualty. The economy is faced with the challenges of infrastructural deficiency resulting to unattractive domestic and foreign capital. Such economy can hardly improve the life of the citizenry, as the success of any meaningful effort by raising or maintaining the standard of living heavily on adequate infrastructural services in terms of their quantity and quality (Esfahani, 2005). The economy cannot build human capital or attract skilled manpower, any country that is desirous of competing for investment capital and aspire to upgrade their infrastructure to the present global business milieu driven by globalization. The Nigeria’s infrastructure is in dire state, for the fact that it does not meet the needs of the investor; it inhibits investment and scales up the cost of transacting business in the country (FGN, 2004). In the global competitive report 2009-2010, released by the Geneva-based World Economic Forum in August 2009, Nigeria was ranked 99th out of the 133 economies that were surveyed by the global body. The country requires infrastructural investment at the cost of 6 and 9 billion, which can only mobilize the business community; the best place to mobilize, expand, improve and maintain public infrastructure has overstretched public resources, making efforts for alternative funding sources. Inevitably, the global economic meltdown ravaging world economy has the resultant negative effect on the revenue accruing to countries of the world. Nigeria’s former Minister of State for Finance, Mr. Remi Babalola gave insight on the negative impact of global financial downturn on the country’s revenue base at a conference in London, the minister disclosed that the country’s excess crude account savings that become a significant
source of infrastructure finance for the oil-rich nation decreased from 20.4 billion dollars in January 2009 to 11.2 billion dollars on June 2009. The minister states that the Nigerian state needs annual investment of 10 billion dollars to address the infrastructure deficit. The paper examines the imperative strategy and factors crucial to achieve the goals of Public Private Partnership initiative on the mainstream of the country’s development quest.

Conceptual Perspectives

Social Service: is a set of program aimed at achieving some objectives and it relates to the social system in the goals of social policies. All social policies are directed towards change not only in the structure of society but for the living conditions of the people in the society. Social service programs are services provided by a governmental agency for welfare of persons or the community at large such as housing, child protection, free education and health care delivery. Social service programs; and their delivery help the people with necessities to attain self actualization and happiness (Ayo 1988).

Again, Social service is a wide concept which encompasses improvement in the social status of the people and society in general. It necessitates in reality and not in doubt; the provision of such services as health, education, housing, roads, portable water and electricity. It also encompasses “reduction of poverty, improvement of women and workers” (Olewe and Anga, 1994:165). Geol (1981) states that social service is a process of bringing community welfare through social change and the implementation of social policy decisions for the total welfare of the community. It encompasses every act, technique and consideration in the process necessary to transforming social policy. Donnison (1968) also states that during social services delivery, social legislation aimed at private philanthropy and religious charities into the dynamics of services and benefits for humanity are implemented. Currently, Nigeria has weak state supported social welfare system; hence, most people rely on the extended families in their old age. Health Insurance Scheme/Medications are only provided for government employees and few company workers in commercial enterprises while the rest of the population do not benefit from this scheme. Unlike other countries, Nigeria lack state supported social services system to support her citizens on emergency. Arguably, Nigeria’s fiscal arrangement by the three levels of government has problem of coordination in service delivery.

Reform: This connotes “change”, “improvement” in a given condition or state of affairs, change toward better conditions, it is synonymous with progress. Olewe (1995:2) states that reform is to bring ideas, plans, programmes into reality. Put differently, reform is for national transformations that aid to produce positive changes. Everett (1989:841) described economic reform as a widely participatory process of directed social and economic change in a society, intended to bring about social change and material advancement like equality, freedom and other valued qualities for the majority of people through their gaining greater control over their environment. Thus, a good economic reform should bring about national renewal and transformation through systematic and faithful implementation in the polity. It seeks to change the status quo that ought to be changed. It requires proper planning and implementation, if desired ends are to be attained. Economic reform is a planned process of bringing about improvement in a socio-economic and political order in a polity. For our purpose socio-economic reform refers to a comprehensive program of government in any polity geared towards transforming the structures and systems of public service for improved service delivery.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical slant adopted for this paper is the theory of dualism. This theory argues that economic laws that are valid in advanced capitalist nations may not work in underdeveloped countries. According to this theory, social service reform in advanced capitalist nations facilitates development in stable environments with appropriate institutions and values system. This theory
was developed by Professor J.H. Boeke of Netherlands in 18th century “when the Western style of agricultural plantation was introduced by the Dutch in the territory of Indonesia and it was discovered after few years of Western system that plantation failed woefully” (Skills, 1972; 459). It was in an attempt to discover this problem that Boeke developed dualism theory, which contends that Western strategy of socio-economic development introduced in the third world countries are characterized by:

- Enthusiasm and high expectation,
- Resource are mobilized for its success,
- Government justify through massive propaganda network,
- Little success is achieved in the implementation process,
- The economic condition of the people deteriorates,
- The government is more authoritarian to survive (Ujo 2007:5).

For example, the Marshal Plan led to the reconstruction of Western Europe within a few years after World War II. The similar strategy was adopted for the development of post-colonial African states but they did not succeed. Development strategies like the United Nations Development Decade, the New International Economic Order and the Brandt Report did not achieve their goals in Africa. The structural and attitudinal factors that negate the development process were based on the Western strategy. The factors include lack of basic institutions, appropriate and relevant manpower, prevalence of corruption, poor value system among others. Many scholars confirmed the theory as a result of their empirical research, Riggs (1957; 1974; 1975); and Whitaker, (1970). The theory of dualism explains Nigeria’s government socio-economic policies in relation to the democratic process for the following reasons:

- The policies were based on western development strategy.
- Massive resources were deployed for its success.
- Propaganda mechanism of state was mobilized for success.
- The policy makes few Nigerians rich and majority was poor.
- There was rise in the poverty level between 1999 and 2009
- Most industries closed down with the result of unemployment.
- Social services like power, water and roads have deteriorated.
- There is a steady rise in anti-social activities.
- There is a big wave in armed robbery
- Corruption was on the increase (Ujo, 2007:5-6)

In the contemporary political and economic systems most third World countries adopted and are adopting the Western strategy of socio-economic development with hope that development will occur. The structural institutions and behavioural factors make the realization of the aims of the strategy impossible because the institutions are weak. Often, these two tendencies exist in third world countries and the understanding of the economies and politics of underdeveloped countries must consider the two factors” (Ujo, 2007:4).

**Public Private Partnership and Economic Development in Nigeria**

The basic approach to development indicates that the state is the primary agent for development with little or no role assigned to the Private sector in the development (Mabogunje, 2007). This model endowed the Public sector with a commanding role in the regime of developmentalism dominant to political economy of post-colonial Africa till the early 80s (Olukoshi, 2003). It is tragic to say that state enterprises thrown by state-led development approach could not make significant contributions to the economy in spite of huge public investment in their operations. Accordingly, successive administrations in Nigeria invested N800 billion in these enterprises while the annual returns was below 10% of the investment capital (BPE, 2000).
The exclusive trend of state as fiancée of infrastructure continued under the Babangida administration on Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure (DFRRI) to improve rural infrastructure. In 1987, DFRRI received a budgetary allocation of N400 million while N500 million was allocated to them in 1988 to impact on the development of agriculture in rural areas. One striking feature to budgetary votes to DFRRI states that the agency received higher allocation than most ministries and parastatals in Nigeria. For instance, the Ministry of Education gets N4 million allocation in 1987 and N3.02 million in 1988. Similarly, Ministry of health got N166.9 million in 1987 and N259.9 million in 1988. It was only in the Ministry of Defence they voted N717.6 million in 1987 and N830 million in 1988 higher than DFRRI (Ake, 2001). The signs of the waning capacity as the sole provider of infrastructure finance began to manifest in 1983, with the economy having a serious crisis. This crisis has been severe on the depth since the creation of Nigerian state as Anglo-colonial project (Bangura, 1982),

As Nigeria witnessed a decline in its capacity for social and infrastructure provision (Jega, 2000), it led to increased legitimacy crisis of the state (Amin, 1996). The oil boom enhances legitimacy through massive public expenditure in the critical sectors of the economy like construction, commerce, industry, banking and social service delivery. The collapse of the global oil market in early 80s brought sharp reduction in oil earnings from N10.1 billion in 1979 to N5.161 billion in 1982. This spawned a major industrial crisis with many industries closing down or operating well below installed capacity utilization (Olukoshi, 1993). The fact remains that the economy slides in the crisis over the increase percentage of budget deficit grew to 12 % GDP in 1983. All efforts by the state to stem the tide of the economic crisis and stabilize economic act of 1982 by Shagari administration failed in Nigeria. They adopt World Bank and Structural Adjustment Program on July 1986 (Ake, 2001), the implementation of SAP adjusts countries needed to generate export surplus to pay their debts and restructure their economies along neo-liberal lines (UNRISD, 1995). The reduction of public expenditure is a major component of SAP (Kukah, 1999) and funding of the state infrastructure adversely affects the decline of SAP (Ake, 2001).

Public Private Partnership is new in Nigeria and post-transition phenomenon, the post-1999 reform project initiated by President Obasanjo represents an economic shift from socialist character of the Nigerian economy to a full-blown free market economy with neo-liberal policies like deregulation, privatization, monetization and right-sizing of public bureaucracy featuring the policy agenda of the government. Prior to the institution of these reforms, state utilities were in a state of dysfunction crippled by corruption, inefficiency and indebtedness with many having no audited account for decades. The first anniversary on the restoration of civil rule in Nigeria indicates that federal government alone had about 600 state enterprises in various sectors of the economy. Most of these enterprises were in a parlous state and unimpressive record of long year’s under-performance. The state funded enterprises are drain-pipe to national treasury (FRN, 2000). Most public infrastructure suffered state neglect leading to infrastructure decay with dire consequences on social service delivery. The major sources of fund for states and local government are statutory allocation from federation accounts, VAT, stabilization receipts, ecology fund and internally generated revenue from tax and non-tax. Most scholars and practitioners blame poor social service delivery on poor funding.

Challenges Undermining Public Private Partnership in Nigeria

The areas of public private partnership initiative can be delineated from the current operation in Nigeria. These are infrastructural development and management, revenue generation in which private sector institutions collect revenue on behalf of the state and local government, waste management and technical management as attempted by the Obasanjo administration on the management of Federal unity Schools and capacity building on information communication technology (ICT) and tax administration. Mabogunje (2007) stated that variants of Public Private
Partnership differ in their allocation of responsibilities and risks between the state and private sector. These include Build, Own and Operate (BOO), which entails the government authorizing private firms to build, own and operate an asset; while Build, Operate and Transfer (BOT) is similar to BOO, but differs from it to the extent that the asset is transferred to the government after a certain period of time, reasonably enough for the private investor to have recouped its investment; contracting out involves the provision of certain technical services by public sector to an external private company; concession involving a private firm assuming responsibility for operating a service and collecting charges for a period of time. Aftermath, the public sector controls the construction and owns the fixed assets but contracts out to private sector organizations operation, maintenance and collection of service charges; leasing involves that one of the partners use equipment or assets belonging to either of them without purchasing the assets but pay a lease to the other partner. The private sector organization takes over responsibility for the operation and management of an infrastructure using staff and equipment of the public sector.

The variants of Public Private Partnership initiative by Mabogunje, concession appears to be the dominant type in operation. The fact underscored the setting up of Infrastructure Concession Regulatory Commission (ICRC) by late President Umar Yar’Adua. Consequently, analysts believe that Yar’Adua presidency took a strategic step towards overcoming the conundrum of infrastructural deficiency with the institution of ICRC for Infrastructural Concession Regulatory Act signed into law by former President Olusegun Obasanjo in 2005. The Act provides participation of the private sector in financing, development and maintenance of development projects of the federal government through contractual arrangements.

The investment on critical physical infrastructure and human capital development is the philosophy of 2009 budget (2009 Budget Speech), by Yar’Adua administration and this has achieved in this regard, a typical example is the public infrastructure financed through Public Private Partnership initiative on 30 year old Lagos-Ibadan expressway that has been handed over by the Federal Government to a concession, Bi-Courtney highway services limited for effective management of the ever-busy 110 kilometer expressway. The rehabilitation work to be carried out on the Lagos-Ibadan highway covers areas like reconstruction of the existing carriageways, construction of additional lanes to the present four lane carriageway and provision of ancillary facilities like parking areas for heavy duty vehicles with rest areas of convenience and emergency communication equipment for welfare and security of the highway users. The new manager Bi-Courtney Limited is expected to source N89.53 billion to prosecute the turn-around project that will be executed on Build, Operate and Transfer (BOT) arrangement span of 25 year concession period. The investment on the project will be recovered through tolls to be charged on the highway subject to regulatory guidance from the federal government.

The two terminal of the Murtala Muhammed airport as one of the oldest airports in Lagos Nigeria was under rehabilitation on the same scheme with Messers Bi-Courtney Consortium as the private sector managers. In the same vein, the rehabilitation of two main gateways in Airport Expressway and the Outer Northern Expressway which runs from Zuba through Kubwa to Asokoro in F.C.T, Abuja. The federal government will provide 40%, the contractors will source for 60% costs of the project which when completed will generate 25,000 job opportunities and boost commercial activities within and around the federal capital. Also, the constructions of the 2nd Niger Bridge at Onitsha, Federal Government will provide N4.3 billion counterpart funds and as well the construction of the Guto/Bagana Bridge across River Benue for which the Federal government would mobilize N3.6 billion counterpart funds through PPP arrangement (2009 Budget speech). Consequently, other road projects by PPP initiative are Shagamu-Benin road, Lagos- Badagry road as well as Abuja-Kaduna-Kano roads. Apparently, National Food Reserve Agency (NFRA) an agency in the Federal Ministry of Agriculture and Water Resources adopted the PPP initiative to manage its silos and reservation facilities. The completion of the projects examined above and others not captured here will go a long way to
make Nigeria a preferred investment destination to impact positively on the living conditions of its citizenry thereby enhancing socio-economic stability.

**The Impact of Public Private Partnership in Nigeria**

Public Private Partnership relief Nigerian state from the biting effects of the global financial crisis even as it gives the private sector a stake in the management of the economy basically on the area of infrastructure provision and management. Neo-liberal scholars contend that private sector offers prospects to developing economies for rapid economic growth in a competitive market conditions (Moran, 1986). However, the efficacy of Public Private Partnership strategy of economic growth and infrastructure development in Nigeria context on the availability of certain positive factors without which the gains derivable from the initiative becomes elusive.

A functional institution is the primary factor for any Public Private Partnership arrangement. Significantly, government shapes the implementation of public policies as they stabilize the process of policy making (Bullock et al, 1983).

Regulation represents an important success factor in public private partnership on low-income economies with their weak regulatory mechanisms (World Bank, 2000). The World Bank has document on economics with political stability, process and methods of altering laws, property rights protection and judicial system preferred investment destinations and record higher economic growth than countries where these attributes are lacking. In the context of Public Private Partnership, institutions are conceived as set of formal and informal rules that govern the actions of the actors in the PPP framework. This institutional infrastructure contain unwritten codes of behavior that encourage cooperation and conflict resolution as well as formal enforceable legal rules that guarantee the contractual obligations are enforced. The existence of such institutional framework will encourage private investors to provide financial investment infrastructure required.

Consequently, the concession process led to the handover of public utilities to private sector managers must be inclusive. All the major stakeholders, including workers and users of public assets on concession must be involved in the process to allay fears of jobless and prohibitive user charges. This inclusive process will help prevent avoidable post-concession protests as witnessed at the handing over of Tafawa Balewa Square, Lagos and the old domestic terminal of Murtala Mohammed Airport to new private sector managers. The infrastructure concession regulatory commission held a meeting on Nigeria’s Public Private Partnership program to sustain the inputs of stakeholders into the Public Private Partnership process. The Public Private Partnership needs a transparent process necessary to build confidence among the participants in the initiative with regards to risk sharing. The requisite for transparency was injected into the Public Private Partnership process for remarkable improvement on the extant regional practice in which African regimes are not open to the international economic relations and investment agreements (Keet, 2008).

**Conclusion and Suggestions**

Undoubtedly, the current global financial crisis is underscored by the collapse of key corporate bodies particularly large financial institutions that constitute the pillars of global economy (Sampson, 2008). Public Private Partnership (PPP) initiative is the alternative sources of infrastructure financing available for developing economies; it is a coping strategy on the effects of global recession. The consequences of the global economic meltdown are negative economic growth, growing unemployment, rising inflation and crashing stock markets (Oyesiku, 2009). Public Private Partnership is a departure from traditional practice in developing countries of the global South; it is where the state has provided the resources for infrastructure financing. Public Private Partnership re-define the role of the state in infrastructure provision to transform its status from a provider to enabler that fit in the neo-liberal ideology of market economy. The
height of Public Private Partnership rests on the availability of certain positive factors. The measures like business environment, regulatory framework and efficient public sector are crucial factors towards the achievement on the gains of Public Private Partnership. The potentiality of Nigerian nation as one of the 20 biggest economies in the world offers opportunities for high returns on investment; the challenge for Nigerian state is to transform this potential into concrete reality.

References


THE CHALLENGES OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN A GLOBALIZED ECONOMY: THE NIGERIA EXPERIENCE

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ABSTRACT
For a nation that aspires for greatness, considerable attention needs be given teacher education given the crucial role of teachers in all spheres of learning. Against this premise, the paper identifies the broad challenges besetting teacher education industry, the colleges of education, in Nigeria: especially funding, which impacts on infrastructure; curriculum matters; constitutional and policy matters; as well as administrative and managerial imprudence. The paper recommended some redress strategies which, inter alia, include: the need for huge investment in teacher education through the increase government funding; establishment of endowment funds for teachers; harmonization of conditions of service for teachers across all levels of the teaching profession; and complete overhaul of the regulatory agencies – especially a merger of both NCCE and NTI – to make them a more robust body and in tune with the reality of teacher education.

Keywords: Teacher Education Challenges, Redress Strategies, Complete Overhaul

INTRODUCTION:
Teaching has been rated one of the nature’s most outstanding noble professions in several ramifications of the word. It is noteworthy to define our conception of the teacher, in the context of this paper, as a person who had undergone professional training in the act of teaching and recognized as such for the discharge of the functions in classroom setting. This, invariably, precludes people who embark on the work by circumstance or sheer responsibility in society. This is not to suggest that other professions do not possess measures for which they could be adjudged so but it is rather traceable to the simple fact of its critical role in human resource development, as a fulcrum of knowledge. In other words, it is incontrovertible that other professions are products of the teaching profession. This realization, it could be contended, is largely responsible for the nobility of those who indulge in the profession, and, to a greater extent, the often held axiom that “Teachers reward is in heaven”. This is because their roles transcend their perception as repositories of knowledge to the character transformation of the learners they teach. The recognition of the teachers’ feat and place in society no doubt, has been responsible for the declaration of 5th October as annual World Teachers’ Day, held since 1994.

However, in a rapidly transforming globalized world economy, it could be observed that many a country has not come to terms with the crucially strategic role that teachers play in the society. This is quite evident in such states handling of teacher education: Considered as process and product, teacher education encompasses not only the profession and all issues relating thereto, it also presupposes all what has to do with making the learning process meaningful. It is a combination of these elements that could meaningfully impact on a society for the realization of not only the goals for which its education is set but its national objectives.

A careful examination of the National Policy on Education (2004) vis-à-vis Teacher Education Policy in Nigeria does set a presumptuously broad outline in the context of the foregoing. For
instance, the National Policy on Education emphasizes the need “To produce highly motivated, conscientious and efficient classroom teachers for all levels of our educational system; and “To help teachers to fit into the social life of the community and society at large and to enhance their commitment to national objectives” (1), among others. As noted by Wokocha, 2013, Akindele, 2003, observes that laudable as the policy statements seem, substantial results has yet to be achieved, even decades after the institution and gradual transformation of teacher education institutions especially the establishment of the National Commission for Colleges of Education in 1989 and the transformation from Teacher Training Colleges to Colleges of Education in Nigeria, given the myriad of challenges. This is where the paper takes its bearing.

A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON TEACHER EDUCATION IN NIGERIA

Teacher education was formally rooted in the country in 1896 with the establishment of the first Teacher Training College, St. Andrew’s Teacher Training College, Oyo, Oyo state, to award Teachers’ Grade III Certificate. This institution was later followed with up-graded versions of Teacher Training Colleges which awarded Teachers’ Grade II Certificates. Today, these have gone into extinction paving way for the College of Education system through policy reviews in line with the rapidly changing societal educational needs (Yabani Committee Report, 1999).

Conceived and established as a regular teacher education entity, the COEs metamorphosed from the defunct Advance Teachers Colleges (ATC) established in 1961 as the direct result of government’s acceptance of the recommendations of the Ashby Commission of 1959 (Yabani Committee Report, 1999, p. 11). The ATC was a step further in higher education for teachers following the dearth of professionals to handle the job at a higher level.

Not oblivious of the limitation of its philosophy, i.e. as essentially to provide the middle-level manpower needs in the aspect of the academic requirements of the basic education level, there has been demonstrable competence in not only teaching and learning but research in the Colleges of Education. This is because the COE system, even the defunct ATC system, had, ab initio, been affiliated to universities for the purpose of maturation and quality control in the award of NCE. Within a spate of less than ten years, the forebears of the system; Adeyemi College of Education, Ondo, Ondo state, Alvan Ikoku College of Education, Owerri, Imo state, Federal College of Education, Kano, Kano state and Federal College of Education, Zaria, Kaduna state, began running degree programmes in affiliation to the universities till date. Currently, most, indeed 65%, of the Colleges of Education across the country offer degree programmes in affiliation with chosen universities.

It is instructive to note that the degree by affiliation has been made possible largely because of the superfluous nature of the qualified and experienced manpower, especially the number of academic staff of COEs who possess PhDs. This is in addition to the teeming Master degree holders, most of whom are either on course for their doctoral or on the verge of doing so. For the records, it is expedient to state that the affiliation solely involves the utilization of manpower as well as the facilities of the COEs, with the minimal supervision and award of degrees as the only commitment of the affiliate Universities. The realization of this dates as far as 1999 when the Yabani Committee was constituted to, inter alia, re-examine the status of the Colleges of Education (Report of the Committee on the Modalities for Mounting Degree Programmes in Seleted Polytechnics and Colleges of Education and Raising the Salary Scale of Principal Officers and Chief Lecturers to HATISS 15, 1999, p.3). It could be averred that the status of the COEs, in terms of capacity to award degrees in teacher education, was the added impetus which informed the recommendation of the defunct Presidential Technical Committee on Consolidation of Federal Tertiary Institutions in Nigeria that some Colleges of Education from across the geo-political zones of the country should be granted autonomy to award degrees in selected programmes (Report of the defunct Presidential Technical Committee on Consolidation of Tertiary Institutions, 2007, pp. 79 and 80).
THE CHALLENGES OF TEACHER EDUCATION, IN BROAD PERSPECTIVE

a) **Constitutional and Policy Issues:** Principle of Federalism, State vs. Federal, has created some obstacle to the realization of the educational goals, as enunciated in the National Policy on Education. Ideally, federalism as a principle should have been a spring-board for the giant leap to progress since each federating unit strives to attain greatness. In the Nigerian context, the reverse is the case; states governments more often than not look unto the Federal Government (FG) for direction in virtually all matters. However, no sooner a benchmark is established by the same FG than they renege on its implementation, and teacher education is no exception.

Also, on careful examination, the attention that teacher education institutions, especially colleges of education, get in terms of funding and welfare of teachers does not compare with that of the universities, and indeed schools/colleges of technology. This is evident in the implementation of discriminatory welfare packages, as exemplified in the salary structure, between the universities and colleges of education on the one hand, and the manner of the provision of infrastructural facilities for technology-based institutions and teacher-education-based ones on the other. Such discriminatory policies impose on the teacher education system dire consequences visible in student enrolment and brain-drain.

Related to this is government’s constant interference in matters of administration and management. Although it could be admitted that this is not peculiar to the teacher education institutions, it is obvious that the universities enjoy a measure of autonomy different from what obtains in other institutions of higher learning. Government’s meddlesomeness in such areas as the choice of membership of Governing Councils, most of whom are political associates who might not have possessed requisite qualification for and experience in education institutions management, portends some grave consequences, which affects issues of quality administration.

Furthermore, the establishment of undue bureaucracies, NCCE and NTI, sought to constantly create some questionable circumstances. Notwithstanding the philosophy for the establishment of the two agencies, the fact that they both are saddled with the responsibilities of teachers of teachers need raise the issue of unity. One may contend that since the one is responsible for regulating the regular teacher education programmes – the COEs – among other responsibilities which overlaps with the other that is in charge of the Distance Learning Programme, it would be expedient to seek ways of their unified approach to the vexed issue of teacher-education. This is against the backdrop of some views that teachers share a great deal in the abysmal performance of students in examination and, indeed, the drop in students’ performance in examinations.

The policy of restriction to NCE and as a middle-level manpower provider is also a challenge of teacher education in Nigeria. Among its numerous pitfalls/demerits is the constriction in enrolment of students. Currently, there are programmes in the Colleges of Education i.e. integrated science, which are being offered in very few universities, and others which are not being offered at all in the universities.

**Funding:** Although both federal and state governments are still responsible for the general funding of public education institutions, a critical assessment of their commitment to education reveals a tragically pathetic situation. Comparatively, States have consistently maintain a little over 11% as against the Federal government’s average of 8.7% of annual budgetary allocation to education (Bamiro and Adedeji,
The abysmal allocation has been made largely possible through an annual “envelope” system of funds allocation by the federal government. By this is meant the setting of limit to funds which a particular government agency gets for her services in the fiscal year. This practice essentially “caters largely for the personnel cost leaving the other needs for running the system grossly under-provided for” (Oyewole and Njoku, 2013:16)

The situation can again be appreciated considering the observation of Bamiro and Adedeji (2010) that the Federal government budgeted N210 billion for the education sector in 2008 and N249 billion in 2009. Thus, the total budgetary allocation to the education sector in 2008 and 2009 was N459 billion. Whereas, the estimated total expenditure on the Nigerian students in the US and UK universities, during the two sessions, amounted to 30% of the federal budget for education during the period. (p. 22)

Also, very recently, Umukoro, 2013, reported that UNESCO ranked Nigeria last, as the 136th, among the countries which spends the least on education as a proportion of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). According to the report, The survey found out that the country’s proportion of public spending on education as a percentage of the GDP was 0.89 percent, while Nigeria’s education expenditure as a proportion of the Gross National Income was also poor, 0.85 percent, or 167th out of 168 countries

Although general funding on education in relation to the GDP is very low in the country and incomparable with the requisite amount and those of developing nations, the teacher education sub-sector gets the least fund, as can be seen in the Table below, which highlights allocations for the institutions between 2006 and 2008, and this drastically compounds the challenges of the COEs especially in the areas of provision of infrastructure and essential services.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Personnel Cost</th>
<th>Goods &amp; other services</th>
<th>Capital Projects</th>
<th>Total Allocation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>69,952,108,028</td>
<td>3,175,567,183</td>
<td>6412015000</td>
<td>79539690211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>70,600,358,870</td>
<td>5,584,703,445</td>
<td>8285015000</td>
<td>84470077315</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>86,078,825,055</td>
<td>3,551,429,669</td>
<td>13958579185</td>
<td>103588833909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polytechnics</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>18,990,972,823</td>
<td>1,715,916,763</td>
<td>2164746264</td>
<td>22871635850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>19,443,972,823</td>
<td>1,895,916,763</td>
<td>2424746264</td>
<td>23764635850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>22,024,993,058</td>
<td>2,149,712,599</td>
<td>3578057860</td>
<td>27752763517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colleges of Education</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>10,911,206,151</td>
<td>1,067,435,864</td>
<td>3063175000</td>
<td>15041817015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>11,401,898,534</td>
<td>1,207,989,217</td>
<td>4991020000</td>
<td>1760097751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>14,088,802,102</td>
<td>1,279,807,659</td>
<td>2883329309</td>
<td>18251939070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>99,854,287,002</td>
<td>5,958,919,810</td>
<td>11639936264</td>
<td>117453143076</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Allocation (in Billion Naira)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>101,446,230,227</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8,688,609,425</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15700781264</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>125835620916</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>122,192,620,215</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6,980,949,927</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20419966354</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>149593536496</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: SUFIHEN, 2010, page 47*

The summary of the above table has been graphically presented in Bamiro and Adedeji (2010:48) thus:

The discriminatory attention to teacher education is not limited to the regular annual allocations, through the budgetary provisions by governments. Comparatively, other tertiary institutions, e.g. universities and technical and technology education institutions get more funds from the non-regular funds providers than the COEs. For instance, the Tertiary Education Trust Fund (TETFund) disburses her allocation in ratio 2:1:1 in for Universities, Polytechnics and Colleges of Education respectively. Also, emphasis on scholarship specially and specifically target technology and science-based programmes of the other two institutions without cognizance to the needs of technical teacher education in the COE system.

i. **Insufficient Human Resources:** The dearth of qualified teachers is not limited to Nigeria. In fact, UNESCO figures from the study by its Institute of Statistics, projects that the world’s teacher needs by 2015 would be nothing less than 5.24 million. The study, which shows that “the global shortage of teachers at the primary and lower secondary levels of education will persist to 2030 and beyond” puts Africa and Arab States as the worst hit by teacher shortages. In the case of Nigeria, the annual teacher gap, estimated by the same body, is such that only 1.2% of its population can adequately fill up.

The implication of shortage of teachers for the basic education level presupposes that there is attrition in the number of subscribers to the train-the-teacher programmes a service exclusively being rendered by the COEs in Nigeria. Relative to the discussion is the dearth of qualified personnel – professional teachers in the COE system – is not in doubt. A serious contributory factor is brain-drain – drift from the system to more lucrative jobs outside Nigeria and within, especially to the universities (provide data). Brain-drain, which is also said to be a global phenomenon, as the UNESCO estimates that 2.6 million teachers are leaving the profession annually in Sub-Saharan Africa, has taken a huge toll on education. The seasoned professionals,
mostly of the doctorate class, from the COEs to the universities. Records from the Federal Colleges of Education sampled indicate that within a decade – between 2003 and 2013 – an average of 35% academic staff holding PhDs left the system for the universities.

Also worthy of mention is the issue of skilled manpower needs, in terms of qualification and competence, at both basic and COE levels, for effective implementation of the emerging curriculum in the area of technical education. This is a sin qua non to effective service delivery in the programme implementation process, the realization of which, we contend, the organization of mere workshops would not suffice.

b) **Infrastructure Deficit:** The TETFund has been making meaningful interventions in the infrastructural development of education service providers at the tertiary education level, the dearth of critical infrastructure and the need for the rehabilitation of dilapidating ones still linger: Whereas the implication of the absence of this on teacher education cannot be overemphasized. The challenge further invariably inhibits learners’ requisite interest in and attraction to the learning environment.

c) **Issues of Disposition cum Quality of Entrants:** It has been observed that before the introduction of the Unified Tertiary Matriculation Examination (UTME), subscription to teacher education institutions especially the colleges of education were usually by candidates who do not readily get admission into the universities. This set of students eventually utilizes the opportunity provided to re-launch their bid and later move to the universities, on admission. Thus the colleges are left with no choice but to admit students with lower entry qualification. Attrition in subscription to COE programme by prospective students, it could be contended, stems from the general apathy to subscribe to teacher-education. The situation could also be predicated on the constriction of employment opportunities for its graduates, as most of them are confined to the teaching profession to which there is a general distaste.

Given the critical role of a teacher, the need to attract the best brains was considered an imperative hence the emphasis on the same entry qualification with that of the universities was adopted (Ukeje, 1996, in Wokocha, 2013). However, the effectiveness of UTME in providing the best for the COE system remains to be seen as preference for the universities remains the priority among candidates, which the UTME guarantees.

d) **Problem of Access:** Clearly visible in the inability of tertiary institutions to admit all candidates seeking admission annually, the problem of access to higher education, which has given rise to more Nigerian students seeking admission overseas with the attendant financial implication, Bamiro and Adedeji, 2010 notes, “relates to the levels of admissions into the HEIs vis-à-vis those seeking admissions, coupled with the identified initiatives to solve them” (p. 21). There is also a huge gap in the opportunity for access to quality education between the rich and poor in Nigeria. Carefully examined, while the affluent have access to almost all opportunities, the poor is confined to quite a few, predominantly teacher education institutions especially the colleges of education.

Our discussion of access, in this context, is not suggestive of the unavailability of quality teacher education, but in effect in relation to the problem of degree teacher
education, which is not readily available to prospective teachers given the very limited space in the faculties of education of universities.

Although one is not oblivious of the consideration of the Federal Government in the location of the recently established Federal Universities in every state of the Federation, one would have expected that the distribution of the Colleges of Education should have informed their transformation into independent degree awarding institutions for ease of access by the rural communities and the hinterland. Indeed, a degree-awarding College of Education system would provide ready degree-level teacher-education opportunity to all thereby meeting the teacher-needs of the country. The Table below clearly illustrates this seemingly endemic challenge:

**Illustration 1: Access to Higher/Tertiary Education between the Rich & the Poor**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THE RICH</th>
<th>THE POOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private Universities</td>
<td>Polytechnics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State Universities</td>
<td>Colleges of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federal Universities</td>
<td>NTI/NCE-awarding Institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open Distance Learning</td>
<td>Institutions Abroad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted and modified from SUFIHEN, 2010, p.22*

e) **Curriculum Issues:** The concern in this context is the need for all stakeholders input in evolving an appropriate acceptable curriculum that could be adjudged adequate for addressing emergent societal challenges. As enunciated under the Philosophy of Education in the National Policy on Education (2004), “there is need for functional education for the promotion of a progressive, united Nigeria; to this end, school programmes need to be relevant, practical and comprehensive…” (p. 2). Whether this has been largely achieved, however, remains, in our view, quite doubtful.

There is also the concern with respect to the involvement of stakeholders in curriculum review. This is to stem the entrenchment of controversial provisions such as enunciated under Curriculum and Instruction in the Principle 4 of the yet-to-be-ratified National Teacher Education Policy document, “The NCE curriculum shall consist of courses and programmes that are age and level-specific that is, Early
Childhood Education (ECE), Primary Education (PE), Junior Secondary Education (JSE) and Senior Secondary Education (SSE)” (P. 9). It could be contended that, although reforms are usually desirable, the trend, evolving a reform process in a teacher education system devoid of input from the critical players – teachers – who are key implementers of the programmes, does not augur well for educational advancement. Although the efficacy of the review may not have been in doubt however, it should be noted that such issues of relevance and adequacy in addressing the myriad of societal challenges, which the goals of education are set to achieve, would ever remain a subject of discourse.

RECOMMENDED STRATEGIES FOR REDRESS

i. **Increased Allocation to Education:** Government, at all levels should consider, as imperative, the increase in the allocation to education with a view to meeting the UNESCO recommendation of 26% of the annual budget, as a minimum benchmark. It suffices to state that the often held notion in government that her intervention agencies’ funding along with the provisions in annual budgets exceeds the UNESCO specification is not, in the least, plausible.

ii. **Establishment of Endowments/Scholarship Schemes:** The critical role of teacher education vis-à-vis the neglect of government should compel many a well-meaning philanthropist to invest in the profession by establishing an endowment fund for the training and retraining of teachers. Indeed, the focus on technology and engineering fields of learning evident in the established government agencies such as PTDF though may be commendable, the need for such for sustainable teacher education cannot be over-emphasized.

iii. **Harmonization of the Conditions of Service of the Academia:** The non-harmonization of conditions of service of the academia is largely responsible for the brain-drain being experienced in the colleges of education in particular. Over the years, since the beginning of the millennium especially, a large number of highly trained academic staff most of whom had acquired their doctoral certificates (35%, as stated earlier), left the college of education system for the universities. A ready solution that would stem the tide of migration of such seasoned academics to the universities, one could contend, is the adoption of this strategy. This stems from the fact that the benefits accruable from the award of degrees, such as the attainment of the peak in career progression, especially the much sought professorial chair and, of course, other attractive fringe benefits and welfare matters, would eventually become realizable. While it could stem, considerably, the seemingly endemic brain-drain noticeable at all levels but predominantly from colleges of education to the universities, it would boost morale and re-invigorate all towards effectiveness and efficiency in service delivery.

iv. **Intervention by the Legislature:**

   a) **Statute Review:** A review of the laws establishing the teacher education institutions, especially the COEs to accommodate an independent degree awarding status has become imperative. Such a review would create a dual-mandate for the colleges of education when accomplished. This would assist very much in creating ease of access and space for degrees in education related fields. Also, with a total population of a little above 400,000 students in the over eighty (80) Colleges of Education nation-wide, a dual mandate for degree-awarding would afford the holders of NCE in fields of learning not available in the universities the opportunity of acquisition of degree in such areas of
specialization. Besides, the status would translate into a reduction in the teeming population of candidates who could not secure admission into the very limited spaces in the faculties of education of the universities. This is because the Colleges would readily absorb quite a substantial number of such candidates, barring all requisite qualifications, for the pursuit of degrees in appropriate fields of interest. It is critical to note that the only function of the universities to which the colleges of education are being affiliated is in the area of supervision and certification. This is because, in terms of the facilities and requisite manpower, they utilize what exists in the colleges, a ready confirmation that the colleges do possess all that is required.

The proposed dual mode is neither strange nor impracticable; indeed, the trend in global tertiary education services is the diversification in mandate or basic obligation. For instance, in Great Britain and the US, institutions with the nomenclature ‘College’ enjoy and indeed exercise some autonomy to award degrees in several fields of learning. The practice is also quite evident even in the case of Nigeria; it is an obvious truth that 75% of Nigeria universities have been awarding certificates, especially diplomas, in spite of the effort of the NUC to redirect their focus on the core mandate of awarding degrees in fields of learning. As a matter of fact, available data shows that the population of students pursuing the sub-degrees of the universities constitutes 5.4% of the entire student population, for the regular programmes. In similar vein, seven (7) polytechnics in the country also award NCE (Bamiro and Adedeji, 2010, p. 36), which is not within its core mandate.

Critically examined, the policy also has inherently enormous benefits for not only the candidates but the entire nation. Such can be seen in the area of achievement of the EFA goals, which realization Nigeria still finds a mirage, and the expansion of qualitative degree opportunities beyond those that are less inclined to go to the college of education system.

b) Dedication of Constituency Projects to Education Institutions: The legislature, at all levels, should be encouraged to, as a matter of priority national interest, dedicate their constituency projects to the requisite infrastructure for the development of the education sector and site them in education institutions. This is quite practicable given the fact that all states of the federation are hosts to one education institution or another. This would assist, in no small measure, in enhancing the teaching-learning processes in the education institutions.

v. Administrative Initiatives: Managers of education institutions generally should evolve mechanisms with which they could conveniently source funds sufficient enough to meet their operational costs. This should necessarily include the search for collaborations and grants outside the shores of Nigeria. The realization of this would readily instill not only a full academic freedom it would also drastically reduce government’s interference as a complete autonomy would be attained thereby.

CONCLUSION

The challenges discussed in this paper are not peculiar to the COE system. In fact, they could, to a greater extent be said to be a reflection of what obtains in the entire higher education institutions, hence the endemic crises between government and labour, as represented by the academic staff unions of tertiary institutions. Therefore, the foregoing recommendations notwithstanding, it is expedient to state that this team of researchers is quite convinced that there has not been any investigative panel on higher education vis-à-vis its role in the society as comprehensive as the Grey Longe Commission of 1992 on Higher Education. Through that a
giant leap was taken towards not only revamping higher education but also the development of Nigeria. In other words, it would not be preposterous to call for a comprehensive panel similar to the Grey Longe Commission with a view to replicating the holistic approach to reviewing higher education for possible complete overhaul of not only teacher education but the entire facets of education, given the seemingly intractable myriad of challenges of the education sector, for a better Nigeria in a rapidly globalizing world economy.

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Report of the Committee on the Modalities for Mounting Degree Programmes in Selected Polytechnics and Colleges of Education and Raising the Salary Scale of Principal Officers and Chief Lecturers to HATISS 15, 1999


MANAGING UNIVERSITY FINANCES FOR SUSTAINABLE ADMINISTRATION AND INSTITUTION - BUILDING

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Abstract

This paper, titled “Managing University Finances for Sustainable Administration and Institution-Building”, seeks to demonstrate the possible application of sound financial management techniques for the attainment of enduring employment relationships and sustainable university governance. It should be recognized that employment relationships in the university system could be very complex, involving often delicate diversities, several competing multilateral interests and decision processes. Consequently, positive university governance should leverage strategic financial management approaches for the effective and efficient utilization of financial resources that are available in meeting the demands of their founding objectives.

INTRODUCTION

The structure of this paper is broken into some six broad parts for ease of presentation. Background information is initially provided on the societal role of education and social capacity building, while some key associated underlying concepts (e.g. financial management, financial planning, and financial accountability) are explained. Thereafter, the issue of University funding and finances is discussed. The variables that influence availability and management of university funds are further elaborated, with a particular emphasis on the imperative of strategic financial management for probable sustainable futures of university governance and institution-building. The paper concludes that the future of the university system, especially in an emerging nation such as Nigeria, lies in the embrace of best practices of university governance, including sound resource management, financial accountability and reporting as well as initiatives in favour of strategic capacity building for symmetrical organization development in line with the founding objectives.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THOUGHT

Education is regarded as the singular most important instrument for holistic human development and the empowerment of citizens of any nation. The global perception agrees that for economic and social development to be derived effectively there is a need for advancement in, and application of knowledge (Adebayo, Oyenike and Adesoji, 2007). It is evident that illiteracy, or the lack of formal education, often constrains the logical process of human development in any nation. Given the importance of human capital and its harnessing for economic growth and sustainable development, widespread or free education is often a desirable ideal. However, depending on a country’s economic endowment or financial resources, and the existence of various competing demands of public expenditure in the social sector, the financing of free or widespread education may be problematic and unaffordable or uneconomical. However, with the effective and efficient management of a nation’s resources (human, material or physical/natural and financial), organizations therein, including universities, can very well sustain their existence, operations and growth.
Financial management means planning, organising, directing and controlling the financial activities such as procurement and utilization of funds of the Institution. In other words, financial management is the management of the finances of a business/organization in order to achieve financial objectives. In general terms, it means applying general management principles to catalysing and sustaining the financial resources of the Institution.

Financial management includes (16financialmanagement, 2006);

- Financial planning and budgeting,
- Financial accounting,
- Financial analysis,
- Financial decision-making and
- Action.

Financial planning is about (16financialmanagement, 2006);

- Making sure that the organization can survive,
- Making sure the money is being spent in the most efficient way,
- Making sure that the money is being spent to fulfil the objectives of the organization,
- Being able to plan for the future of the organization in a realistic way.

Financial Accountability: In non-profit organizations, whatever money is available for expenditure only is meant to be held in trust – on behalf of the affected community that is being served. The money is not the personal possession of any organisation or person. Financial managers, therefore, have to account for the ways and means by which such money may be used as well as particularly justify such usage with interest of public good.

However, financial accountability can be broken down into two components (16financialmanagement, 2006):

(a) Financial Accountability in terms of being able to account for the way the money is spent to:
- Donors,
- Boards and committees,
- Members, and
- The people whom the money is meant to benefit.

(b) Financial Responsibility, on the other hand, involves the following:
- Not taking on obligations the organization cannot meet,
- Paying staff and accounts on time,
- Keeping proper records of the money that comes into the organization and goes out of the organization.

Objectives of Financial management:

The primary purpose of financial management is to do with procurement, allocation and control of financial resources of a concern. The objectives of financial management specifically encompass the following (Ishola, 2008);

- To ensure regular and adequate supply of funds to the concern,
- To ensure optimum funds utilization. Once the funds are received they should be utilised in maximum possible way,
To ensure safety on investment. This implied that funds should be invested in safe ventures so that adequate rate of return can be achieved,

Overall control of the Institution's resources;

Guidance to all departments in all financial matters, particularly as regards the preparation and monitoring of their budgets;

The Institution's accounting, reporting and internal control procedures;

Maintaining the financial information system;

Administering the pay-roll, loan and pension schemes;

Arranging adequate insurance cover for the University’s assets;

Ensuring that surplus funds are invested and managed prudently.

Financial resources available to the Universities:

Financing higher education in Nigeria in the present is a crucial national problem. The political, social and economic factors, which are currently having significant impact on the world economy, have necessitated the need to diversify the resources of education funding, mainly because reliance on only one source of revenue can inhibit educational growth. There are however some possible options of financing higher education (Omolade, 2008):

- Fund from owner government, popularly known as subvention,
- Tuition and fees,
- Gifts, Grants and Endowments,
- Investment income,
- Auxiliaries (Enterprises, Licenses, Parents and Alumni Association)
- Consultancies and Research activities,
- Community Participation,
- Scholarship/Bursary Scheme,
- Loan Scheme, etc.

The existing circumstances in the country and the attendant financial constraints have made education to suffer. Government is unable to ideally fund higher education effectively and efficiently due to lack of accurate baseline statistics the asymmetrical planning and prevalent economic crises. To sustain higher education in the country, all stakeholders must become involved in the financing, parents and guardian, the society in general, the private sector and non-governmental agencies. The education sector can only approach the optimal in provision and production when every stakeholder strives to do its part on the financing of higher education in Nigeria.

This paper, therefore, also isolates six critical factors that tend to influence new trends in the funding of Universities in Nigeria. These are (Erinosho, 2004):

- Massive expansion in University Education;
- Inability of the Country to finance this massive expansion, leading to the emergence of the private sector;
- The rationale for cost-sharing with parents and students;
- The public call for accountability and value for money;
- The emergence of foreign providers through the General Agreement on Trade in services (GATS);
- And, finally, the need for adjustment in Country funding to reduce widening disparity.
Financial operations of Universities

It should be noted that there have been major recent changes in the financial operations of universities in many countries. This change is as a result of diminishing public resources with the resultant effect, in most cases, of financial constraints within the university system. This situation has led to pressure from the government, and from within the university system itself, for a diversification of sources of financial support to the University which must also be backed by effective resource management. From the above observations and scenarios, it is clear that the University can no longer rely solely on government funding, if it is to remain financially healthy. New styles and mechanisms of financial management are necessary. There are six key characteristics of the financially healthy University. These are (Akintayo, 2006):

- Short term solvency;
- Retention of reserves;
- The effective management of long term debt;
- The effective management of the estate;
- The stability to generate non-state funding;
- Consistency of budgetary strategy with mission.

Nevertheless, in spite of differences between various institutions and systems, I believe that there are six fundamental principles that must be observed. They are (Akintayo, 2006):

- Financial stability, which should make a key contribution to academic success;
- Financial management, which is too important to be left to the Bursar or Director of Finance alone;
- A conservative approach to institutional spending at the top, which should constantly send a message in favour of lean management of organizational resources, as well as transparency and accountability throughout the institution;
- That, risks should be examined carefully but, when accepted, the instrument should be sufficient to ensure a successful outcome;
- Good financial management requires that, where financial targets are not met, action should be taken immediately;
- Financial monitoring by policy makers, rather than technicians, can make a significant impact on the management of an institution.

It is necessary to state, at this juncture, that it is impossible to point to a ‘right way’ of managing University finance in general, because funding systems differ, and in particular, institutions differ. For example, managing the finances of a research university which has a significant grant income and major research facilities to maintain and, if it has a medical school, special relations with hospitals and state medical services or, if it has an agriculture or veterinary faculty, university farms to manage, are entirely different to managing the finances of a largely teaching university. This is not just a question of what the accounts of the two kinds of universities look like and the difference in the make-up of their income streams, but a matter of a different organization and structure.

It must be further noted that the most viable source of financing University education is the effective management of the university educational system and associated institutions. Consequently, this paper also isolates six critical factors that tend to influence new trends in the funding of universities. This can be done in the following ways (Obieumani, 2006):

- Rational allocation of cash funds;
In order to determine whether or not the finances of an organization are effectively managed, there is the need for financial reporting. The objective of financial reporting in the public sector, for example (where most universities in the developing countries are located), is to give a formal record of the financial activities and resources entrusted to it and provide information useful for decision making by (Edukugbo, 2008):

- Indicating whether resources were obtained and used in accordance with legally adopted budget;
- Indicating whether resources were obtained and used in accordance with legal and contractual requirements, including financial limits established by appropriate legislative authorities;
- Providing information about the resources, allocation and uses of financial resources;
- Providing information about how the government or unit financed its activities and met its cash requirements;
- Providing information that is useful in evaluating governments or units’ ability to finance its activities and to meet its liabilities and commitments;
- Providing information about financial condition of the government or unit and changes in it;
- Providing aggregate information useful in evaluating the governments or units performance in terms of service costs, efficiency and accomplishment.

**On the need for sustainable university administration and institution-building**

For a country, such as Nigeria, to get her quest for solid national development, there is the need to build sustainable and strong institutions. It must be noted at this juncture, that, if there has to be sustainable development in Nigerian universities, they have to be “adequately” funded. The financing of education should be the function of all the major stakeholders. This is because government alone cannot fund higher education. Inadequate funding of public universities has been identified as the prime cause of the problems of the universities (Ifakachukwu, 2009). There is need for strong institutions for service delivery, government efficiency, and strong policy and programme implementation. More importantly, there is the need to build capacity divorced from our individual, regional, religious and personal aggrandizement in order to encourage public and private sector sustenance.

It must be noted that, a country cannot grow or achieve much if she depends on individual genius, personality cult, and passion to run her public institutions.

The development of infrastructure, as well as maintenance and delivery of other state services need viable and functional institutions. These institutions should be the driving force towards the maintenance of the Country’s dilapidated roads, outdated power infrastructure and other conceivable public sector services.

It may be pertinent to further state, at this juncture, that government agencies have failed because they failed to build an enduring institutional structure. If the government had built
sustainable institution or leveraged on strategic capacity building, most of the critical challenges that are being encountered in the country could have been minimized.

Further still, on Nigeria, substantial investments of the nation’s wealth should be made in favour of the training and retraining of the national workforce. This is because every nation’s strength is in her workforce. If an emerging nation such as Nigeria would develop a well-dedicated and trained workforce, a substantial part of the nation’s developmental problems could have been solved.

**Conclusion**

By and large the importance of effective university governance cannot be underestimated, given the primacy of strategic educational and knowledge management for the possible attainment of necessary economic growth and sustainable human development across the globe. The pursuit of the inclusive but multidimensional goals of sustainable university administration and strategic capacity building are also dependent on the extent to which institutional financial resources are prudently harnessed and managed.

Consequently, the university administration has a critical role to play in this nexus. Indeed, successful university administration in this 21st century must leverage on the tenets of sound resources allocation, utilization and financial management to catalyze processes of necessary capacity building for balanced organization development and sustainable futures of the knowledge industry.

In conclusion, the instrumentality of financial reporting, international best practices in strategic university administration and the necessary understanding of the harvestable pool of financial resources that is available to the global university system as well as various mechanisms for putting these into usage for the promotion of industrial peace and organizational stability in the university system are all necessary ingredients for managing university finances for sustainable administration and institution-building.

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CLASH OF CIVILISATIONS IN DEFINING THE CONCEPT OF BUSINESS TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME IN NIGERIA

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Abstract

What seems to be a conventional trend in employment of teaching staff into business education departments has posed a great threat to teaching and learning in the programme. The application of the word ‘business’ having been misinterpreted by education administrators opened the way to employing all sorts of graduates as teachers in business teacher education departments. This paper examines the role of education in the society and the role of quality assurance in the administration of business teacher education programme. A population of 52 lecturers of business education departments was studies with a view to sampling 20 lecturers for the study. The internal consistency of the instrument was 0.74. Mean ratings and test retest statistics were used in analyzing data collected from the field. The paper highlighted the various courses and qualifications that are found in business education departments. It was revealed that some qualifications of lecturers in business education are preferred as traditional lecturers of the department while others are preferred as service course lecturers to the department. Based on the findings, it was recommended that holders of higher degrees in business education should be engaged as departmental lecturers while others whose degrees are not in business teacher education should be engaged as service lecturers.

Introduction

Education from primitive age has continued to play a significant role in the life of man and his style of living. Bearing in mind that man’s own skills alone were not necessarily sufficiently to keep his generations economically going, the primitive man sought to engage some of his children in other trades and apprenticeship schemes. This was how man started his educational careers and provided for himself, with emphasis on progressive development on various fields, the vocations and disciplines that we enjoy today. Since then, Ordu (2013) informed that education has been rated as a useful tool for self-development and the development of societies. This may account for the reason why some societies have gone ahead of others in their developmental strands, and at the international level, some are rated as developed, others as developing, yet others as underdeveloped.

The developed societies appeared to have had the foresight in terms of measuring the role education was likely to play in their survival, and went ahead to capture it with all amount of jealousy and impunity. The case of developing societies was that they saw themselves as watchers of events created by developed societies. Realising that they too could have had something that others would watch, they decided to trail the ladder in the hope that as developed societies step out of a particular attractive-position, they could fill such vacuum. But unfortunately, the underdeveloped societies found no interest in the race between the first two societies thereby creating for themselves another race-line leading to consistent stay along the poverty line created by these two societies.

In Nigeria nation of recent past, education had been a useful tool of our developmental strands. The missionaries who came and colonized our indigenous system brought with them their education and introduced it as a weapon for wisdom and of development. They jettisoned our vocational education that had been consistent with our developmental local contents, and introduced their western education and culture that were totally foreign to our people and pattern. Our people who were educated through their system imbibed colonial mentality
patterned in their own cultural arrangements thereby becoming graduates of literary subjects. Aside from literary subjects, these colonial masters invested in developing skills that were relevant to trade and commerce to support their missionary and commercial activities. This venom of colonialism was injected in our system that even as Nigerian administrators took over the mantle of self-governance at independence in 1960, the focus of education handed down to them by colonial masters was not jettisoned in favour of the application of local contents. The development of desired goals for our traditional and vocational education was therefore sacrificed on the altar of literary western educational culture.

The activities of commerce continued to develop along their pattern until business education evolved as a discipline consequent upon its relevance in business and commercial activities. Business education is offered as a discipline in tertiary institutions some of which have risen to awarding doctoral degrees. Today, Nigeria has produced scores of bright professors from business education discipline whose contributions to education are internationally referenced. Business education programme admits, trains, and produces those who wish to teach business subjects as well as those who wish to engage in various strands of business activities. Teachers of business subjects are found at all levels of educational settings in Nigeria although the category of qualifications possessed by an individual determine the educational level he is expected to teach. For those who wish to work in the commercial and business world, there are two distinctive strands to choose from. There are those who educate themselves for the purpose of working for paid employment; and those who receive their education for the purpose of self-employment.

Okoli (2010) explained that business education emphasizes two major trusts - (a) education for business, and (b) education about business. Under education for business, it is aimed at preparing recipients to be intelligent consumers of goods and services. The educational trust about business means the preparation of recipients for acquisition of skills that are necessary for paid employment, as well as the skills and competencies that are necessary to be self-employed as an entrepreneur. The totality of this trust was vividly captured, in part, in the 2012 National Council for Colleges of Education (NCCE) objectives of Nigeria Certificate of Education (NCE) business education programme thus:

- To produce well qualified and competent NCE graduates in business subjects who will be able to teach business subjects in our secondary schools, and related educational institutions;
- To equip graduates with the right skills that will enable them to engage in a life of work in the office as well as for self-employment.

Correspondingly, this objective in teaching and learning cannot be achieved where there is clash of interests between and among the administrators of business education programme. While those who possess teacher education qualifications attempt to explain the meaning of these objective items in their own rights, others whose qualifications are not business teacher education give contradictive interpretations. This variation in interpretation of the same curriculum and same contents leads to poor implementation of programme objectives. Departments held the view that the term ‘business education’ is related to them and therefore should be managers of the association. Those whose qualifications are from business administration and related departments opted for a more level playing ground and embracing formula towards integrational model even if that would mean modifications of this present nomenclature. This situation was vividly observed at the Benin 2013 Annual Conference of Association of Business Educators of Nigeria (ABEN). Those who trained from teacher education
Statement of the Problem

In some of our tertiary institutions offering business education programme, business teacher education has been misrepresented in Nigeria educational culture. In some of these institutions, you find all sorts of qualifications of teaching staff claiming to be authorities in business teacher education programme irrespective of the disciplines that they graduated from. Due to the fact that these lecturers coming from various related disciplines are more in number than those who possess business teacher education qualifications, they pose as traditional business teacher educators in business teacher education programme thereby intimidating those whose qualifications are in business teacher education disciplines. Extreme cases are very visible in situations where those who graduated as economists from Arts and Social Science departments with B.Sc and M.Sc, as well as those from Business Administration with MBA degrees, in addition to those with MBA in Banking and Finance, etc, establish themselves as superior members of business teacher education departments of core education programme offering institutions. These maverick lecturers, having found themselves as administrators in these departments misinterpret academic programme and conceal vital academic information simply to keep their jobs at the expense of academic realities. Having found themselves in some administrative positions, they maliciously visit with impunity, anybody’s opinion who challenges the genuineness of their qualifications in business teacher education programme.

Considering the role of business teacher education in the development of societies especially in the implementation of innovation in education, it is necessary to find out some courses that are productive in the programme as well as quality of teaching staff that are relevant in business teacher education programme. This is necessary bearing in mind that all sorts of certificate holders are found teaching in the programme and claiming to be professionals in the same programme.

Purpose of the Study

To find out the qualifications that are necessary for holders to pose as authorities and professionals in business teacher education programme, this study is aimed at finding out some courses that are productive in teaching and learning in business education programme as well as quality of teaching staff that are professionally relevant to teach in the programme. Specifically, the study sets out to:

1. Find out which courses are preferred as major subsets in the course listing of teaching and learning of business teacher education programme.
2. Find out the qualifications of teaching staff to be referred to as business educators in business teacher education programme.

Research questions

The following research questions were posed to guide the study:

1. Which of these courses would you prefer as major subsets in the course listing of teaching and learning of business teacher education programme?
2. Which of these qualification holders would you prefer to be defined as a business educator in business teacher education programme?

Methodology

Since the method of research involves getting opinions of respondents over certain issues, the researcher adopted a descriptive survey design. Nworgu in Akuma and Igu (2011)
explained that a descriptive survey research is one that a group of people are studied by collecting and analyzing data from only a few people considered to be representations of his entire group. The population of this study comprised one lecturer from each business education department of Nigerian tertiary institution who attended the annual conference of business educators held at Benin in 2013. This number represented 52 institutions that were randomly selected at the annual conference. The sample was 20 lecturers representing 20 business education departments of 20 tertiary institutions in Nigeria. The instrument for data collected was a 23 item questionnaire structured in this order: very highly productive (VHP) 4; highly productive (HP) 3; less productive (LP) 2; and very less productive (VLP) 1. The instrument was validated by two experts in measurement and evaluation from School of Education, Federal College of Education (Tech), Omoku. This validation exercise gave rise to some modifications of the instrument. The reliability of the instrument was established with application of test-retest method using some business educators at Federal College of Education (Tech), Omoku who were not to attend the 2012 ABEN conference. The result was subjected to Conbach alpha statistics to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The coefficient alpha value of 0.75 was obtained which indicated an excellent stability.

The instrument was administered to the sampled respondents on the first day as they arrived the ABEN Conference venue and collected the second day at the same Conference venue. The data from research questions were analyzed using mean scores. All items with a mean of 2.50 and above were considered significant while items with less than a mean of 2.50 were considered insignificant and therefore rejected.

**Results analysis**

Research question 1: Which of these courses are preferred as major productive subsets in the course listing of teaching and learning of business education programme.

Table 1: Mean score of business teachers perception of productive knowledge and skill competencies in teaching and learning in business education programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>VHP 4</th>
<th>HP 3</th>
<th>LP 2</th>
<th>VLP 1</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Acquisition of typewriting skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Acquisition of shorthand skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>1.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Acquisition of computer associated programme skills</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Acquisition of entrepreneurship knowledge and skills</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Acquisition of economics knowledge</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Acquisition of management knowledge</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Acquisition of business education programme course knowledge and skills</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: VHP = Very Highly Productive; HP = Highly Productive; LP = Less Productive; VLP = Very Less Productive

Analysis in Table one reveals that while 2.15 favoured the use of typewriters as productive in teaching and learning business education, 1.70 favoured shorthand skills acquisition as productive. Furthermore, the table also reveals that while 2.15 favoured the continued skills acquisition of economics courses as productive, only 2.05 favoured acquisitions of management knowledge courses as productive. Data in this table further shows that 3.05 indicated skills acquisition of computer associated courses as productive, 3.25 of the sample favoured skills acquisition of entrepreneurship courses, as 3.25 also favoured skills acquisition of business education programme courses respectively as productive.
Research question two:

Which of these qualification holders would you prefer to be defined as a business educator in business education programme?

Table 2: Mean score of business education teachers’ definition of business educator in business education programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>VHP 4</th>
<th>HP3</th>
<th>LP 2</th>
<th>VLP 1</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person who possesses HND in Business Studies</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>43</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
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</table>

Key: VHP = Very Highly Preferred; HP = Highly Preferred; LP = Less Preferred; VLP = Very Highly Preferred

Table two discusses preference of certificate holders to be defined as business educators. M.Ed business education and Ph.D business education got the highest ratings of 3.10 and 3.45 respectively. While HND in business studies scored 2.15, B.Sc in business administration scored 2.40. As respondents who preferred Ph.D in economics scored 2.15, those who prefer MBA scored 2.35. Those who favoured Ph.D in economics scored 2.40 and those who prefer other teaching qualifications scored 2.00.

Discussions

The findings in Table one shows that all those items with a mean above 2.50 are productive in teaching and learning of business education programme. By this, the table reveals that knowledge, and skill competencies in computer associated courses, entrepreneurship knowledge and skills, and other business teacher education programme courses are very productive. Invariably, data in the table reveals that knowledge and skills competencies in typewriting, shorthand, educational courses, and economics are not as productive in teaching and learning in business teacher education programme. The implication of this is that these courses with a mean of 2.50 and above have significant influence on teaching and learning in business education programme. Furthermore, the table also reveals that shorthand which is highly regarded in the curriculum with a weightage of 6 credit units in some cases, is the least productive with a score of 1.70. This is in line with the opinion of Marques and Moreira (2013) that students should be introduced to more productive courses than the mundane courses that are no longer relevant in the innovative technological society. This supports Ordu and Mbaba (2012) who underscored the fact that times have come when business education curriculum should be modified to reflect innovations in business and technology.

This result further shows the advent of new thinking about business teacher education programme. Skills that have hitherto been regarded as basic components of communication have been jettisoned by respondents who themselves are teachers of various elements in business education. Furthermore, knowledge of some courses from the general education disciplines and pure management disciplines have also not been favoured. Emphasis seems to be focused on the acquisition of skills in emerging areas of modern times. Going by these data, respondents indicated that business teacher education lecturers need to be competent in teaching
and learning of computer associated courses in business teacher education. In this way, only those who are primarily knowledgeable in business teacher education concepts would understand which areas to draw up skills that are relevant in teaching and learning in business teacher education programme. The result of this study supports the provisions of national policy in education (2008) which explains that no nation is greater than the quality of her teachers. This means that a low profile teacher would produce low profile graduates; non-skill teachers in business teacher education programme would produce non-skilled business education graduates; when the knowledge is lacking in the teacher, it is difficult to manipulate teaching and learning. Azih (2010) explained that for effective teaching and learning to be achieved, a teacher starts from the known to the unknown, simple to complex, and concrete to abstract. The result of this study is in line with the opinion of Okike (2011) and Ezeani (2013) that for efficiency of students in skills acquisition, there is need to restructure the teaching of entrepreneurship education to integrate practical teaching.

The analysis of data in Table two defines the type of certifications that qualify holders as business educators. Holders of M.Ed. in Business teacher education scored 9 points for Very Highly Preferred with a mean of 3.10 which is above the cut-off point of 2.50. The data reveals that PhD in Business teacher education is highly favoured with 13 points for Very Highly favoured and scoring a mean of 3.45 thereby recording above the cut-off point of 2.50. The possession of any other teaching qualification 2.00, PhD in Economics 2.15, MBA's 2.35, HND business studies 2.15, BSc in Business Administration 2.40, MSc in business studies 2.40, PhD in Educational Management 2.40. The data reveals that holders of these certifications scoring below the cut-off point of 2.50 are not to be addressed as business educators. This means that respondents agree that only holders of qualifications from business teacher education programme have the qualifications to be addressed as business educators.

From the results of the study, it is further observed that those whose certifications are from business teacher education programme have serious challenges in their defense of the curriculum. While this group insists that only those who possess business teacher education qualifications are to be recognized as business educators, it also points that they prefer such people to teach in business teacher education programme as service lecturers nomenclature. This goes to show that teacher preparation from teacher education departments would better be handled by those who had been groomed from such disciplines with adequate foundational knowledge of occupational clusters of that discipline. Be that as it may, no programme is isolated in nature. This means that holders of such other certifications outside those from business teacher education programme may be required but at levels that they teach as service-course-providers rather than as traditional business educators, and so in some cases, intimidating those whose qualifications are in business teacher education. This may be associated with the fact that business teacher education curriculum has not been properly implemented leading to what the existence of mundane courses at the expense of innovative measures to align with modern trends. Igbokwe (2010) explained this when he lamented that among other factors, inadequate funding, inappropriate curriculum, chronic dearth of qualified teachers, etc, has made business education programme in Nigeria as a disaster. He therefore recommended among others the revision of curricular offerings to include courses and practical experiences to salvage graduates from unemployment doom. This, accordingly, would ensure that teaching and learning in the programme would focus at meeting the emerging challenges in the relevant industries. The activities of those who possess general education qualifications are largely responsible for the failure of business education programme in Nigeria. The result of this study is in line with the finding of Oduma (2010) that business education programme requires quality teachers who have the competencies to develop their students to adequately prepare and equip them to fit into these new employment markets ocationed by technological changes.
Recommendations

Based on the discussions of findings, the following recommendations are made:

Efforts should be made by institutional administrators to distinguish between business teacher education and general business education disciplines. By so doing, only those whose qualifications mandate them to be employed would be required to teach business teacher education courses and be direct employees of the department to guide teaching and learning.

Furthermore, emerging societal issues are changing the world of work in such a way that only innovative disciplines would survive the economic world. This means that computer courses in business education curriculum should be expanded to include effective learning of computer packages for business operations.

It is also necessary that practical entrepreneurship skills, knowledge and business competencies be integrated in course curricular of business teacher education programme. This can only be introduced if creative business educators are employed to teach in business education programme.

It is also necessary that employers of labour in tertiary institutions should know that only qualifications of lecturers relevant to business teacher education should be employed direct into the programme. Since there is no discipline that survives in isolation, lecturers with qualifications that are ancillary to teaching in business teacher education departments should be engaged as service lecturers.

Again, some universities offer all categories of degrees in business teacher education programme. All lecturers who had been employed in business teacher education but do not possess the business teacher education qualifications should be assisted to proceed on further developmental post graduate programme in business teacher education. Those who refuse to develop accordingly should be regarded as stagnant lecturers whose contributions to teaching and learning in the programme are not necessarily required by their qualifications.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the result of findings show that there are two classes of lecturers in business teacher education programme. One group whose qualifications are in business teacher education programme claim to be authentic business educators whose functions and place of work is being hijacked by others. On the other hand, there is also another group of lecturers engaged in the service of teaching and learning in the programme but their qualifications are from other disciplines. Members of this group also claim to be authorities in the programme by virtue of their teaching and learning over time mainly to keep their jobs. The disparity in understanding flows down to diverse interpretations and poor curriculum implementation in the programme. The paper considers business teacher education programme an area in academics that requires academic sanitation. Teaching and learning in business teacher education programme can help to reduce poverty in Nigeria if curriculum contents are adequately interpreted and implemented. This implementation would lead to what Azih (2010) describes as production of graduates with cognate skills that can help them establish their own business enterprises. This can only be achieved where and only creative business educators have come together.

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IMPACT OF ACCOUNTING SKILLS ON ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION FOR SELF-RELIANCE AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY OF SELECTED SMALL SCALE BUSINESS IN OWERRI MUNICIPAL IMO STATE

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Abstract

Accounting skill was found to be contributory to entrepreneurial performance and as such entrepreneurs are advised to embark on capacity building in accounting skill in the area of financial management and record keeping. Entrepreneurs are agents and drivers of development in most economies of the world including Nigeria. The entrepreneur establishes his presence through the formation of a small and medium scale enterprise (SME). Accounting on its part, is of great importance to the development of small and medium scale enterprises. Arguably, accounting is the core academic discipline that aids the entrepreneurial drive given the popular opinion that is the language of business. The objectives of this study is to examine the role of accounting on entrepreneurship education for self-reliance and sustainable development in Nigeria. The study considered the accounting profession and the major role it plays in entrepreneurship development. It is the submission of the authors that entrepreneurs with basic accounting knowledge and entrepreneurial skills stand better chances of becoming self-reliant and attaining business success. The paper recommends among other things that government should remove those obstacles that militate against entrepreneurial development in Nigeria.

Keywords: Accounting skill, Entrepreneurship Education, Small-Scale Business, Self-Reliance and Sustainability.

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurship started to gain ground in Nigeria as a result of the prevalence of unemployment of our youths after schooling. Many of our youths who could not embark on higher education after secondary school cannot be absorbed for paid employment both by the government and the private sector. In the same manner, many graduates from the universities, after the one year compulsory National Youth services start searching for unavailable jobs.

It is obvious that the government cannot employ all the graduate job seekers the only way to tackle this problem is to be self-reliant and job employers and not job seekers. The basic freedoms of capitalism according to Kanu and Nwaiwu (2010:2) are the opportunity for private property. There are important group of individuals that play essential roles in capitalism these are the entrepreneurs, mangers, workers and consumers.

The entrepreneurs required accounting and other skills for proper management of their business. In the words of Akands (2011)” for any small scale enterprise to be successful, owners
of business must possess appropriate skills and abilities to run the business. It is therefore very important for entrepreneurs in Nigeria to develop all necessary skills required for setting and effective running of the enterprise in order to contribute meaningful to development and self-reliance of the nation’s economy.

To succeed in today’s competitive market as an entrepreneur, one needs a broad array of entrepreneurial skills. Akande (2011) also argued that entrepreneurial skills are those qualities or attributes required for an entrepreneur to start and successfully manage a business in a competitive environment.

From the foregoing analysis, it becomes clear that business owners need to possess basic skills necessary to start, develop, finance and market their business. It also implies that inability to install a proper accounting system would disallow business monitoring reporting and performance evaluation that are required for business survival. Many entrepreneurs have failed in the past probably for ignoring this important measurement apparatus.

This paper therefore focuses on the impact of accounting skills on the performance of entrepreneurs in Owerri capital territory.

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

For any organization to function effectively including small business firms, it requires leadership and decision making. Unfortunately, many of our entrepreneurs fail to succeed because of neglect of accounting skills. The problem of the study stresses on how can entrepreneurs enhance their performance without accounting skills. This paper therefore proffers solution to the above problem.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

To determine how accounting skills can improve entrepreneurship in Nigeria.

RESEARCH QUESTION

How can accounting skills improve the performance of entrepreneurs in Nigeria?

HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis was formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance.

H0: Possession of a proper accounting skill by entrepreneurs will not significantly improve their performance.

Hi: Possession of a proper accounting skill by entrepreneurs will significantly improve their performance.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Entrepreneurship stimulates economic development, thus contributing to the transformation of the traditional sector into a modern one, creation of employment, reducing rural and urban migration and serving as a training ground for managerial skill acquisitions. Entrepreneurs are found in many small scale business. In the words of Eke (2007), “Small business accounts for over 90% of the entrepreneurs in Nigeria, small scale entrepreneurs in Japan accounted for about 98.5% of the non-primary business establishments, employing 79.1% of the country’s labour force and contributing 50.8% of the shipment”.
In his contribution, Owuala (1987), argues that economic development is a factor of industrialization, characterized by increasing growth of small scale enterprises (SSEs). These SSEs make invaluable contributions to the economics of both more developed countries (MDCs) and less Developed Countries (LDCs).

QUALITIES AND SKILLS FOR ENTREPRENEURIAL SUCCESS

It take certain qualities and skills to make a successful entrepreneur. A new venture is risky and will demand time and resources, both personal and professional, but with a strong inner drive and some of the qualities as advocated below by Fijo and Obi (2012), success is sure; an entrepreneur ought to be;

• Committed, determined and persevering.
• Confident, vision driven.
• Creative and innovative
• Willing to work hard
• Able to handle responsibilities
• Goal-oriented and self-confident
• Action-oriented and good leader.
• Problem solver and self-reliant
• Willing to take calculated risk
• Realist and quick learner.
• Open to feedback. Etc.

Being a successful entrepreneur is not an easy task, itemizing what it takes to be an entrepreneur could be an inexcusable list. No matter the kind of entrepreneur, entrepreneurial vision is very necessary. An entrepreneur must have a formal, written business plan, and must concentrate on his mission statement: that guides him or her adequately.

LINK BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND SELF RELIANCE.

Entrepreneurship which involves recognizing a business opportunity, mobilizing resources and persisting to exploit that opportunity is a necessary ingredient for self-employment. Employment creation and the boosting of income – opportunity are some of Nigeria’s top challenges today. The Federal Government Policies and strategies are now being geared to encourage and support the private sectors in generating growth in self-employment through the introduction of entrepreneurship development. What it simply means is that if these government policies and strategies are properly implemented, our educational system will now produce graduates who will be job creators, rather than job seekers. Entrepreneurship prepares people to be responsible, enterprising individuals who become entrepreneurs or entrepreneurial thinkers and contribute to economic development and sustainable communities, and thus become self-Reliant.

According to Medayese (2010:1), a self-reliant person is one who is self-employed, because self-employment is one of the keys to work out of poverty. The benefit of being self-reliant through entrepreneurship can never be over-emphasized because entrepreneurship is the backbone of many great and developed nations today, such as China, United states of America, Japan etc. Consequently, self-reliance can not be achieved in an atmosphere where entrepreneurial activities are lacking, hence entrepreneurship is a strong acquisition programme that will help people of a country like Nigeria become better and greater.
ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Education can be described as the process by which knowledge, skills, values and desirable attitudes are transmitted to members of a society to enable them contribute meaningfully to its development and sustenance. Thus, education is seen as the bedrock of any national development. Entrepreneurship education according to Gimah and Umuigbokhai (2011) seeks to prepare people, especially youths, to be responsible, enterprising individuals who become entrepreneurs. The international Labour Organization (ILO) defined entrepreneurship education as a type of education that equips the responding to environmental challenges. It is heart warming to note that the new National Policy on Education emphasizes entrepreneurship education.

OBJECTIVES OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION

Entrepreneurship education according to Paul (2005) is structured to achieve among others, the following objectives.

1. To offer functional education to the youths that will enable them to be self-employed and self-reliant.
2. To provide young graduates with adequate training that will enable them to be creative and innovative in identifying new business opportunities.
3. To serve as a catalyst for economic growth and development.
4. To reduce high rate of poverty.
5. Reduction in rural – urban migration.

SMALL AND MEDIUM SCALE ENTREPRENERS (SMES)

Small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) are catalysts in the socio-economic development of any country. According to Onuoha (1997) the economic prosperity of Nigeria lies in the dynamism and growth of entrepreneurs and SMEs. The catalytic roles of SMEs as indicated earlier, have been amply displaced in all the newly industrialized countries of South East Asia, commonly referred to as Asian Tigers.

The Federal Government of Nigeria has long recognized the need to promote the development of SME’s in order to stimulate employment, mobilize local resources, reduce migration from rural to urban areas and disperse industrial enterprises more evenly across the country. This is why the government has established institutions to promote SMEs. These institutions according to Izedonmi (2008) include small and medium industries Equity Investment Scheme (SMIEIS), Small Scale Industry credit Scheme (SSICS), Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria (SMEDAN) etc. Government efforts at promoting the development of SMSs in the country have yielded mixed results. Today, the entrepreneur and SMEs in Nigeria are face with myriad of challenges, which include:

- Harsh and unfriendly business environment:
- Unfriendly government policies
- Lack of access to funds
- Poor management
- Mismanagement of funds
- Constant power outage
- Book-keeping problem etc.
THE ACCOUNTING PROFESSION / SKILLS

The accounting profession has been described as the backbone of our societal life. This is because in the words of Nnadi (1991) business organizations use accounting information to plan and control their activities and to report the results of these activities to shareholders, creditors, labour unions and government agencies. Non-profit organizations such as churches, town unions and clubs also use accounting information for planning, conducting and reporting their activities. The Federal, State, Local Governments and other government agencies use accounting information in similar ways. According to Adegite (2010) the accounting profession speaks the language of business as it record all transactions of organizations that have monetary implications. Thus accounting is that discipline that involves the systematic gathering, classification, recording, analysis, interpretation and transmission of information to assist users make economic decision. The accounting profession according to Evbodaghe (2009) has been responsible for the spread of financial knowledge and for a commitment to help business and non-business organizations develop the capacity to success. Even at the global level, the international accountancy profession has helped several countries to build stronger and more stable economies. In fact the profession is empowered by investor confidence and public trust without which the credibility of the information prepared and presented by the management of the organization will be at risk. In Nigeria, the practice of accounting is guided by the code of conduct of the institute of chartered Accountant of Nigeria (ICAN) and code of Ethics of the Association of National Accountants of Nigeria (ANAN)- the two legally recognized accounting bodies in Nigeria. According to Ajibolade (2008) the ICAN code of Conduct and ANAN code of Ethics are devoted to such ethical issues as integrity, transparency and accountability.

Accounting skills are the totally of skills ranging from record keeping, attention directing, financial management and reporting skills that are expected to promote effective decision, performance evaluation and business reporting of any business enterprise, (Akande 2011). He further stated that attention directing skill enables the owner manager to make vital decision on production and pricing issues while reporting skill describes the method, and technique by which business information are reported to the stakeholders of the business.

According to the Accounting Education Change Commission (AECC 1990) to be successful in their careers, accounting graduates need skills and abilities that beyond accounting technical knowledge, they include communication skills, analytical skills and interpersonal skills. Accounting graduates are also expected to be able to receive and send information, identify and solve unstructured problems in unfamiliar settings and exercise judgment, Agbiogwu (2010) highlighted nine (9) common traits to entrepreneurs besides accounting skills.

They are as follows;

- Physical and mental stamina
- A desire to take control of their own destiny
- A competitive instinct
- Resilience in the face of defeat
- Good Judgment
- Decisiveness
- The ability to inspire others
- An unfailing positive attitude
- Great communication skills.
Managing business  Finances

One way of keeping tabs on the flow of money is through accounting. By accounting, we mean a system used to record, classify, summarise and interpret the financial data of a business (Brown & Clow 1992).

They further stated that the financial data are made up of the transactions that occur in the daily operations of the business. A good entrepreneur should be able to be conversant with common sources and uses of funds in a business. The diagram below shows the various sources and uses of funds in a typical business.

Fig 1


METHODOLOGY

This paper focuses on the research, techniques adopted and used for this study with the aim of achieving the research objective. Survey research design is adopted in this study. This method was chosen because the sampled elements and the variables are being studied

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are simply being observed as they are without making any attempt to control or manipulate them. Data were collected from a sample of entrepreneurs to determine the impact of accounting skills on the performance of entrepreneurs in Owerri capital territory.

However, the study was restricted to Owerri Municipal Imo State. Primary method of data collection was used in this study. It consists of items in well-structured non-disguised questionnaire that was administered to and completed by the respondents. The respondents returned all the 100 questionnaire personally administered. Data collected were analyzed with the use of chi-square.

Table 2

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<td>X²</td>
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N/B
Degree of freedom = df = 2
Significant Level = 0.05
Decision
Calculated X² = 9.16

Table – Value (X²) = 2.991

We reject H₀ and accept H₁, hence we conclude that accounting skills has a great impact on entrepreneurship and performance of business.

RELEVANCE OF ACCOUNTING TO ENTERPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION AND SMEs

The relevance of accounting to entrepreneurs and SMEs can be better appreciated when one considers its role in business management. These contributions are summarized hereunder.
1. Accounting has been described as “the language of business” as it record all transactions of organizations that have monetary implications.

2. Accounting provides financial information, on the basis of which business organizations plan and control their operations as well we make decisions.

3. It is not an exaggeration to state that men and women in business and government are stronger in their perception of business when they have basic accounting knowledge. Little wonder that Horngren (1995) has aptly noted that the learned of accounting is almost always a wise investment.

4. Accounting provides answers to two important question: (1) How well has the business performed over a given period of time? (2) what is the financial position of the business at a given point in time? The answers to the above questions are provided through the preparation of the profit and loss account and balance sheet.

5. Accounting is of great importance in the analysis and interpretation of final accounts in order to assess the financial condition and commercial soundness of the business to which the account relate.

6. A good accounting system will ensure that error and fraud are detected as soon as possible.

7. From the foregoing, it is clear that accounting has contributed and will continue to contribute to business success.

CONCLUSION

Entrepreneurship is agent of transformation with reference to creation of employment, reducing rural-urban migration and serving as a training ground for managerial skill acquisition. Accounting skills are highly contributory to entrepreneurial performance and is therefore required to be possesses by owner managers for effective small business development in Owerri Municipal Imo State in particular and Nigeria as a whole.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This paper proffers the following recommendations;

- Entrepreneurs should embark on capacity building in accounting skill in the area of financial management and record keeping for better performance.
- Government at all levels should encourage entrepreneurship education and training for entrepreneurs and SMES.
- Government should make it mandatory for entrepreneurs to keep proper books of account and prepare financial statement for performance monitoring.
- Entrepreneurs should be in position to take reasonable decision.

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LOAN LOSS PROVISION AND EARNINGS MANAGEMENT IN NIGERIAN DEPOSIT MONEY BANKS

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Abstract

Researchers and financial economists have for long identified that bank managers use loan loss provisions which is a substantial accrual in the banking industry to manage reported earnings in line with the prediction of the agency theory. In Nigeria, this practice remains a mere theoretical insinuation because there are hardly any empirically documented evidences to support the assertion. In order to fill this void in literature, the present study explores the relationship between loan loss provision and earnings management in Nigerian DMBs. Secondary data were obtained from the 8 banks’ annual reports for the period of 2006 to 2011 and robust regression was used as a tool for data analysis. The result indicates that there is a positive relationship between the provision for loan losses and earnings management in Nigerian DMBs. It is therefore, recommended that, if emphasis is on the integrity of financial reports, regulators should put a ceiling on the provision for loan losses rather than leaving it at the total discretion of managers who provide it to suit their selfish interest.

Keywords: loan loss provisions, discretionary loan loss provision, earnings management, DMBs, Nigeria

1. Introduction

The use of loan loss provision to manipulate reported earnings have been widely discussed in the literature particularly in the light of developed countries. Different reasons for it have been proffered by researchers including capital market incentives, contracts motivation and regulation motivation. In this regard, Chang, Shen and Fang (2008) note that bank managers use discretion regarding loan loss allowance to manage earnings. The basic argument is that since it is replenished by a charge to earnings and the credit quality of the loan portfolio cannot be determined precisely by objective criteria, the allowance for loan losses has been shown potentially as a means to manage earnings (Grey and Clarke, 2004). Thus, from the regulators’ point of view, the emphasis is on whether loan loss estimation truly reflects the prevailing economic conditions of the firm. The question is how adequate is the provision in covering the expected credit losses over the lifespan of the loan?

Atleast three philosophies surround the discussion on loan loss provisioning in the banking industry. In a review of theoretical and empirical evidence regarding the estimation for loan losses, Wall and Koch(2000) note that the philosophies include economists’ view, FASB’s view and the capital view. While the economists view loan loss allowance as the provision that is intended to capture expected future losses should the borrower fails to pay his obligation as at
when due, the FASB’s view is concerned with the measurement of a firm’s net income over a
given period of time. The last view sees loan loss allowance as a form of capital to be
accumulated in good times to absorb losses during bad time. Wall and Koch (2000) further
note that the philosophy from which the provision is viewed depends on the researcher’s intention.
But regardless of the motivation and the philosophy, the behaviour for earnings management
implies conflict of interest between managers, owners and minority shareholders.

Like most industries the worldover, the Nigerian banking industry is going through tough times
with the recent financial crises which saw a collapse of some banks such as Oceanic Bank and
Intercontinental Bank which were eventually acquired by other banks. This, among other things
led to the challenge of the governance practice of the Deposit Money Banks (DMBs) in Nigeria.
The introduction of new codes of governance practices by the CBN in 2003 and its constant
modifications are all in the interest of effective monitoring to align the interest of shareholders
with that of managers. Because it was generally observed that undesirable banking practices such
as poor risk diversification, inadequate loan evaluation, fraudulent activities were as much
responsible as other macroeconomic factors in causing baking crises that shook the financial
systems of nations (Arun and Reaz, 2005). Inadequate provisions for loan losses thus served as a
major tool used by managers during these crises to cancel true firms economic conditions of
their banks.

The reason why banks manipulate earnings is supported by three arguments: signalling argument,
income smoothing or earnings management argument and capital management argument (Zhou
and Chen, 2004). The signalling argument suggests that banks use discretionary loan loss
provision to insinuate that earnings will be high in subsequent periods (Wahlen, 1994: Liu and
Ryan, 1995: Beaver and Engel, 1996). Contrary to the signalling argument, earnings management
argument holds that managers increase the provision for loan losses in periods when earnings are
high, under the assumption of income smoothing (Beatty, Chamberlain & Mogliolo, 1995:
Collins, Shackleford & Wahlen, 1995: Rivard, Bland & morris, 2003). This implies that earnings
management in this area can improve a bank’s cash flows, capital adequacy, market value and
overall performance. While the capital management argument suggests that since increase in loan
loss provision increases regulatory capital, management exercises discretion over its provision
(Ahmed, et al., 1999: Beatty et al., 1995). Regardless of the industry and the strings attached,
managers’ discretionary behaviour to achieve personal gains undermines the shareholders’ wealth
maximization objective of the firm.

Empirical evidences in this field of research are characterized by conflicting findings. Ma (1988),
Anandrajan, Hassan and McCarthy (2006) both find that loan loss allowance are used for
earnings management in samples of U.S. banks. Also Rivard et al. (2003) and Perez, Fumas and
Saurina (2006) find that there is positive interaction between the provision for loan losses in U.S.
and Spanish banks respectively. However, Beatty et al. (1995) find little statistical
fail to document robust relationship between loan loss provision and opportunistic accounting
but still they conclude that loan loss provisions reflect meaningful changes in the expected
quality of banks’ loan portfolios. These differences in findings between studies are due to
different sample selections and the use of different time periods being examined. Wall and Koch
(2000) conclude though that the available evidence clearly suggests that banks have an incentive
to use loan loss accounting to help manage reported earnings.

A considerable number of studies explored the relationship between loan loss allowance and
earnings management in the developed countries. However, the attention on developing nations
whose economies are rapidly growing and have peculiar corporate control features, capital
allocation and regulations have only recently gathered momentum (Bradbury, Mark and Tan,
The differences in economies and level of sophistication of regulatory authorities across the globe call for such investigations in the Nigerian context. Moreover, the existing literature do not yield conclusive results as conflicting findings trail these studies.

The objective of this work, therefore, is to investigate the relationship between loan loss provisions and earnings management in DMBs in Nigeria. To achieve this aim, it is therefore hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between loan loss provisions and earnings management in DMBs in Nigeria. The contribution of this work is in two ways. Firstly, it adds to the extant literature that examined the interaction between loan loss provisions and earnings management. Secondly, given that almost all the works in this area are focused on samples of developed economies like the U.S. and Australia, this study therefore extends these research phenomena in the context of emerging economies like Nigeria.

The remaining of this paper is organized as follows. Section two reviews empirical works that are related to this study and presents the theoretical framework. Methodological issues are raised and discussed in section three and the model is specified. In section four results are presented and major findings are discussed together with their policy implications. Finally, in section five the work is concluded and recommendations are offered in the light of major findings.

2. Theory and Evidence

In this section, we review existing literature that relates to the present study in order to give a bird’s eye view on the concept of earnings management through the use of loan loss provision which is a substantial accrual in the banking industry.

2.1 Earnings Management

There is no single universally accepted definition of earnings management (also called creative accounting) in the literature. According to Barnea, Ronen and Sadan (1976) earnings management, is the deliberate dampening of fluctuations about “some level of earnings considered to be normal for the firm”. In the words of Schipper (1989:92), “By earnings management I really mean ‘disclosure management’ in the sense of a purposeful intervention in the external financial reporting process, with a view to obtaining private gain for shareholders or managers”. Thus, simply put, earnings management is the deliberate intervention in financial reporting process to achieve personal goals. The definition is important and it encapsulates all aspects of earnings management because it acknowledges that any attempt to temper with financial reporting process in order to intentionally change its true picture is what constitute earnings management.

Healy and Wahlen (1999) define earnings management as the altering of financial statements through the use of judgement in structuring transactions to either mislead the firm’s stakeholders about the true economic picture of the firm or to achieve some contractual benefit that is based on accounting numbers. This means that earnings management is the manipulation of financial statement by managers, using accounting choices, estimates and methods, to achieve some objectives that are largely in conflict with the underlying economic status of the firm.

Various methods for the detection of earnings management have been documented. “Empirical studies have found managers engage in earnings management through changing accounting choice, real transactions, total accruals/discretionary accruals, specific accruals, earnings distributions approach and income smoothing” (Sun and Rath, 2010, p122). Of all these methods, the total accruals approach seems to be the one that has caught the attention of researchers the most. This is due to the fact that it is the most damaging to the usefulness of
accounting information because investors are wary of such accruals (Al-Fayoumi, Abuzayed and Alexander, 2010).

Different incentives to manage earnings are widely discussed in the literature. Bhat (1996), linked it to the attempt to enhance shareholders’ value and to maximize executive compensation through income smoothing and earnings management respectively. Income smoothing, occasional big bath, living for today and maximization of variability are identified by Wall and Koch (2000). Chang et al. (2008) note three incentives to manage earnings. Firstly, because of capital market motivation, which includes initial public offerings, seasoned equity offerings, management buoyant plans and plans for mergers to meet earnings forecast, to smooth earnings, etc. Secondly, contracts motivation such as management compensation, debt agreement or job security also constitute the incentive for earnings management. Thirdly, laws and regulations such as import regulation, industrial regulation, antitrust laws, e.t.c., also can serve as incentives.

Most recently, Cornett et al. (2009), note that managers use discretionary accruals for opportunistic earnings management. This includes options (the incentive for bonus income by attaining some level of performance) and affecting stock prices to enhance managers' wealth through restricted stock compensation. The use of discretion by managers to target bonus plans was first documented by Healy (1985).

2.2 Loan Loss Provisions and Earnings Management

Considerable speculation about the provision of large loan losses to influence earnings sprang in the early 1980s when it was revealed that U.S. banks provided inadequate loan losses to understate net assets and profits (Grey and Clarke 2004). Prior to that, Hepworth (1953) acknowledged that firms manage income for tax purposes, shareholders confidence and expectations that are likely to accompany the report of high earnings. But the attention on the use of discretion to manage earnings received global impetus after the Enron crises and many other similar cases that followed. The central theme among the companies that were affected both in the U.S. and other parts of the world was financial irregularities, which reiterated the need for better grasp of earnings management among practitioners, regulators and those in the academia. Previous studies have identified that loan losses is one of the major causes of these financial crises and its provision has a direct impact on firms’ cash flows and consequently the reported earnings (e.g Chang et al. 2008 and Mohammad et al. 2011).

Loan loss provision is an expense on the income statement which signifies managers’ assessment of expected future losses. This means that an increase in loan loss provision reduces net income, while a fall in loan losses increases net income. Since it is the result of managers’ assessment of the likely loss that the company would incur should the borrower fail to repay his obligations as at when due, the provision for it is considered to have two (2) portions: non-discretionary and discretionary portions. “Non-discretionary is a function of specific quality determinants in the loan portfolio- non-accrual loans, renegotiated loans, loans past due over 90 days, specific analyses on troubled large credits, usually implying internal grading system” (Grey and Clarke 2004: 323). The non-discretionary portion, therefore, is the provision that is based on fair and objective analysis of the firm’s economic conditions.

While the discretionary portion are those accruals that largely depend on the outcome of the managers’ future expectation of uncertain events (Mohammad et al. 2011). The components of it are both quantitative and qualitative. Grey and Clarke (2004: 323) point that the qualitative components include political, economic, geographical and political factors, while the quantitative are “statistical analysis of loans not individually analyzed for special reserve and therefore are largely at the discretion of managers”.

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In their review of earnings management research, Sun and Rath (2010) note that the arguments that support the use of specific accrual (e.g., loan loss provision) to detect earnings management is proffered by McNichols (2000: 126) who summarizes its advantages into two. “First, this approach enables researchers to develop intuition for the key factors that influence the behaviour of the accrual. Second, the approach can be applied in industries in which a certain type of business can result in a specific accrual being material”. He further notes that the problems attributed with measuring earnings management through specific accruals do not affect banks and insurance because some particular accruals accounts (loan loss provision in the case of banks) are very material due to the peculiar nature of the business. Therefore, since it constitutes large accruals for banks and since its provision has a significant impact on earnings, loan loss provision is an important tool for earnings management in banking sector.

The use of loan loss provision to manipulate earnings has been empirically reported in the literature. Anandrajan et al. (2006) find that banks in Australia use loan loss provisions to manage earnings. Their result suggest commercial banks engage more aggressively in the earnings management practice than unlisted commercial banks. Ma (1988) examines if loan loss provisions were used as a tool for income smoothing in banks. He concludes that together with loan charge-offs it is used reduce volatility of earnings by banks.

Rivard et al. (2003) investigate the income smoothing behaviour of banks in the U.S. under revised international capital requirement. They revised the income smoothing practice using post Basel Accord data. The evidence from the study confirms the existence of income smoothing and extends the proposition that banks have become more aggressive in using loan loss provision as a tool for earnings management.

Perez et al. (2006) explore earnings and capital management in alternative loan loss provision regulatory regimes. Using sample of Spanish banks and panel data econometric techniques, the study documents that loan loss provisioning is used as a tool for earnings management. Regarding, capital management, however, a robust relationship is not documented. They conclude that the introduction of IFRS in Europe does not prevent managers from decreasing earnings volatility. Similarly, Oosterbosch (2009) tests the effect of IFRS implementation on discretionary use of loan loss provision. Using a sample of European banks and single stage regression, evidence suggests that detailed disclosure requirements regarding loan loss accounting do not deter bank managers from using the provision for loan losses to their discretion for income smoothing.

Collins et al. (1995) investigates whether, in addition to the provision for loan losses, other tools such as loan charge-offs and securities issuances were used for earnings management. They document a positive association only between loan loss provisions and earnings management, and conclude that the other tools were used primarily for capital management. Looking at the special characteristics of those banks that engage in opportunistic accounting through the use of loan loss provisions, Greenawalt and Sinkey (1988) find that regional banks engaged in more aggressive income smoothing than money-centred banks. Bhat (1996) establishes that banks that engaged in aggressive income smoothing were in poorer financial health relative to others. However, there are other studies fail to find a robust association between loan loss provisions and earnings manipulations. They include Beatty et al. (1995) and Ahmed et al. (1999). Anandrajan et al. (2006) note that their finding of no association was surprising, since the capital adequacy regulation removed the costs of earnings management. They attribute the differences in results to difference in model specification.

For capital management and income smoothing, the use of loan loss provision has also been empirically tested. Liu and Ryan (1995) conclude that increases in loan loss provisions are good
news only for banks that the market perceives to have loan default problems; if prognosis is
already good, no significant stock market reaction occurs. Beaver and Engel (1996) document
that increases in the discretionary component of loan loss provision are viewed as good news
items. Also, Moyer (1990) find that banks used provisions for loan losses by inflating loan loss
reserves when capital levels were close to violating minimum capital regulations. However, they
did not find significant association with other tools, such as charge-offs.

In another context, Bushman and Williams (2011) examine the triangular relationship between
accounting discretion, loan loss provision and discipline of banks’ risk-taking. Their sample
consists of large banks from 27 countries. They find, among other things, that discretionary
 provisioning in the form of earnings smoothing dampens disciplinary pressure on risk-taking,
consistent with the assumption that smoothing reduces bank transparency and inhibits
monitoring by outsiders.

From the above discussion, it is evident that the use of loan loss provision to manipulate
financial reports has gained the attention of researchers lately. Although, these evidences are
drawn from the empirical results of the developed countries, the practice of the banks
worldwide are similar. Loan loss provisions, thus constitute significant accrual that is potentially
used as a tool for earnings manipulation in the industry.

Agency theory provides natural backdrop upon which this research is based. This is because of
its relevance in proferring solution to agency problems that characterize the modern day
businesses. The theory predicts that in the presence of information asymmetry, the manager is
exposed to some privilege information regarding the firm, a situation which induces
management can arise solely as a natural byproduct of the agency relationship. It is optimal for
the principal to pick a contract which motivates to smooth the reported earnings over time.
Earnings management, therefore arises as an optimal equilibrium behavior in the agency setting.

3. Methodology and Model Specification

This work is a correlational research that attempts to link loan loss provisions with earnings
management. As the first step in establishing relationships, a correlational study measures the
association or variability of two or more variables. The population consists of all 18 DMBs
listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) as at 31st December, 2011 while the sample
consists of 8 banks whose data for the study period, which is 2007 to 2011 are available. Thus,
we have pooled panel data of 40 firm-year observations. This period is relevant as it is
considered as the height of financial crises in recent times and inadequate provisions for loan
losses has been identified as one of the factors that led to the collapse of quite a number of
corporations. The study uses secondary data only as a method of data collection while OLS
multiple regression (robust) is used as a tool for analysis. The robust regression automatically
tackles heteroskedasticity and serial correlation.

Various models have been advanced by researchers in identifying the accruals that is
discretionary in the banking sector. Most of these models largely emanate from McNichols and
Wilson (1988) who used estimated residuals of bad debts regression model as a surrogate of
discretionary accruals. This approach is known as the specific accruals method, which focuses on
specific industries such as banks and insurance firms and use knowledge of institutional
arrangements to characterize the likely nondiscretionary behaviour of accruals.

The aim of discretionary accruals models is to segment total accruals into discretionary and
nondiscretionary components. Consistent with McNichols and Wilson (1988) and Chang et al.
(2008), a cross-sectional regression of loan loss provision (as the explained variable) is run
against loans outstanding at the beginning of the year and loan charge-offs for that year (explanatory variables). The difference between the error term, on one hand and total loan loss provision, beginning balance for loan losses, on the other, will be used to estimate for the discretionary loan loss provision for each year. The result obtained will in turn be used in the second model as the dependent variable.

Loan loss provisions ($LLP$) is defined as the sum of the ending balance of allowance for bad and doubtful debts and loan charge-offs, then deducting the beginning balance of allowance for bad debts (Chang et al., 2008). The reason for the inclusion of beginning balance of total loan losses is due to the fact that it arises from past accumulations and serves as an inventory in setting the current loan loss allowance level. Mathematically, it is expressed as follows:

$$LLP = f(LCO, BBAL)$$

The intuition underlying the choice of these variables is that “in practice most bank managers decide the amount of loan loss provisions every month according to individual risk assessment on potential uncollectible loans and loans write-offs.” (Chang et al., 2008:13). Since discretionary accruals can not be observed directly, it is estimated by regressing loan loss provision on the independent variables in equation (ii). The discretionary loan loss provision is the error term which is the difference between loan loss provision, on the one hand and loan charge-offs for the year and the beginning balance of loan losses, on the other. All variables are scaled by the beginning balance of total assets to mitigate spurious size effects in the explanation of provisions. The regression equation, therefore is as follows:

$$\frac{LLP_i}{TA_{t-1}} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \frac{LCO_i}{TA_{t-1}} + \alpha_2 \frac{BBAL_i}{TA_{t-1}} + \epsilon_i$$

Where: $LLP = Loan Loss Provision for firm i at time t.$

$LCO = the Loan Charge-offs for firm i at time t.$

$BBAL = the beginning balance of LLP for firm i at time t.$

$TA = the beginning total asset of firm i at time t.$

$\epsilon = the error term$

$\alpha_0 = the intercept.$

$\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$ are parameter estimates of the variables.

Earnings management is the residual of the regression from equation (ii).

$$\left|\frac{DLLP}{TA_{t-1}}\right| = \frac{LLP_i}{TA_{t-1}} - \left[\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \frac{LCO_i}{TA_{t-1}} + \alpha_2 \frac{BBAL_i}{TA_{t-1}}\right]$$

The higher the value of the $\left|DLLP\right|$, the higher the present of earnings manipulation via loan loss provision. This research focuses on absolute $DLLP$ rather than the signed values of the accruals because the interest is on the magnitude rather than the direction of the accruals. The signed value only gives an insight into whether earnings are being managed upwards or downwards.

To test the study hypothesis, consistent with Grey and Clark (2004) and Chang et al. (2008), wmodel discretionary loan loss provision ($DLLP$) which is also referred to as earnings management as a function of loan loss provision ($LLP$), Change in non-performing loans
($\Delta NPL$) and bank size which is proxy by natural log of total asset ($\ln TA$). Both Change in non-performing loans and bank size are included in the model as control variables.

$$D LLP = f( LL P, \Delta NPL, \ln TA)$$

The intuition underlying the choice of these variables is that “in practice most bank managers decide the amount of loan loss provisions every month according to individual risk assessment on potential uncollectible loans and loans write-offs.” (Chang et al., 2008:13). In order to mitigate the possibility of spurious data that may result if the discretionary accruals is taken in its raw form, the study uses lagged total assets to scale all the variables. This approach is consistent with Sarkar, Sarkar and Sen (2006) and Al-Fayoumi et al. (2010). The model of the study is therefore specified as follows:

$$D LLP_{it} = a_0 + a_1 LL P_{it} + a_2 \Delta NPL_{it} + a_3 \ln TA_{it} + \epsilon_{it}$$

4. Result and Discussion

In this section, the study results are presented and discussed. A set of descriptive statistics are first presented, then followed by the regression result.

4.1 Table 1: Summary of Descriptive Statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D LLP</th>
<th>LL P</th>
<th>$\Delta NPL$</th>
<th>$\ln TA$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.0116293</td>
<td>0.008585</td>
<td>0.0265455</td>
<td>80.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>0.033437</td>
<td>0.0153452</td>
<td>0.0432047</td>
<td>65.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>-0.1795355</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00169</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>0.0957049</td>
<td>0.0793218</td>
<td>0.277709</td>
<td>27500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Output of summary statistics obtained from Stata 9

Table 1 above reveals average D LLP of 1% of total lagged asset of the sample banks with a standard deviation of .03. The minimum is -.18 while the maximum is .09. Average LLP is approximately 1%, the standard deviation is .01 and lying between 0 and 7%. $\Delta NPL$ has a mean of 3% and the standard deviation is .04 and the minimum and maximum are .01% and 27 percent respectively. $\ln TA$ averages 80.3 billion Naira revealing that Nigerian banks are large in terms of capital base. There is a wide gap across the industry regarding bank size as the minimum is 25 billion Naira while the maximum is as high as 2.75 trillion. This is reflected in the wide difference between the mean (80 billion) and the standard deviation, which is 65 billion Naira. The standard deviations of LLP and $\Delta NPL$ are relatively large which implies different level of pressure bornes by individual banks. It is worthy of note that the averages of the variables do not differ substantially from their respective standard deviations which means that the data are not skewed and are fit to produce a reliable result.

4.2 Table 2: Correlation Matrix Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D LLP</th>
<th>LL P</th>
<th>$\Delta NPL$</th>
<th>$\ln TA$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D LLP</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LL P</td>
<td>0.3628</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta NPL$</td>
<td>-0.2648</td>
<td>0.2794</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\ln TA$</td>
<td>0.7645</td>
<td>0.0653</td>
<td>-0.7521</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Output of Correlation Matrix obtained from Stata 9.
Correlation matrix shows the relationship between explanatory variables and explained variable and also the relationship among the individual variables themselves. The result indicates that apart from $\Delta NPL$, all independent variables revealed a positive interaction with the dependent variable. This is enough to infer that variables are well selected and they explain the dependent variable strongly. The result calls for a verification as to whether only $LLP$ and $lnTA$ impact on $DLLP$ in Nigerian DMBs by regressing only the variables on the regressor. However, the result shows a lower R-square Adjusted suggesting that the extent to which the two variables together explain the dependent variables is more than when they are taken separately. The result is not shown for brevity.

The correlation matrix is an alternative test for multicollinearity. Gujarati (2004) notes that correlation above 0.8 between variables is a concern as it indicates excessive correlation. From the correlation table, the results reveal only a mild correlation among the independent variables which indicates that the model performs well.

### 4.3 Table 3: Regression Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>.0427109</td>
<td>.0480161</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>.0379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$LLP$</td>
<td>.8478068</td>
<td>.142384</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta NPL$</td>
<td>-.1889831</td>
<td>.0765496</td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$lnTA$</td>
<td>.4152929</td>
<td>.0605093</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adj.R-Square</td>
<td>0.8609</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>47.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prob. of F</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Regression output from Stata 9

Table 3 above reveals that there is a positive relationship between $DLLP$ and $LLP$ having coefficient of 0.84 with a t-value of 5.95 and significant at 1% indicating. This implies that 1% increase in $LLP$ leads to 8% increase in earnings management. The result indicates that banks plan to maintain almost the same percentage of $LLP$ during the sample period. $\Delta NPL$ and $DLLP$ exhibit an inverse interaction which is significant at 5% and having coefficient of -0.18 and t-value of -2.47 which signifies 1% increase in the $\Delta NPL$ results to a fall in earnings management by 2%. The result also reveals a positive relationship between $DLLP$ and $lnTA$ having a coefficient of 0.41 and a t-value of 6.86 and significant at 1% implying that 1% rise in bank size results in rise of earnings management by 4%.

From the results, the positive association between earnings management ($DLLP$) and $LLP$ suggests that banks increase provision for loan losses to manage (smooth earnings). However this management is not indicated whether upward or downward (income-increasing or income-decreasing) because the study adopts the absolute $DLLP$ rather than the signed values. Also, the positive relationship between earnings management and $\Delta NPL$ suggests that as the amount of non-performing loan increases, bank managers may increase the provision for loan losses in order to reduce the ratio of non-performing loans. The result of this study is in line with the findings of Collins et al. (1995), Greenwalt and Sinkey (1988), Bhat (1996), Rivard et al. (2003) and Chang et al. (2008). While it contradicts the findings of Moyer (1990), Beatty et al. (1995) Ahmed et al. (1999) and Anandrajan et al. (2006). Conclusively, it is documented in this study that bank managers intend to use discretionary loan loss provisions to influence reported earnings when they have high loan loss provisions or high non-performing loans. Thus, the earlier conjecture that there is no relationship between loan loss provision and earnings management in Nigerian DMBs is rejected.
The control variable positively relates with earnings management. This opposes the view that because large banks have more resources than their smaller counterparts they are more likely to avoid the use of loan loss provision to manipulate reported earnings. On the contrary, perhaps because of the pressure exerted on large banks by their stakeholders, banks have incentive to manage earnings to please their complex stakeholders.

Overall, the aggregate influence of the explanatory variables included in the model are able to explain \( DLLP \) up to 86% which is indicated by R-square (overall), while the remaining 14% are controlled by other factors that are not included in the model. The F-Statistics of 47.08 and significant at better than 1% shows that the model is well fitted and therefore provides substantial evidence that loan loss provision is positively related with earnings management in DMBs in Nigeria.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

The purpose of loan loss provisions is to adjust banks’ loan loss reserves to reflect expected future losses on their loan portfolios. Bank managers have an incentive to smooth earnings through the discretionary part of the allowance for loan losses because less volatility in earnings is a fundamental foundation for stable stock prices. The manipulation of earnings is made possible by the existence of information asymmetry provided by the agency relationship that exists between managers and shareholders of modern day corporations. Empirical studies that explored the realtionship between loan loss provisions and manipulation of earnings in Nigeria is almost non-existent thus it is not known with certainty whether the theoretical insinuation that bank managers use the provision for loan losses to manage earnings holds water. In this study, it is documented that earnings management is positively related with loan loss provision in DMBs in Nigeria. It is therefore recommended that regulatory authorities such as CBN and SEC should place a provision ceiling regarding loan loss allowance in order to curb managerial discretion in accounting for loan losses.

References


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ENTREPRENEURIAL CHARACTERISTICS OF STRATEGIC DECISION-MAKING
AND THE DIFFERENCE FROM MANAGERS

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ABSTRACT

Whenever factors are different for entrepreneurs than they are for managers, entrepreneurs seem have more abilities and skills which are useful in the strategic decision-making process. Managers are solely in favor when it comes to the high extent of centralization and formation of the organization, which is good for the ease of information gathering. Whether the importance of these structural determinants should not be underestimated, entrepreneurs are beneficial in more situations, due to their personalities. The most important entrepreneurial traits are their cognitive complexity, their tolerance for risk and their ability for opportunity recognizing. Comparing their traits to the factors of importance in strategic decision-making, it seems that entrepreneurs have better skills and traits to consciously or subconsciously commit to the strategic decision-making process in a way that is more successful than it is when it comes to managers.

Key Words: Entrepreneurs, Entrepreneurial Characteristics, Strategic Decision-Making, managers

INTRODUCTION

Decision making is becoming more vital to the everyday function of the organization. Decisions from immediate short-term to future long-term are to be made within the increasingly complex organizational structures. “(Akdere & Altman, 2009) Determinants of influence can be categorized into personal, structural and environmental characteristics (Wally & Baum, 1994) of the individual(s) and organization involved. Literature on this topic will be used to give an overview of the general strategic decision-making within organizations.

The aim of this paper, it to analyze the distinctions between entrepreneurs and existing organizational mangers (from now on referred to as managers) in the field of decision making. But how does this business environment differ from a non-entrepreneurial environment? What is it about the entrepreneurial individuals and their management style that makes them operate in a whole different way and what is it exactly that defines the way they work? In this thesis it will be tested how entrepreneurs experience cases of strategic decision making for themselves, and the organization in which they are involved. It can be questioned why and how this process is different for entrepreneurs than for managers. The above leads to the following main question: “Which are
the entrepreneurial characteristics of strategic decision-making and how does this differ from managers?"

THE CONCEPT OF STRATEGIC DECISION-MAKING

In organizations, strategic decision making is of substantial importance as a part of other strategic processes. This importance emerges from the fundamental role it plays in directing the firm’s course. This is why many attempts have been made in tackling the process of decision making (Eisenhardt & Zbaracki, 1992).

“Most theories concerning the decision-making process gravitate around a model of decision-making that consists of three components: the environment, the specific characteristics of the decision to be taken (organizational) and the executive him- or herself (personal)” (Vermeulen & Curşeu, 2008).

Steps in the Decision-making Process

Executives within organizations are faced with numerous decisions that have to be made each day. Whether it happens consciously or not, they are passing through a number of stages while making these decisions. “Decision-making is a multistage and multicriteria process (Hall and Hofer, 1993), which is non-linear and recursive” (Vermeulen and Curşeu, 2008).

This means executives move along the stages, trying to delineate all possible criteria that have to be met for the final choice to be successful, and moving between different choice alternatives.

Literature provides a few significant stages, and shows that they all come down to the same distinction. Eisenhardt & Zbaracki (1992) found evidence for decisions to pass through the key stages of problem identification, development and selection, the speed of which is dependent on organizational and environmental factors of the decision itself, or the persons by whom the decision is made.

Wally & Baum (1994) refer to the findings of March & Simon (1958) who conceptualize this process into three stages: intelligence activity, design activity and choice activity. They will be discussed below.

“Intelligence activity is environmental scanning that involves gathering and process information. This information gathering provides cues for recognizing potential decision situations and formulating alternatives.” Design activity as a part of the process is about assessing the potential decisions and evaluating other alternatives that could be used to satisfy the need of the organization. Eventually this stage will define the possible outcomes of the most potential decisions.

In the last stage of the decision-making process, choice activity, the potential decisions and their outcomes are analyzed again, and the best option will be chosen. At this point, a decision has been made.

Vermeulen and Curşeu (2008), however, utilize a model which shows the same stages in the decision-making process as those referred to by Wally & Baum (1994), but specifies each three of them further. Their findings are listed below.

Recognition
Recognizing the moment that needs a decision, is the responsibility of the decision-maker. Him or her will detect a situation which is not satisfying enough or which shows some weakness in the organization or environment of that decision-maker. The beginning of the process of decision-making starts right here, with the need for a decision. This recognition is dependent on the way the executive gathers and processes the information in his head and by his environment.

Formulation

The first step of recognition is not sufficient to create the ability for a successful decision to be made. The formulation, or problem definition is just as, if not, more important. In this step it is up to the executive to determine all variables of interest, which means he decides exactly what his decision-making process is going to look like, including all resources needed.

The writers refer to Noorderhaven (1995), who states that the formulation of the scope is of great importance here. It should not be defined too broad, nor should it be defined too narrowly, in order to make sure all variables are exclusive and exhaustive. “Exactly how problems or strategic issues are formulated partly depends on the origin and background of the person who identified them in the first place” (Vermeulen and Curşeu, 2008).

Search

The second stage of the decision-making process is the search step. This step is all about finding alternative solutions, which is a hierarchical process. Cyert and March (1963) argue that this step, or stage, begins in a pre-specified area, depending on the nature of the problem, with familiar sources. Some problems can be simple, while others can be rather complex. Of course these more complicated problems are in the need for more resources and a more active way of searching for new and better solutions (Noorderhaven, 1995). “If ready-made solutions cannot be found, the decision-maker is likely to engage in design activities that will lead to custom-made solutions (Mintzberg, et al., 1976). Following from that, different final choices can be categorized as: ready-made (normal process), modified (Specified to a particular situation) or custom-made (decision-maker creates alternatives).

Evaluate

Once the alternatives have been defined, the decision maker now compares all positive and negative characteristics of each alternative found, in order to see which one of them meets all pre-specified criteria for the best final decision. “A great number of factors have to be observed, most of them ‘soft’ or non-quantitative. This is how elements of bounded rationality intervene in the decision-making process.” (Vermeulen and Curşeu, 2008). In most cases, evaluating is a sequential process, where alternatives are evaluated one by one.

According to Noorderhaven (1995) there are two ways of doing this: compensatory and no compensatory. In compensatory evaluation, characteristics of the alternative are ranked and form an overall score, where a bad notation can compensate for a good notation. In no compensatory evaluation, each feature of the alternative has to be good to a specified extent. Whatever way is used by the decision-maker, the chances are great that he is doing this without being aware of it.

Choice
In an attempt to define the stage of choice in the decision-making process, the writers refer to Mintzberg et al. (1976) who formulate three different kinds of choice making: judgement, bargaining and analysis. Judgement is a way of selecting an alternative without being able to explain why. Bargaining is the discussion about the right choice within a group of decision makers. Analysis is a factual evaluation, mixed with managerial choice. Mintzberg argues that the most present choice mode is judgement, because it is the most practical one.

Choosing the right alternative is also about a choice which feels good.

**Implementation**

When the decision maker had passed through the stages described previously, the implementation phase might be the most important one, at least it has the most impact on the organization, and the executive has to be committed to finalizing the process in the best way he can. This step seems to be mainly about the enlargement of acceptance within the organization and its stakeholders.

### 2.2 Personal Determinants

According to Hitt & Tyler (1991), in strategic decision-making there are some potential effects that executives themselves can have on the decision that is made. “The decisions depend on prior processes of human perception and evaluation” (Child, 1972).

Following from various researchers, Hitt & Tyler (1991) distinguished the main factors of personal influence, derived from the three categories: cognitive style, demographic factors and personality traits.

**Age**

According to Hitt & Tyler (1991), the risk perception of executives is largely dependent on their age. Younger managers are likely to make more risky decisions, and they also have a different value perception. Unlike older managers, and especially in the area of the growth of the organization and the appreciation of managerial talent, younger managers are very likely to perceive less, and so take more risk.

**Educational background**

Hitt & Tyler (1991) discuss the importance of the educational background of executives.

Reviewing several researchers, he speculates that specialization and focus is supported by a higher level of education that one has aimed to reach, and it causes executives to have more cognitive complexity, thereby affecting the strategic choices made.

**Experience**

According to Hitt & Tyler (1991) executives’ work experience affects the process of strategic decision-making. ‘Both the amount and the type of work experience are important’.

Executives tend to have experience in more than one field, which makes them have a large decision-making ‘portfolio’. The type of experience is what creates the cognitive complexity, owned by these
executives. So, the combination of both, may lead to strategic choices being affected. This could imply that choices are being made more speedily and more effortlessly.

Fredrickson (1985) found that managers who have made decisions repeatedly in former working experience are better capable of finding a right model to use while passing through the different stages of the decision-making process. Because of their experiences in the past, they have been able to practice and even subconsciously develop a method to work through it effectively. This is unlike inexperienced managers who “do not have the benefits based on outcomes of multiple past decisions.” Using the theorem about the stages of the process as defined above, it could be argued that experienced managers find themselves more in a sequential process, while inexperienced managers are anarchic decision makers.

According to Hitt & Tyler (1991) literature has also shown the implication that choices of strategy might also be influenced by the type of experience. While most researchers have made attempts to find a distinction between different types of functions to explain the difference in strategic decision making, he argues that the variability of these functions is in fact the most critical factor. A combination of managers’ past functions is likely to create the capability of cognitive skills for decision-making.

Level of executive

The level of executive is relevant for two reasons. The first one is the availability of information, which is different in various layers of the organization. Top executives who are placed directly below the CEO, or who are the CEO, have greater information availability than others, and are therefore able to evaluate more alternatives. Compensation is the second factor of interest in this section. Hitt (1991) refer to his findings in 1989, when he found that “differences in incentive compensation affected the criteria executives used to make strategic decisions”.

Cognitive complexity

Assumed by Hitt & Tyler (1991) is the minimum amount of cognitive complexity owned by top executives. The broad range of situations and problems they are dealing with implicates a certain level of cognitive thinking. His main conclusion on this topic is the way executives see of uncertainty as an influence on their performance. Depending on that, is the way information is being processed.

Risk orientation

There are various levels of risk orientation. In the decision-making process, executives with a high tolerance for risk could choose alternatives with uncertain outcomes. This also means the criteria that are used in the evaluating process, may be affected.

2.3 Environmental Dimension

Following from their findings on the organizational dimension of the decision-making process, Vermeulen and Curgiu (2008) propose that “successful decision-making requires an accurate understanding of the environment in which that decision will be played out.” The environment of the organization contains for example the stakeholders, consumers or competition. All these factors will influence company performance, being either an opportunity or a threat. They argue that each organization has to align its actions with these environmental factors. Of course, these factors
cannot always be predicted, and a high level of uncertainty is present. This is where the risk tolerance becomes of interest again, which is involved in most decisions.

2.4 Structural Determinants

Knowing what stages are involved in a general decision-making process, the next step will be to analyze the determinants that are of interest when passing through these stages. Structural determinants are firm characteristics that pressure or help decisions to be made. Besides the personal characteristics, it is largely dependent on these structural determinants how speedily the process will evolve. Wally & Baum (1994) have divided the structural determinants into centralization, formalization, and size. The last determinant is industry effects, capturing the environmental influence, which is also involved and of great importance in strategic decision-making. Research of Eisenhardt & Zbaracki (1992) also includes this occurrence of and the difference in the process of decision making because of changing problems, opportunities, choices and people.

Centralization

According to Wally & Baum (1994) centralization is about the extent to which authority and information is concentrated. In organizations where authority is central, fewer people will be involved in processes of decision-making and the process is more likely to be faster in the design activity stage and the choice activity stage because the time of information sharing is much less and especially because little conflict is involved. According to Eisenhardt (1989), the process is likely to speed up in the environment of autocratic decision makers because of the fact that they rely less on consultation. In centralized firms, executives are likely to have obtained all necessary information on alternatives, which allows the design stage of the process to elapse faster.

Formalization

Formalization is about the routines that are explicitly made clear by the organization, mostly written. Every procedure and every policy existing within the firm is included in this formalizing process. The absence of formalization is expected to have a negative impact on the speeding up of the decision-making process, because of inertia (Wally & Baum, 1994). When an organization has clear routines, it is more likely for decision processes to become routine as well.

Size

Wally & Baum (1994) refer to Pugh (1968) according to whom formalization and centralization within organizations are likely to be present to a higher extent, if the size of the firm is bigger. If this is the case, complexity within the firm has a larger shape. Although centralization and formalization are described to be factors which are likely to speed up the decision-making process, complexity is not.

Industry Effects

The aim of most companies is to make fast decisions. Especially when they are operating in an industry that is rapidly changing in the area of, for example, customer preferences. This is why these industry effects to a large extent influence the decision-making process of organizations.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP
According to Miller (1983), entrepreneurship can be defined as the process by which organizations renew themselves and their markets by pioneering, innovation and risk taking.

Although literature seems to divide the determinants of entrepreneurship in the three categories of personality factors, the role played by the structure of the organization, and the importance of strategy making, argued still, is the role of the individual entrepreneur and the extent to which he is responsible for entrepreneurship within the organization (Miller, 1983).

The aim of this chapter is to describe the entrepreneurial characteristics of the individual, and to show what effect this has on entrepreneurship within the organization. This chapter will discuss this aspect of entrepreneurship on an individual level. Because the managerial characteristics are of more importance in simple firms (Miller, 1983), this thesis will focus primarily on Small- and Medium sized Enterprises.

**Entrepreneurial Traits**

Most literature seems to agree on the most significant psychological traits that are owned by entrepreneurs. In this section, a distinction is made between the traits that were defined by Sexton and Bowman (1985) and the traits that have been made explicit by Vermeulen and Curşeu (2008), based on several researchers’ work. According to Sexton and Bowman (1985), entrepreneurs have the following traits: moderate risk-taking propensity, ability to tolerate ambiguity, an internal locus of control, high need for autonomy, dominance, independence and self-esteem, and a low need for conformity and support. In this section, these characteristics are explained. Vermeulen and Curşeu (2008) take a view that is not only present within the organisation, but in the psychological life of the entrepreneur.

**A Model on an Organizational Level**

In literature, there are various models which attempt to clarify the typical entrepreneurial traits. Sexton and Bowman (1985) use a model which shows the traits in an organizational context. Below these traits are being discussed, referring to Sexton and Bowman (1985).

**Risk-taking Propensity**

It might be the most important trait of entrepreneurs, that they have a different risk perception than other persons. Or at least, their characters are less risk avoiding. This has been shown in different studies and shows significant features in the process of decision-making.

Dealing with uncertainty successfully, is likely to improve overall performance. Hitt et al. (2003) refer to Alvarez & Barney (2002) who state that ‘the entrepreneurially minded can identify and exploit new opportunities because they have cognitive abilities that allow them to impart meaning to ambiguous and fragmented situations’.

**Ability to Tolerate Ambiguity**

Entrepreneurs seem to have a different cognitive structure than managers when it comes to their tolerance towards ambiguous situations. Ambiguity can be perceived very different by different persons or executives. On one hand it can be undesirable, because it means uncertainty and less available information. On the other hand it is seen as a challenge, which is the case for
entrepreneurs. Their tolerance towards uncertainty is greater and therefore, they do not hesitate to find all the adequate environmental information needed in their problem-solving.

**Internal Locus of Control**

Locus of control is an indicator for the way persons allocate events in their past to be within their circle of control, or outside this circle, both referred to as internal or external focused. Sexton & Bowman (1985) propose that entrepreneurs are more internally orientated. The second factor of interest when it comes to the focus of control is that entrepreneurs seem to be always seeking to reduce uncertainty by gathering all the information necessary for their problems or actions. Their control is therefore bigger, and outcomes are usually better than managers’ outcomes.

**Need for autonomy, Dominance, Independence and Self-esteem**

Traits that are typical for entrepreneurs are the need for autonomy, which is indicating self reliance and independence, dominance, independence and self-esteem. The research of Sexton & Bowman (1985) showed evidence on the significant features of differences between entrepreneurial students and other students. The entrepreneurs were in the possession of these traits to a much higher extent than the non-entrepreneurs.

**Low Need for Conformity and Support**

Probably resulting from their independence and self-esteem, entrepreneurs do not need as much conformation and support as any other managers.

**A Model on a Psychological Level**

In the previous section, traits have been discussed, which are visible in the organization to a high extent. But what about a more personal approach? Listed below are the psychological traits that were summed up by Vermeulen and Curşeu (2008) to be the most important traits for the character of an entrepreneur. The traits which separate them from other managers:

**The Need for Achievement**

Several researchers have proposed the distinction about positive “pull” factors and negative “push” factors which determine the way new business is likely to have been set up. The push factors tend to have a more negative effect on the entrepreneur starting the business. An example of these push factors is frustration. The writers also name the achievement for motivation to be a factor with significant importance. It is an entrepreneurial trait that is about openness to a challenge and the risk that comes along with that challenge.

**Desire to be Independent and to have Control over Situations**

Just like Sexton and Bowman (1985), the writers have approached this trait to be of great value. They propose that the typical adventure and risk seeking trait of the entrepreneur can be explained by their need for autonomy and independence.

**Individualism**
Following from the previous trait, individualism is a typical entrepreneurial trait. The writers here refer to Sexton and Bowman (1985), just as was described above. They argue that, because of their need for autonomy and dominance, entrepreneurs feel little need for conformity and support. Their motivation also leads to the aim of achieving individual results which can be ascribed to them.

*Locus of Control*

Locus of control is a way to describe how people feel about determining their own destiny and whether they feel they have control over it. “Internals” are people who ascribe a lot of events to be the result of their own actions. “Externals” are people who ascribe these events to other environmental factors. According to Vermeulen & Curşeu (2008) an entrepreneur is an internal. It has to be said that this locus of control is relevant for the bigger thinking like controlling situations. But when it comes to the mindset that of entrepreneurs is not controlled. At least for a great part, it operates automatic. Baron (2007) indicates that ‘automatic processing’ is based on intuition and it seems to be more fast and effortless in practice. This last fact however, does not mean that entrepreneurs do not end up having all the control needed, which is likely to be the case.

*Ability to Focus and Pursue a Goal*

Vermeulen and Curşeu (2008) state that there are stimuli which define the ability to focus on one specific task and that this is what determines the reaction of the entrepreneur to react, and to be highly motivated for high performance. According to Hitt et al. (2003), entrepreneurs focus on new goals to obtain competitive advantage. Unlike managers who set goals too, focus is more on innovation than it is on optimizing current conditions, because focusing on things that meet more and growing customer demands, creates a better and more stable market position.

**ENTREPRENEURIAL STRATEGIC DECISION-MAKING**

‘Recognizing a moment that needs a decision is the responsibility of the decision-maker. He or she will detect a situation which is not satisfying enough or which shows some weakness in the organization or environment of that decision-maker.’ The concept of decision making explain the aim of decision-making with the stage of recognition, as stated above, this is all about improving the current situation. Right here, in the beginning of the strategic decision-making process, the relevance of entrepreneurship becomes clear, opportunity recognition being one of the most substantial traits of the entrepreneur. It is here, right from the start on, where entrepreneurial decision-making differs from decision making by managers.

**The Entrepreneur and the Organizational Dimension**

As a part of the organizational dimension, each stage of the decision-making process needs personal characteristics in order to complete them successfully. These characteristics have been defined. The organizational dimension of the strategic decision-making process consists of three stages: intelligence activity, design activity and choice activity (March & Simon, 1958). For the intelligence activity, information processing and gathering is very important (Wally & Baum, 1994). Thus, the executive performing the stage should have the ability to efficiently acquire and handle the information needed to sum up all possible alternatives in a later stage. As it has become clear entrepreneurs, in spite of their locus of control, tend to reduce uncertainty by gathering all the information available. Furthermore, they are linked closely to the CEO within the organization which
means they have access to the information needed. The way the information is being processed is dependent on cognitive complexity. As stated before, it is the entrepreneurs who have greater cognitive complexity. It is cognitive complexity too, which results in a successful design activity stage. Here, the need for evaluating all the alternatives is of significant importance. Because of cognitive complexity, entrepreneurs are very good evaluators.

In the choice activity stage, in order to successfully end the decision-making process, an executive needs to have good judgment and cognitive complexity. Entrepreneurs, who seem to have both, are especially successful in this last stage because of the amount of cognitive constructs, which allows them to see more opportunities in decisions. Besides that, entrepreneurs are less risk-avoiding than managers, which is why they will be able to make any decision faster and more effortless.

Concluded from the previous section can be that it is the cognitive complexity and the risk taking propensity of entrepreneurs which shows significant difference in the process of decision-making from managers. Success in this process is likely to be good, if not better than managers, for entrepreneurs, because of their skills in information gathering and evaluating. The speed and the effort is less with the entrepreneur because of his ability to handle uncertainty or to reduce it with the skills as named above.

**The Entrepreneur and the Personal Dimension**

As a part of decision-making, personal traits and factors have been defined (Hitt & Tyler, 1991), which can speed up the decision-making process or make it more successful. Can the entrepreneur ascribe these to himself? Below, linkages between the best personal factors for decision-making and the traits owned by entrepreneurs are shown.

**Age.** Younger executives have more risk-taking propensity, which is good for decision-making. (Hitt & Tyler, 1991) There is no reason to assume that there are younger entrepreneurs than there are younger managers, so there is no substantial difference between the two.

**Educational background.** Because a higher level of education provides more innovativeness and overall performance, it is likely to assume that it is good for successfully passing through the stages of decision-making (Hitt & Tyler, 1991). But, in this stage, there again is no difference between entrepreneurs and managers.

**Experience.** Overall work-experience leads to the ability of effectively make decisions again. Top executives tend to have a lot of experience. It is likely to assume that because of the responsibilities they face in their current function areas (Fredrickson, 1985; Hitt & Tyler, 1991). Normally, this experience would cause executives to make better decisions. Shepherd, Zacharakis and Baron (2002) however, state that there is a danger for entrepreneurs who tend to make shortcuts by over generalizing in the process because of their experience and confidence. These shortcuts could make them do the same thing as executives without this experience and could lead to serious mistakes. On the other hand they propose, experience provides an insight on relationships between certain variables of interest, creating the ability to gain insight on the process more speedily.

**Level of executive.** Being close to the CEO, or being the CEO himself, means availability of and access to information needed (Hitt & Tyler, 1991). Concluded can be that both entrepreneurs and managers can be at this same level. Entrepreneurs, however, have the tendency to scan the
environment somewhat better, feeling the need to reduce their uncertainty as explained above. This could mean that although the access is the same for both groups, entrepreneurs could obtain more information because of them pressuring the situation.

Two personality factors that are in fact different for entrepreneurs and managers are cognitive complexity and risk orientation. Researchers have stated that entrepreneurs have greater cognitive complexity and more cognitive constructs, which make them, recognize and handle situations differently from managers (Hitt & Tyler, 1991; Vermeulen & Curșeu, 2008). Together with their tolerance for risk, this implies that entrepreneurs can handle decision making situations better than managers, because of the little amount of effort and time they need. Both of them resulting from cognitive complexity and the low perception of risk.

However, entrepreneurs’ risk orientation can also cause them to choose uncertain alternatives as the best outcome for the decision to be made. It depends on their intuition and experience whether this outcome has a chance of being successful. This section has shown that there is not a real difference between entrepreneurs and managers having the personality factors needed for a good decision-making process, in the field of demographic factors (age and educational background) and of personality traits (experience and level of executive). The difference, however, does become clear while reviewing the cognitive styles of both groups. Cognitive complexity is present more at entrepreneurial personalities and so entrepreneurs will have a better chance at good performance (in the decision-making process). Entrepreneurs also have a higher tolerance for risk and uncertainty. However, this last factor can be either positive or negative. It is positive because of the ease with which entrepreneurs complete the process, but negative because outcomes of their actions are not as sure as they are when being made by managers.

The Entrepreneur and the Environmental Dimension

The environmental dimension is all about being aware of the changes in the environment surrounding you. This includes competition, but also growing or changing customer demands (Vermeulen & Curșeu, 2008). The seeking and recognition of opportunities and threats are the starting point of every strategic decision-making process and it is here where entrepreneurs distinct themselves from managers the most. Hitt et al. (2003) propose that managers are looking for ways to improve their current situation, but are less able to identify new opportunities. According to them even, ‘discovering and exploiting profitable opportunities is the foundation for wealth creation through entrepreneurship’. They also agree on viewpoints that state opportunity recognition to be the heart of entrepreneurship..

The Entrepreneur and the Structural Dimension

The structural dimension of strategic decision-making is about the structure of the firm, and the way it influences the decision-making process. There are four factors, which can speed up the process for executives: centralization of the firm, formalization of the firm, size of the firm and industry effects (Wally & Baum, 1994).

Can a difference between entrepreneurs and managers be detected?

Central authority in highly centralized firms speeds up the process, but is the same for entrepreneurs as for managers. This goes for formalization of the firm too. It is size and industry effects where their
ways separate. Because entrepreneurs are more present in small and medium sized companies, they are likely to have less centralization and formalization present in their firm. Managers will more easily make use of the benefits that these factors bring along in bigger firms. Industry effects, however, gives entrepreneurs an advantage because of their opportunity recognizing style and their risk tolerance. Entrepreneurs are able to have a better understanding of what is needed to stabilize their position in a changing environment. The factors above imply that the structural dimension offers chances as well as threats for both entrepreneurs and managers so none of them has an advantage over the other.

CONCLUSIONS

Comparing the significant factors needed for successful decision-making to entrepreneurs and managers has shown that there are fields with no difference between the two, fields where managers benefit more from their skills or surroundings, and fields where entrepreneurs have more ability to successfully complete the process. This paper has shown that, whenever factors are different for entrepreneurs than they are for managers, entrepreneurs seem to have more abilities and skills which are needed. Managers are solely in favor when it comes to centralization and formation of the organization. Whether the importance of these structural determinants should not be underestimated, entrepreneurs are beneficial in more situations, due to their personalities. Besides that, centralization and formalization of the firm only benefits managers in the field of information gathering and processing, something that entrepreneurs are very good at already. So if managers would have an advantage in this field, entrepreneurs still seem to be better capable to handle decision-making situations because of several traits. The most important traits are their cognitive complexity, their tolerance for risk and their ability for opportunity recognizing.

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MOTHERS’ HEALTH SEEKING BEHAVIOUR AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC DIFFERENTIALS: A FACTOR ANALYSIS OF FULL CHILDHOOD IMMUNIZATION IN SOUTH-WESTERN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT

As many countries have achieved 85% full immunization coverage with a sharp drop in the incidence of six major diseases, the situation in many other country still call for concern. In Nigeria, the situation over the years has not improved and thereby suggesting that this indicator may not have been responding to prior policy and technical interventions. Globally, mothers play a major role in determining the health of their children. Thus, the influence of mothers’ health seeking behaviour and their socio-economic differentials on childhood immunization status was examined. Data on 4,519 women aged 15-49 years that have had at least a child within the last five years were extracted from the 2008 NDHS kids-recode dataset for this study. Primary data were obtained through twelve (12) in-depth interviews (IDIs) of women of childbearing age who have had at least a child within the last five years. The study found that 36.2% of the mothers did not receive any antenatal care, 6.9% received antenatal care at home, and 30.0% of the mothers delivered their last birth at home as 63.2% did not receive any postnatal care. Overall, only 36.5% of children aged 12-23 months were fully immunized, 51.0% received partial vaccination while 12.5% did not receive any vaccine. The study revealed that mothers’ place of antenatal care ($\chi^2 = 22.98$, $p<0.05$) and place of delivery ($\chi^2 = 55.38$, $p<0.05$) significantly influence childhood vaccination status. Also, mothers’ socio-economic differentials: level of education ($\chi^2 = 89.61$, $p<0.05$); type of occupation ($\chi^2 = 35.02$, $p < 0.05$); place of residence ($\chi^2 = 76.64$, $p < 0.05$); and wealth quintile ($\chi^2 = 89.23$, $p < 0.05$) significantly predict childhood vaccination status. The study concluded that mothers’ health seeking behaviour and their socio-economic status must be improved in order to achieve 85% full childhood vaccination coverage in South-western Nigeria.

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Studies in Africa have shown that about 3 million children in developing countries still die and many more are crippled, blinded, or otherwise disabled from six major diseases that are preventable through immunization (WHO/UNICEF, 2010). These six diseases are: measles, pertussis (whooping cough), tetanus, polio, tuberculosis, and diphtheria. Meanwhile,
for all these six diseases, vaccines and the means to provide them are readily available, relatively inexpensive, and of proven effectiveness in saving lives. Globally, evidences from studies have shown that of all the child survival interventions, the greatest gains have been achieved in immunization (WHO, 2009). At the beginning of the 1980s, immunization coverage against the six target diseases was about 20 percent. During the past decade many programs have expanded coverage greatly and some countries have now reached over 70 percent coverage while the reported incidence of these diseases has dropped sharply in some countries (C.D.C, 2006; 2009).

However, despite the successes in some countries, coverage levels in many other countries remain low. Coverage averages below 40 percent in some A.I.D. assisted countries which includes many of the world's poorest nations with the least developed health systems (A.I.D., 2010). In Nigeria, despite the effort to increase full childhood vaccination coverage, the situation over the years has not improved. For instance, the 1999 NDHS found that full immunisation coverage had dropped to 17 percent from 30 percent in 1990 (NPC & ORC Macro, 2004), with a marked decline in the northern parts of the country (in 1999, coverage was 7.5 percent in the north east and 4.3 percent in the North West).

Currently, Nigeria is among the ten countries in the world with vaccine coverage rates below 50 percent (WHO, 2010), having been persistently below 40 percent since 1997 (WHO, 2003). Efforts to prevent these childhood diseases dated back as far as 1979 when the Federal Government established the Expanded Programme on Immunisation (EPI) in 1979. In 1997 this programme was renamed the National Programme on Immunisation (NPI) and was charged with the responsibility of effectively controlling, through immunisation and provision of vaccines, preventable diseases by the end of 2005 and 2015 as target years (NPI, 2000). The realization of these goals faced many setbacks as more than half of the children aged 12-23 months in 2004 were not vaccinated and the ratio of unimmunised children against each of the diseases was inconsistent (Onwu, 2004). Nigeria operates the immunization schedule of the Expanded Programme on Immunization which prescribes five visits to receive one dose of Bacille Calmette Guerin (BCG), four doses of oral polio vaccine, three doses of diphtheria, pertussis and tetanus vaccine, three doses of hepatitis B at birth, at six weeks of age, and at 14 weeks of age and measles vaccine at nine months of age ((Federal Ministry of Health, 1995; World Health Organization, 2005). The standard measure of vaccination coverage is the percentage of children who have received the requisite number of vaccine doses irrespective of the age at receipt of the vaccine (Luman et al., 2005). However, for maximum protection against vaccine-preventable diseases, a child should receive all immunizations within recommended intervals (Glauber, 2003). Receipt of vaccines at recommended ages and intervals ensures that the child is adequately protected from target diseases at all times.

To ensure the adequate receipt of the recommended vaccines and to increase the vaccination coverage, UNICEF in collaboration, with the Nigerian Government started supporting the implementation of an Accelerated Child Survival Development intervention (ACSD) in Nigeria in 2006. The strategy focused on the use of low cost and high impact intervention packages such as strengthening routine immunisation, Vitamin A supplementation, exclusive breastfeeding, Oral Rehydration Therapy (ORT) and the use of Insecticide Treated Nets (ITNs). These interventions are integrated at facility, community and family levels, targeting pregnant women and under-five children and accessing the hard-to-reach in order to ensure that the impact is sustainable and equitable (UNICEF, 2008). Despite all these intervention programmes, the country situation is still a matter of concern as coverage was found to be approximately 23 percent (NPC & ORC Macro, 2003; 2008), while
the report from Measure DHS press release shows that overall, 1 child out of 6 in Nigeria still
dies before reaching age five (NPC & ORC Macro, 2009).

Worldwide, and most especially in developing countries, discussion of vaccination
demand is often reduced to narrow issues of knowledge, services and education. Missing is a
deeper understanding of the mother’s health seeking behaviour that influences its acceptance,
use and effectiveness. Maternal health seeking behaviour has a huge impact not only on lives of
mothers, but also on the lives of their children. Substantial body of health seeking
behaviour work directed specifically at women typically highlights that mothers’ demand for
and utilization of maternal health services depends on numerous factors, many beyond a
woman’s direct control, including the physical accessibility of facilities to her home; direct
and indirect costs of obtaining services; provision of quality care; demonstrating cultural
sensitivity to her needs, and the availability of the needed essential drugs and vaccine
supplements (Lashman, 2006).

These service quality factors and access to the facility has limited impact when
compared with factors within mothers’ direct control (i.e. her health-seeking behaviour)
regarding her decision on modern health care utilization for antenatal care and delivery
services. The impact of their health seeking behaviour is particularly higher among pregnant
mothers as majority of them do resort to the use of traditional medical practitioners, mission
houses and spiritual healers as alternative providers of health care services during pregnancy
and childhood health care. (El-Seify, 2001; Mairiga, 2003). This was clearly reflected in the
2008 NDHS report as many mothers did not attend antenatal care; many of those that
attended delivered at home; while majority did not seek postnatal care to immunize their
children. Based on the findings from studies that mothers’ utilization of health care services
during pregnancy and delivery is a precondition that mothers will seek subsequent care after
delivery (Outavong et al. 2010), and the fact that it is the women that bear the brunt of the
responsibility in the case of immunization. It is therefore vital to examine those aspects of
their health seeking behaviour during pregnancy, delivery and after delivery as well as their
socio-economic differentials that really influence childhood immunization.

METHODOLOGY

2.1  The Study Area

This study was conducted in Southwestern Nigeria. The South West region straddles a
range of diverse climates, from the Guinea Savannah in its northern parts to the coastal
climate in the South. It has large areas of tropical rainforest. The southwest geo-political zone
comprises six states namely, Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, Osun, Ondo and Ekiti with their total
population put at 27.7 million, which is about 20% of the entire population of the country
according to the 2006 National Population Census figure (NPC, 2006). Majority of the
inhabitants of this region are Yoruba speaking people with shared religious affiliations such as
Christianity, Islam and Traditional religion. Apart from the state and local administration,
each town in the region has an Oba (king) and chiefs who manage the affairs of their subjects.
The region has the highest number of educated people in the country.

2.2  Sample Design

The Nigeria Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) kids recode dataset was used for
this study. The survey was cross-sectional. It was designed to provide specific information on
population and health indicators at the national, zonal, and state levels. Information collected
includes birth histories, in-depth demographic and socio-economic information on illnesses,
medical care, immunizations, and anthropometric details of children. The sampling frame used for the 2008 NDHS was the 2006 Population and Housing Census of the Federal Republic of Nigeria conducted in 2006, provided by the National Population Commission (NPC).

This study makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data. The 2008 NDHS collected a nationally representative data on 33,385 women age 15-49 and 15,486 men age 15-59 in the entire country. However, the target population in this study were mothers of children aged 12–23 months residing in the South-western part of Nigeria at the time of the 2008 NDHS survey. Therefore, from the sampling frame of 5,025(women interviewed in the southwest region), after excluding women who have not had at least a child within the last five years among women age 15-49 years and applying weighting factors to the sampling frame, we were left with sample size of 4,519.

Besides the household questionnaire, there are two other questionnaires used in the 2008 (NDHS). The women questionnaire for ever-married women aged 15-49 years and the men’s questionnaire for currently married men aged 15-59 years. The women questionnaire collected information on the background characteristics (Age, Education, women’s occupation, etc.), first time of antenatal visits, place of antenatal care, place of delivery, family planning method, reproductive history and fertility preferences, etc. The Men’s Questionnaire also collected much of the same information found in the Women’s Questionnaire with exception to detailed reproductive history or questions on maternal and child health or nutrition (NPC & ORC Macro, 2008). Therefore, variables relevant to this study were selected and defined “mothers’ health seeking indicators and mothers’ socio-economic factors”

2.3 Qualitative Method of Data Collection

In addition to the quantitative data, primary data were obtained through in-depth interviews (IDI) of currently married women that have had at least a child within the last five years. The in-depth interview focused on mothers of children between the ages of 12–23 months. Multi-stage sampling technique was used: simple random sampling technique was used to select two states out of six states in Southwest Nigeria. From each of the selected state, two local government areas (LGA) were selected, and from each of the selected LGAs, one rural areas and one urban center were purposively selected. The locations that were eventually selected are Egbeda and Ibadan (in Oyo State), Sekona and Osogbo (in Osun State). Three in-depth interviews were conducted in each of the four locations.

The research instrument used was in-depth interviewers’ guide, which permits greater depth of meaning and seeks detailed and open ended responses to questions. The guide contained outlines of topics and a set of general questions; and details that are not brought out initially are sought through follow-up questions or probes. Information on vaccination coverage was obtained in two ways; from vaccination cards, and from mothers’ verbal reports. All mothers were asked to show the interviewer the health cards in which immunisation dates are recorded. If a card is available, the interviewers check and noted ‘full or non-full’, based on the vaccination status of the child. In a situation where a child never received a health card or the mother was unable to show the card to the interviewer, the vaccination information for the child was based on the mother’s verbal report only. In such cases, questions were asked for each vaccine type. Mothers were asked to recall whether the child had received BCG, Polio, DPT, and Measles vaccinations. If the mother indicated that the child had received the Polio or DPT vaccines, they were also asked about the number of dose received by the child and also check for the scar at the solder of the child to confirm.
Appropriate general questions were also asked under each topic. The guide was translated into Yoruba, the local language in Southwestern parts of Nigeria.

2.4 Data Analysis

Having obtained the dataset and extracted the eligible respondents, the data was analyzed using STATA 12 software. The analysis involved three stages. The first stage is univariate analysis in which distribution of the respondents was presented according to their background characteristics. The bivariate analysis involved comparison of two variables (dependent and one independent) to establish the relationship that exists between them and to determine the significance of the relationship. Cross tabulations and Chi-square tests was used at this stage. Chi-square test was used to test the relationship between full childhood immunization and mothers’ socio-economic factors such as level of education, type of occupation, place of residence as well as wealth quintile. Chi-square test was applied since the above listed variables are categorical in nature. The second stage, involved the multivariate analysis which further analyses the relationships and patterns between independent and dependent variables. At this stage, logistic regression models were used. Logistic regression is a form of regression which is used when the dependent variable is dichotomous (i.e having 1 or 0) and the independent variables are of any type. The general logistic regression model used for this study according to Newman (2001) is:

\[
P(Y = 1/\beta) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_n x_n}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \ldots + \beta_n x_n}}
\]

Which gives the probability that the response variable Y is 1 subject to the covariate vector \( X = (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) and parameter vector \( \beta = (\beta_0, \ldots, \beta_n) \). The logistic regression gives the expected probability that the dependent variable is unity subject to the settings of the covariates and their estimated parameters. That is, it estimates the unknown effect of changes in one variable over another.

2.5 Ethical Consideration

This study used secondary data in large part. NDHS 2008 has already taken care of ethical issues at the collection and collation stages, hence there was no risk of breaking any interviewee confidentiality or associated consideration in that regard. For the in-depth interview, the code of ethics for research relating to sensitivity and confidentiality of information provided was followed. Interviewees were informed of the nature of the study and participation was voluntary. Informed consents were obtained from all the participants prior to their participation in the survey. Interviews were conducted in an environment where privacy was ensured and the anonymity and confidentiality of information given was assured.

RESULTS

(Findings from the in-depth interviews are integrated “where necessary” to complement and strengthen the result of this study)

3.1 Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The total number of women extracted for this study having applied the weighting factor is 4,519. Mother’s age ranged from 15 to 49 with mean age of 30.4 and standard deviation of 6.3. A significant number of them (56.9%) are within the age bracket 25 – 34 years. More than 94.0% of the mothers are currently married while the percentage of those who are never married, living together, widowed, divorced and not living together constitute only 5.2%. Residentially, 55.2% and 44.8% of the mothers are urban and rural residents respectively with more than half of them (60.7%) being Christian, while about one-third (38.7%) are
Muslim. Analysis based on the mother’s level of education revealed that 14.9% of the mothers interviewed had no formal education, about 12.2% had tertiary education while others, 44.0% and 28.9% had secondary and primary education respectively. By type of occupation, 14.1% of them were not working at the time of the survey, more than half 55.0% were into sales and services, 22.5% were into agriculture/unskilled manual jobs, while others 8.4% were into professional services.

In terms of mothers’ wealth quintile, almost half (45.0%) of them are within the upper wealth quintile (rich), about one-fifth (6.2%) are within the lower quintile (poor) with more than one-third (38.8%) within the middle wealth quintile (average). Parity (number of children alive) ranged from 1 to 13. However, due to smaller numbers and the spread of the variable, the range of parity was collapsed and more than one-thirds of mothers 37.1% and 38.8% are in parity 2 (1-2 children) and parity 4 (3-4 children) respectively, while others, 24.1% are in parity 5 (5 or more children) at the time of the survey. With the use of preceding birth interval to the index child, a significant number of respondents (83.7%) had long birth interval.

Table 1. Percentage distribution of respondents by socio-demographic characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>1,402</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>1,172</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current marital status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never married</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>4,285</td>
<td>94.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living together</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorced</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not living together</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place of Residence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>2,495</td>
<td>55.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>2,024</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Religion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christian</td>
<td>2,736</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>1,727</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No education</td>
<td>673</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Primary  1,307  28.9
Secondary  1,987  44.0
Higher    552   12.2

Type of Occupation
Not working  632   14.1
Professionals    378   8.4
Sales/Services  2,461  55.0
Agriculture/unskilled manual 1,006  22.5

Wealth Quintile
Lower  730  16.2
Middle 1,754  38.8
Upper  2,034  45.0

Birth Interval
Short birth interval  557  16.4
Long birth interval  2,849  83.7

Parity
1-2 children  1,675  37.1
3-4 children  1,753  38.8
5 children+  1,091  24.1
Total  4,519  100.0

Source: Author’s work; Data computed from 2008 NDHS.

3.2 Health Seeking Behaviour of Respondents

In compliance with the WHO recommendation, almost half of the mothers (48.8%) went for 1st antenatal care within first trimester (1<sup>st</sup> – 4<sup>th</sup> months) of their recent pregnancy, while a little above half (52.2%) went for their 1st antenatal care outside the first trimester (5<sup>th</sup> month or more). Findings from the in-depth interview also corroborate this pattern as majority of mothers who are in parity 3 and above did not initiate antenatal care until they are at least within the fifth month of their pregnancy in the absence of any complaint or complications. This attitude according to some of them emanated from the fact that they do not attach much importance to seeking antenatal care at the early stage of their pregnancy since they are not new to pregnancy related issues. These are some of the excerpts from their discussions:

“Since I didn’t have any complaint concerning my pregnancy,… I started attending antenatal care when I was 5 months pregnant” (40yrs old mother of 6 from Ibadan).

“I was so confident since the pregnancy was not my first time, but my husband was a bit scared... He forced me to go for antenatal care when I was five months pregnant” (28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

However, a significant number (89.5%) of mothers had at least four antenatal care visits while about one-tenth (10.5%) had less than four visits during their recent pregnancy. More than one-third (36.2%) of the mothers did not receive any antenatal care, 6.9% received
antenatal care at home, while others, 30.7% and 26.2% received their antenatal care within the public and private health facilities respectively. In terms of delivery, about one-third (30.0%) of mothers delivered their last birth at home and 70.0% of them delivered within the health care facilities (35.0% in public health facilities and 35.0% in private health facilities respectively). This pattern was not substantially different from what was observed during the in-depth interview as majority of the mothers reported that they delivered at home. These are some of the excerpts from their discussion:

“I registered in the hospital but I did not deliver there, instead I went to deliver at our mission house” (28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I did not use any other place and I never missed any of my appointment date, but I later delivered at a nearby home..., the labour started in the night” (26yrs old mother of 2 in Ibadan).

“I received antenatal care both at the mission house and the hospital.... Though, I later delivered at the mission house” (18yrs old mother of 1 from Ibadan).

In addition, the study found that more than two-thirds (63.2%) did not receive postnatal care at all, and of those that received postnatal care, more than half (55.5%) received postnatal care at home while others received their postnatal care within public (27.9%) and private (16.6%) health care facilities respectively. This pattern was also revealed during the in-depth interview as majority of the mothers did not see postnatal care as important aspects of obstetric care in the absence of any complaint or complications. Many of them affirmed that there is no reason for postnatal care unless the child is sick or develop some symptoms. According to some of them:

“I did not go for any postnatal check-up since there was no problem with me and my child, I only took him back to hospital for vaccination” (36yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“Since I have given birth and up till now, neither I nor my child has fallen sick.... So, we only go to hospital for vaccination” (40yrs old mother of 6 from Ibadan).

Table 2. Percentage distribution of respondents’ health seeking behaviour

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health Seeking Indicators</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1st time of ANC visit</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>between 1-4 months</td>
<td>1,405</td>
<td>48.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 months plus</td>
<td>1,473</td>
<td>51.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of ANC visits</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 4 visits</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 visits plus</td>
<td>2,482</td>
<td>89.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place of ANC care</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No ANC</td>
<td>1,637</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public health facilities</td>
<td>1,389</td>
<td>30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private health facilities</td>
<td>1,181</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Place of delivery
- Home: 1,357 (30.0)
- Public health facilities: 1,581 (35.0)
- Private health facilities: 1,581 (35.0)

### Postnatal check within 2 months
- No: 691 (63.2)
- Yes: 403 (36.8)

### Place of postnatal care
- Home: 224 (55.5)
- Public health facilities: 112 (27.9)
- Private health facilities: 67 (16.6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information</th>
<th>Percentage of children age 12-23 months who had received specific vaccines at 12 months of age, by source of information (vaccination card or mother's report), and percentage not vaccinated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of information</th>
<th>BCG</th>
<th>DPT 1</th>
<th>DPT 2</th>
<th>DPT 3</th>
<th>Polio 0</th>
<th>Polio 1</th>
<th>Polio 2</th>
<th>Polio 3</th>
<th>Measles</th>
<th>All basic vaccinations</th>
<th>No vaccination at all</th>
<th>Number of children</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Child vaccinated before survey)</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>Full</td>
<td>Partial</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaccination on card</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported by mothers</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>39.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Either source</td>
<td>82.3</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>78.3</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>65.5</td>
<td>82.8</td>
<td>78.2</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Author's work; Data computed from 2008 NDHS

#### 3.3 Vaccination Status of Children age 12-23 months

Table 3. shows vaccination coverage by source of information for children age 12-23 months, the age at which they should have received all vaccinations based on the information on vaccination card and mothers’ verbal report. Overall, 36.5% of children aged 12-23 months are fully vaccinated, 51.0% of the children received partial vaccination (between 1 – 8 vaccines). On each of the vaccines, 82.3% received vaccinations for BCG and 70.2% received for measles. Fewer children received DPT 3 (69.5%) and polio 3 (55.2%), compared with those who received DPT 1 & 2 (81.5% & 78.3%) and polio 1 & 2 (82.8% & 78.2%) respectively. In all, more than one-tenth (12.5%) of children aged 12-23 months in southwestern Nigeria have not received any of the recommended vaccines at the time of the survey. Meanwhile, the percentage of children aged 12 months that have received full immunization slightly increased from 35.4% to 36.5% when compare with the percentage of children age 12-23 months that have received full immunization by 12 months of age. Likewise, the percentage of children that were partially immunized or not immunized at age 12 months slightly dropped from 51.8% to 51.0% and 12.8% to 12.5% respectively when compared with children aged 12-23 months that were immunized by 12 months of age.

Table 3. Percentage distribution of children age 12-23 months who had received the (Nine) basic vaccines at 12 months of age, by source of information (vaccination card or mother's report), and percentage not vaccinated
3.4 Respondents’ Reasons why Child was not delivered within Health care facilities or not vaccinated.

The 2008 NDHS, collected information on whether each of the following factors constitute a big problem in delivering within the health care facilities: cost too much, facilities not open, post too far & no transport cost, no female provider or any health provider, Husband or family didn't allow, and not necessary/customary to deliver within health care facilities and others. Of all the mothers that responded to these questions, a significant number 34.3% reported that they don’t find it necessary or customary to deliver within health care facilities, followed by 23.4% of those who reported that the health care post is too far and there was no transport money. Also, 9.0% mentioned cost of treatment as a serious problem in accessing health care for delivery, while 7.0% reported that they don’t trust the facility as they were concerned that there would be no drugs available within the facility. Meanwhile, only 1.0% of these mothers were concerned that there would be no female provider to attend to them. Whereas, problems getting permission from husband or family to go for treatment was mentioned by 4.4% of them as another major reason for not delivering their last pregnancy within the health care facilities.

Table 4. Percentage distribution of respondents by reasons why child was not delivered within the health care facilities or not vaccinated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for not delivered within health care facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost too much</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facility not open</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too far &amp; no transport</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't trust facility/poor service</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No female provider</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Husband/family didn't allow</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not necessary/customary</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>19.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>851</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons why child was not vaccinated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack of info</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of side effect</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaccine do not work</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious reason</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post too far</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child was absent</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Furthermore, this study, “through the in-depth interview”, discovered that a significant number of mothers that received antenatal care within the health care facilities often withdraw to deliver at home or mission houses. In all, about half (5 out of 12) of the mothers interviewed did not deliver within the health care facilities. However, various reasons were advanced for this behaviour. About one third of them reported late night labour as the major reasons, while others reported having prolonged labour as well as un-caring attitude of the nurses towards them as the major reason for having their delivery outside the health care facilities. These are some of the excerpts from their discussion:

“I decided not to deliver there because of the stress and the un-caring attitudes of the nurses that are unbearable to me” (28yrs old mother of 4 from Egbeda).

“I was one month pregnant when I went for immunization at the hospital, but I later deliver at mission house because they do exercise patience for those of us that normally have a prolonged labour” (34yrs old mother of 4 from Egbeda).

“... I did not use any other place and I have never missed any of my appointment date, but I later delivered at a nearby home where a friend nurse took the delivery because the labour started in the night” (26yrs old mother of 2 from Ibadan).

“This is my 4th child and I have never delivered at hospital before. ..., and since I do have a prolonged labour of about 4 to 5 days, I normally go to my mother’s place to deliver my baby” (28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

Also, various reasons on why children aged 12-23 months were not fully vaccinated or did not receive any of the vaccines at any time before the survey were also assessed. In all, fear of side effects (32.0%) was the commonly reported reasons for children not being immunised, followed by lack of information (19.0% ), and the post being located too far away (16.0%). Meanwhile, 23.0% of mothers mentioned other reasons why their children were not immunized which range from lack of money, vaccines not available to waste of time in the hospitals.

Findings from the in-depth discussion also complements this result by revealing that about two-thirds of the mothers interviewed partially vaccinate their children, while about one-third of them did not receive any vaccine for their children. Some of them reported that they deliberately decided not to vaccinate their children; while others mentioned various reasons why they could not vaccinate or fully vaccinate their children. Below are some of the excerpts from them:

“I did not vaccinate my child, it was deliberate, the one I took for his brother led to complication to the extent that it was operated, the same thing happened to me when I took the tetanus injection, if not for God’s intervention I would have lost my leg by now. So, I can’t even advice people around me on child vaccination” (36yrs old mother of 4 from Ibadan).

“When I had my first child I took him for immunization, but it led to complication that almost paralysed his leg if not for the intervention of some doctors. Since then, I have decided not to
immunize my children again” (28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I was devastated by the death of his Taiwo, and as a result of that incident, I couldn’t take him for the last vaccine” (36yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I started attending ANC when I was two months pregnant, since then I’ve never missed any of my appointment, and if you check this card, you will see that I complete my child vaccination too” (28yrs old mother of 2 from Ibadan).

“My child was unable to get the nine month vaccine, we were always asked to come back. The last time I went there, I waited for hours before I left to attend to customer and some other important issues” (34yrs old mother of 4 from Egbeda).

In all, majority of mothers are knowledgeable about immunization and vaccination schedule. While only one-quarter (3 mothers out of 12 interviewed) of those interviewed said that they could not take their children for vaccination again or advice people to vaccinate their children partly as a result of their prior vaccination experience. Below are parts of the excerpts on this issue:

“I think lack of education as well as ignorance is a major factor ...” (36yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“My advice is to all the pregnant mothers that they should complete their injection during their pregnancy and also ensure that they vaccinate their children” (40yrs old mother of 6 from Ibadan).

“Immunization is compulsory; it protects children from childhood diseases. Each time we get to the hospital, they do emphasize that we should complete our child vaccines because of their future and also to protect them from measles, polio and tuberculosis”. (32yrs mother of 5 from Egbeda).

“Some mothers do complain that the vaccine lead to complication like forming pulses or bulbs at the thigh or bottom of their children. Also, some cannot sacrifice their time for their children” (28yrs old mother of 2 from Sekona).

3.5 Relationship between Mothers’ Socio-Economic Factors and Childhood Vaccination

This study revealed that significant relationships exist between mothers’ socio-economic differentials (level of education, type of occupation, place of residence and wealth index) and childhood immunization (p < 0.01). The result revealed that the chances of a child being fully immunised varies consistently with mothers’ level of education: 18.8% for no education; 27.4% for primary; 40.6% for secondary; and 63.8% for tertiary education respectively. The significant relationship between education and full childhood vaccination was also justified during the in-depth interview as one of the important determinants of full childhood vaccination as some the mothers expressed their views:
“I think lack of education as well as ignorance is a major factor. You see, when you advise some mothers in this environment, they will be asking you what benefit have you derived from vaccination, one of my friend even told me that it was that vaccine that killed her first child”
(36yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I know that the vaccines do protect children from diseases, but I think ignorance is the major factor why some mothers don’t care about child vaccination”
(34yrs old mother of 4 from Egbeda).

Majority of mothers (59.2%) whose work falls within the formal sectors (professionals) fully immunized their children when compared with their counterpart that are into sales & services (34.7%) as well as those in agricultural/unskilled manual jobs (30.0%). Meanwhile, more than half (57.8%) of the mothers who were not working at the time of the survey partially immunize their children. The study further discovered through the in-depth interview that mothers’ occupation competes with full childhood vaccination as some of the mothers interviewed pointed out that majority of their counterparts cannot wait for a longer time or revisit the hospital to ensure that their child received full vaccination:

“There are some mothers that don’t have time for their children, some will tell you that they are going to farm..., and that hospital for vaccination will take much of their time”
(32yrs old mother of 5 from Egbeda).

“.... Also, some cannot sacrifice their time for their children” (35yrs old mother 4 from Osogbo)
The last time I went there, I waited for hours before I left to attend to customer and some other important issues”
(36yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I do advise some of my friend not to allow their jobs to hinder them from vaccinating their children, because some of them often withdraw after taking one or two vaccines.... most especially, when we are asked to come back for the remaining vaccines”
(40yrs old mother of 6 from Ibadan).

Analysis on the relationship between mothers’ wealth quintile is strongly and significantly associated with the chance of full childhood immunisation; majority of the children, whose mothers are within the higher wealth quintile, were fully vaccinated (50.0%), when compared with those children whose mothers are within the middle wealth quintile (29.2%) and the lower wealth quintile (15.0%) respectively.

For all antigens, the percentage of children that received full immunisation varies by place of residence: it was higher in urban areas (47.6%) than in rural areas (22.7%). This pattern also prevailed in two of the rural areas (Egbeda and Sekona) involved in the in-depth discussion as many of the mothers interviewed in those areas partially immunized their children while some did not vaccinate their children at all.

Table 5. Percentage distribution of mothers’ socio-economic factors and childhood vaccination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Socio-economic factors</th>
<th>Childhood vaccination status</th>
<th>Total N</th>
<th>Chi square</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non full % (N)</td>
<td>Full % (N)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Level of education</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>No education</td>
<td>81.2 (195)</td>
<td>18.8(45)</td>
<td>240</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>72.6 (328)</td>
<td>27.4 (124)</td>
<td>452</td>
<td>89.6131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>59.4 (394)</td>
<td>40.6 (269)</td>
<td>663</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>36.2 (85)</td>
<td>63.8 (150)</td>
<td>235</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Type of occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

402
not working  57.8 (130)  41.2 (91)  221
Professionals  40.8 (64)  59.2 (93)  157  35.0213  0.0000**
Sales & services  65.3 (557)  34.7 (296)  853
Agriculture / unskilled  70.0 (251)  30.0 (108)  359

**Wealth quintile**
Lower  85.0 (223)  15.0 (57)  280
Middle  70.8 (423)  29.2 (175)  598  89.2295  0.0000**
Higher  50.0 (356)  50.0 (356)  712

**Place of residence**
urban  52.4 (462)  47.6 (420)  882  76.6372  0.0000**
rural  77.3 (540)  22.7 (168)  708

**Total**  63.0 (1,002)  37.0 (588)  1,590

Notes: * p < 0.05; **p < 0.01;
Source: Author’s work; Data computed from 2008 NDHS.

### 3.6 Relationship between Mothers’ Health Seeking Behaviour and Childhood Vaccination

Analysis on the mothers’ 1st time of antenatal care visit revealed a significant relationship between 1st time of visit and full childhood vaccination (p < 0.01). For instance, 44.3% of the mothers that had their first antenatal care visit within the first trimester (1-4th months) of their last pregnancy fully immunized their children while only 33.1% of those that had their 1st visit outside the 1st trimester (5th months and above) of their recent pregnancy fully immunized their children. Furthermore, the in-depth interview revealed that majority of the mothers did not initiate antenatal visit until they are four or five months pregnant in the absence of any complaint or complication. Meanwhile, about two-thirds of those that initiated antenatal care outside the first trimester did not fully vaccinate their children for one reason or the other. These are excerpts from their statements:

“I went for the antenatal care when I was feeling uncomfortable, I was five months pregnant then; though, some of my earlier pregnancies were not up to that and there was one that I did not even go for antenatal care at all, .... I make sure he received all the vaccines”

(40yrs old mother of 6 from Ibadan).

“Since I didn’t have any complaint concerning my pregnancy,.... I started attending antenatal care when I was six months pregnant...’noted’- vaccines not completed”

(22yrs old mother 4 from Ibadan).

“,... So, he forced me to go for antenatal care when I was five months pregnant,.... I have decided not to immunize any of my children again”

(28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I started attending ANC when I was two months pregnant,...., and if you check this card, you will see that I completed my child vaccination too”

(a 28yrs old mother of 2 from Ibadan).

“I was 4 months pregnant when I started antenatal care,......, you see, when someone is pregnant, it depends on your body situation, and that will make you to run for check-up,.... My child completed her vaccination”

(30yrs old mother of 3 from Osogbo).
Also, number of antenatal care visits was found to be significantly related to full childhood vaccination \((p < 0.01)\). Less than one-fifth (12.5\%) of mothers who had less than four antenatal care visits during their last pregnancy fully immunized their children, while more than half (50.8\%) of mothers who had more than four antenatal care visits during their last pregnancy fully immunized their children.

Place of antenatal care was also found to be strongly and significantly associated with full childhood vaccination. The proportion of children that received full vaccination varies with mothers’ place of ANC care: 25.8\% of mothers that received antenatal care at home; 34.0\% of mothers that received antenatal care at public health facilities; and 45.9\% of those that received antenatal care at private health facilities fully immunized their children whereas, only 31.2\% of mothers who did not receive any antenatal care fully immunized their children.

Analysis on the relationship between mothers’ place of delivery and full childhood vaccination also showed a significant relationship \((p < 0.01)\). Mothers who delivered within the health care facilities are more likely to fully immunize their children than those that delivered at home. Less than one-third (19.2\%) of mothers with home delivery fully immunized their children while about half of mothers that deliver within the health care facilities (41.7\% for public health facilities and 48.0\% for private health facilities) fully vaccinate their children. In addition, this study further discovered through the in-depth interview that some mothers tend to substitute going to mission houses during pregnancy for hospitals while a significant number of those that received antenatal care within the health care facilities often withdraw to deliver at home or mission house. In all, about two-thirds of mothers interviewed did not deliver within the health care facilities. However, various reasons were also adduced for this behaviour. About one-third of them reported late night labour as the major reasons, while others reported having prolonged labour as well as an uncaring attitude of the nurses towards them as the major reason. Meanwhile, majority of the mothers that did not receive antenatal care or deliver within the health care facilities did not fully vaccinate their children. These are some of the excerpts from them:

“I was one month pregnant when I went for immunization at the hospital, but I later delivered at mission house, ...., ‘noted from the card- vaccination not complete’”

(34yrs old mother of 4 from Ibadan).

“....I did not use any other place and I never missed any of my appointment dates, but I later delivered at a nearby home where a friend nurse took the delivery because the labour started in the night..., but she had already missed some of the vaccines by the time I took her to the hospital”

(26yrs, mother of 2 from Ibadan).

“This is my 4th child and I have never delivered at hospital before..., since I do have a prolonged labour of about 4 to 5 days , I normally go to my mothers' place to deliver my baby... I have decided not to immunize any of my children again”

(28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“.... I was devastated by the death of his Taiwo.... So, he couldn’t complete his vaccination...”

(36yrs old mother from Osogbo).

“I was going to the hospital and I was equally using some home based clinic. I later delivered at a nearby home based clinic because the labour started in the night. I took him to
hospital for vaccination. But the nine month vaccine was not available” (35yrs old mother 5 from Osogbo).

Though there is no significant relationship between mothers’ place of postnatal care and full childhood vaccination (p > 0.05). However, full childhood vaccination varies proportionately with place of postnatal care (23.3% for home; 23.9% for public health facilities; and 44.6% for private health facilities). Discussion on the issue relating to mothers’ postnatal care during the in-depth interview revealed that majority of the mothers did not see postnatal care as an important aspect of obstetric care in the absence of any complaint. While some of them affirmed that there is no reason for postnatal care unless the child is sick or develops some symptoms. Therefore, we cannot reasonably relate mothers’ postnatal care with full childhood vaccination as some of them only took their children back to the hospital for the sole purpose of vaccination alone.

According to some of them:

“I did not go for any postnatal check-up since there was no problem with me and my child, I only took him to hospital for vaccination” (a 36yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

“I did not go for postnatal care since there was no problem, but I ensured that he completed his immunization. Since I have been giving birth, I do ensure that all my children complete their vaccines” (40 yrs old mother of 6 from Ibadan).

| Table 6. Percentage distribution of mothers’ health seeking behaviour and childhood vaccination |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Health Seeking Indicators**   | **Childhood vaccination status** | **Total**       | **Chi square**  | **p-value**     |
|                                 | Non full  % (N) | Full  % (N) | N       |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| 1st time of ANC visits          | 55.7 (328) | 44.3 (260) | 588      | 15.8660 | 0.0018**        |
| Between 1-4 months              | 68.5 (448) | 31.5 (206) | 654      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Number of ANC visits            | 87.5 (513) | 12.5 (73)  | 586      | 27.0446 | 0.0024**        |
| Less than 4 visits              | 49.2 (499) | 50.8 (515) | 1,014    |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| 4 visits plus                   |                  |                  |          |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Place of ANC care               | 68.8 (215) | 31.2 (96)  | 311      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| No antenatal care               | 69.1 (103) | 30.9 (46)  | 149      | 22.9763 | 0.0006**        |
| Home                            | 65.5 (421) | 34.5 (222) | 643      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Public health facilities        | 54.1 (263) | 45.9 (224) | 487      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Private health facilities       |                  |                  |          |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Place of delivery               | 80.8 (388) | 19.2 (92)  | 480      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Home                            | 58.3 (341) | 41.7 (244) | 585      | 55.3752 | 0.0000**        |
| Public health facility          | 52.0 (273) | 48.0 (252) | 525      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Place of postnatal care         | 76.7 (84)  | 23.3 (26)  | 110      |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Home                            | 76.1 (32)  | 23.9 (10)  | 42       | 4.9475  | 0.0998          |
| Public health facilities        | 55.4 (24)  | 44.6 (19)  | 43       |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Private health facilities       |                  |                  |          |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
| Total                           | 63.0 (1,002) | 37.0 (588) | 1,590    |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |

Notes: * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01;
3.7 Binary Logistic Regression of Mothers’ Socio-Economic Factors and Health Seeking Behaviour on Childhood Vaccination

This section presents the odds ratio from the general binary logistic regression Model I – II for the likelihood of full childhood vaccination among children aged 12-23 years. Obviously, the significant relationships that exist between mothers’ socio-economic factors, her health seeking behaviour and full childhood vaccination at the bivariate level can be due to isolated effects of other unmeasured factors and non-interaction among variables. We therefore at this stage used multilevel modelling to determine the predictors of full childhood vaccination having allowed for interrelationships among the various measured independent and intervening factors.

The result from model I revealed the most significant predictors of full childhood vaccination to be: level of education, place of residence, and wealth quintile. The odds ratio of reporting full childhood vaccination increase steadily with level of education such that mothers with tertiary education are significantly three times more likely to fully immunize their children (OR 3.27; p < 0.01; C.I. 1.52 – 7.01) than their counterparts with no formal education. Also, mothers with primary (OR 1.13; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.63 – 2.04) and secondary (OR 1.68; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.92 – 3.07) education are almost twice more likely to have their children fully immunized than their counterpart with no formal education. At this level, we found no significant relationship between mothers’ type of occupation and childhood vaccination (p > 0.05). But our findings further revealed that mothers within the formal sectors are more likely to fully immunize their children than those who are not working or within agricultural/unskilled manual activities (OR 1.60; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.57 – 1.96), and those that engaged in sales & services as well. Meanwhile, the odds ratio of full childhood immunization decreases monotonically with mothers’ wealth quintile as the analysis revealed that majority of the mothers within the middle (OR 0.65; p < 0.05; C.I. 0.21 – 0.76) and lower (OR 0.40; p < 0.05; C.I. 0.45 – 0.94) wealth quintile are less likely than those in the upper wealth quintile to fully immunize their children. Also, mothers in the urban areas were found to be twice more likely to have their children fully vaccinated (OR 1.80; p < 0.05; C.I. 1.20 – 2.72) than their counterpart in the rural areas.

Result from model II revealed that mothers who delivered within public health facilities are thrice more likely to fully immunize their children (OR 2.90; p < 0.01; C.I. 1.29 – 1.80) than mothers with home delivery. Likewise, the odds of full childhood vaccination is significantly higher for mothers that delivered within private health care facilities (OR 1.10; p < 0.01; C.I. 0.01 – 0.89) than those that delivered at home. Mothers with less than four ANC visits are less likely to fully immunize their children (OR 0.33; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.04 – 2.55) compared with those that had more than four ANC visits whereas, mothers who received antenatal care within public health care facilities are more likely to fully immunize their children (OR 1.56; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.14 – 2.27) than those who received antenatal care at private health facilities. Conversely, mothers who did not receive any antenatal care and those that received antenatal care at home are both less likely to fully immunize their children (OR 0.82; p > 0.05 C.I. 0.23 – 2.93) when compared with those that received ANC care at either public or private health care facilities. With regards to place of postnatal care, mothers that received postnatal care within either public (OR 2.53; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.63 – 10.12) or private health care facilities (OR 2.42; p > 0.05; C.I. 0.54 – 10.73) are twice more likely to fully vaccinate their children than mothers who received postnatal care at home.
Table 7. General Binary Logistic Regression Model I & II for the Likelihood of Full Childhood Vaccination among children age 12-23 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Childhood Vaccination</th>
<th>MODEL I</th>
<th></th>
<th>[95% Conf. Int.]</th>
<th>MODEL II</th>
<th></th>
<th>[95% Conf. Int.]</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Odds-ratio (std. error)</td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>[95% Conf. Int.]</td>
<td>Odds-ratio (std. error)</td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>[95% Conf. Int.]</td>
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<td><strong>Socio-Economic Factors</strong></td>
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<td>Level of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>None</td>
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<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>1.13 (0.34)</td>
<td>0.676</td>
<td>0.63 – 2.04</td>
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<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1.68 (0.51)</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.92 – 3.07</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>3.27 (1.26)</td>
<td>0.003**</td>
<td>1.52 – 7.01</td>
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<td><strong>Type of Occupation</strong></td>
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<td>Professionals</td>
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<tr>
<td>Not working</td>
<td>0.87 (0.28)</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td>0.46 – 1.62</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sales/Services</td>
<td>0.84 (0.23)</td>
<td>0.508</td>
<td>0.49 – 1.43</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture /unskilled</td>
<td>0.89 (0.33)</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.57 – 1.96</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Place of Residence</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>RC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>1.80 (0.37)</td>
<td>0.005*</td>
<td>1.20 – 2.72</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Wealth Quintile</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>middle</td>
<td>0.65 (0.12)</td>
<td>0.022*</td>
<td>0.21 – 0.76</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lower</td>
<td>0.40 (0.13)</td>
<td>0.005*</td>
<td>0.45 – 0.94</td>
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<td><strong>Health Seeking Indicators</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1st time ANC visit</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 – 4th months</td>
<td>RC</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 months plus</td>
<td>1.09 (0.59)</td>
<td>0.875</td>
<td>0.37 – 3.18</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>No. of ANC visits</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>More than 4 visits</td>
<td>RC</td>
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<tr>
<td>Less than 4 visits</td>
<td>0.33 (0.34)</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td>0.04 – 2.55</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Place of ANC care</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Private H. facilities</td>
<td>RC</td>
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<tr>
<td>No ANC/home</td>
<td>0.82 (0.36)</td>
<td>0.761</td>
<td>0.23 – 2.93</td>
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<tr>
<td>Public H. facilities</td>
<td>1.56 (1.25)</td>
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<td>Private H. facilities</td>
<td>1.10 (0.19)</td>
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<td>Public H. facilities</td>
<td>2.53 (1.76)</td>
<td>0.188</td>
<td>0.63 – 10.12</td>
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<td>Private H. facilities</td>
<td>2.42 (1.81)</td>
<td>0.958</td>
<td>0.54 – 10.73</td>
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Notes: * p < 0.05; * *p < 0.01;  
Model I = model built with mothers socio- economic factors  
RC = reference category  
Model II = model built with mothers` health seeking indicators  
Standard errors are in parenthesis - (std. – error)
4.0 Discussion of Findings

(This discussion focused on the quantitative findings of this study as well as findings “excerpts” from the qualitative (in-depth interview)).

As part of the health intervention programme and strategic policy, pregnant mothers are expected to initiate their 1st ANC visit within the first trimester (1-4th month) and also required to have a minimum of 4 visits before delivery in the absence of any complain or complications (WHO, 2006). However, more than one-third (36.2%) of mothers in this study did not receive any ANC care, while significant number (52.2%) of those that received did not initiate their 1st ANC visit within the first trimester. More than one-tenth (10.5%) received less than four antenatal care, while about one-third (30.0%) had their last delivery at home. These patterns of maternal health seeking behaviour among mothers also reflect their behaviour towards the health of their children. For instance, a significant number of children whose mothers displayed these negative maternal health seeking behaviour were not fully vaccinated; (68.8%) for no ANC, (68.5%) for those that initiated 1st ANC outside the first trimester, (86.8%) for those that received less than four ANC, and (78.7%) for those that delivered at home.

Also, this study further discovered that many mothers tend to substitute going to mission houses during pregnancies for hospitals while some of those that even received antenatal care within the health care facilities often withdraw to deliver at home or mission due partly to the inpatient attitude of health workers and partly to the distance to the health care center . These are some of the excerpts from the in-depth interview:

“I registered in the hospital but I did not deliver there instead I went to deliver at our mission house. I decided not to deliver there because of the stress and the un-caring attitudes of the nurses that are unbearable to me” (28yrs old mother of 3 from Egbeda).

“I started attending ANC clinic when I was three months pregnant because I was feeling uncomfortable. I did not use any other place and I never missed any of my appointment date, but I later delivered at a nearby home where a nurse friend took the delivery because the labour started in the night.” (26yrs old mother of 2 from Ibadan).

“I was one month pregnant when I went for immunization at the hospital, but I later delivered at mission house because there, they do exercise patience for those of us that normally have a prolonged labour. ...., but we couldn’t get the last vaccine” (32yrs old mother of 4 from Egbeda).

Analysis on the mothers first time of antenatal care visit revealed a significant relationship between first time of visit and full childhood vaccination and this is in agreement with the study conducted by Catherine, et al. in 1996. Our results further showed that majority of the children whose mothers went for 1st ANC visit outside the first trimester of their pregnancy are at increased risk of incomplete vaccination unlike those children whose mother initiated 1st ANC visit within the first trimester. The strong and significant relationships found by Meredith, et al. (2011) between number of ANC visits and EPI attendance in all the three countries; Chad, Mali and Niger were also substantiated by this study. Our findings revealed that mothers with more than 4 ANC visits are more likely to fully immunize their children than mothers with less than 4 ANC visits. This finding is consistent with some of the earlier studies by Outavong et al. (2010), where they concluded that ANC visits enhanced hospital deliveries and child immunizations. Also, findings from
the in-depth interview further corroborate this result as mothers who reported not to have missed any of their appointment fully immunized their children. According to one of them:

“I started attending ANC clinic when I was two months pregnant, since then I’ve never missed any of my appointment, and if you check this card, you will see that my child completed her vaccination” (22 yrs old mother of 1 from Ibadan).

Evidence that mothers’ place of delivery is significantly related with full childhood vaccination was also provided by the findings of this study. Mothers who delivered within health care facilities (both public and private health care facilities) are almost thrice more likely to fully immunize their children than those that delivered at home. This result is in conformity with some of the earlier findings by Cutts, et al. (1990) and Oditt et al. (2003), their study concluded that delivery in a hospital affected whether the child began immunization or not. This could be due to the fact that majority of mothers were aware of the importance of immunization as they gave birth in the hospital settings.

Similarly, this study revealed that the odds of reporting full childhood vaccination increases steadily with mothers’ level of education such that mothers with primary, secondary and tertiary education are increasingly more likely to fully immunize their children than mothers with no formal education. This finding is consistent with some earlier findings by Hobcraft in 1993, where he argued that the more educated women are the more likely to have initiated immunization and even more likely to have their children fully vaccinated. This finding is in support of a report from Turkey study (Altinkaynak et al., 2004) that education of mothers increases the full vaccination chance of a child and reduces missed opportunity.

The significant relationship found in-terms of mothers’ wealth quintile also justified the WHO-sponsored study by Kris Heggenhougen and John Clements in 1987, which summarized their research findings that low socio-economic status, and especially low educational level of mothers, is usually associated with low acceptance of immunization. The logistic regression further reiterated that the odds of full childhood immunization decreases monotonically with mothers’ wealth quintile: mothers within the middle and lower wealth quintile are less likely to fully immunize their children compared with those in the higher wealth quintile. This result also conforms to earlier findings by Klevens and Luman in 2001: a study that associated family income with immunization coverage levels, and low family income as a risk factor for low immunization (Klevens and Luman, 2001). Parents with lower household incomes are more likely to experience barriers, such as transportation or access to health care services that make staying up-to-date on immunizations difficult (Klevens and Luman, 2001).

Also, the logistic regression further provides a substantial and significant evidence as it shows that mothers in the urban areas are twice more likely to have their children fully vaccinated than mothers in the rural areas. This could be due to the fact that mothers in the rural areas are at increased risk of inadequate knowledge of vaccination schedule as well as lack of primary health care facilities and qualified personnel.

Contrary to some of the earlier findings, majority of mothers were knowledgeable about importance and schedule visit for immunization. However, fear of side effect, child's health and sickness were the most common reported cause of incomplete vaccination, followed by non-availability of the vaccines as some of the mothers recount their experiences:
“I did not vaccinate my child, it was deliberate, the one I took for his brother led to complication to the extent that it was operated...... So, I can’t even advice people around me on child vaccination”

(36yrs old mother of 4 from Ibadan).

Another mother from Sekona in Osun State also added:

“When I had my first child I took him for immunization, but it led to complication that almost paralysed his leg if not for the intervention of some doctors and the fact that I was not also careless. Since then, I have decided not to take any of my children for immunization again”

(28yrs old mother of 4 from Sekona).

In all, about one-quarter (3 mothers out of 12 interviewed) of those interviewed said that they could not take their children for vaccination again or advice people to vaccinate their children due to their prior vaccination experience.

Therefore, findings from the reasons for not or incomplete vaccination suggest that different strategies are needed to address the varying reasons for incomplete immunization especially for mothers concerned with immunization safety. Earlier findings suggested that addressing parents’ concerns about vaccine safety (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2003; Hall et al., 2001) will help parents make informed decisions. Health workers should address parents’ concerns regarding the few appropriate side effects and medical contraindications to immunisation to help reduce unnecessary missed opportunity and often lengthy postponement due to illnesses (Burgess et al., 1998; Prislin et al., 2002). Also, the concerns and experiences of previously compliant parents after a child experiences minor anticipated vaccine side effects, or a more serious adverse event, should be addressed and managed appropriately (Prislin et al., 2002) including referral to a specialist immunization clinic for intensive treatment if necessary (Wood, 2003; Gold et al., 2003).

Finally, this study having being disaggregated at both bivariate and multivariate level, pointed to mothers’ socio-economic factors (level of education, wealth quintile and place of residence); mothers’ health seeking behaviour (1st time of ANC visit, number of ANC visits, place of ANC care and place of delivery); fear of side effect; as well as systemic factors (non-availability of vaccines) as the major factors affecting the full uptake of childhood vaccination in Southwestern Nigeria. These findings are consistent with Nichter (1995) and Raharjo (1990) research conclusion that vaccination demand and acceptance depend on factors that are far more numerous and complex. This was also corroborated by Streefland et al. (1999), as their study revealed that Supply-related factors are clearly important, particularly the relationship between health-care workers and mothers (including attitudes of vaccinators towards mothers, as well as their perceived motives and technical competence).

4.1 Conclusion and Policy Recommendation

Having employed both secondary (quantitative) and primary (qualitative) data respectively; the study examined the influence of mothers’ health seeking behaviour and their socio-economic background details on full childhood vaccination. Findings from this cross-sectional study revealed that mothers’ health seeking behaviour is not just a one off isolated event, but the result of an evolving mix of socio-economic, personal and experiential factors. The process of responding to ‘illness’ or seeking preventive care involves multiple steps (Uzma et al, 1999), and cannot be explained by a single model of health seeking behaviour only, but must also be related to some socio-economic factors.
As shown by this study, mothers’ level of education, her wealth index and her place of residence significantly influence full childhood vaccination. This can be adduced to the fact that mothers with formal education, within higher wealth index and living within urban center are better informed about child susceptibility to diseases and severity of some diseases and therefore will want to take some preventive care unlike their counterparts who are less educated, within lower wealth index and living in rural areas. This result reinforces and strengthens the conclusion that education programs are vital to improving antenatal care, immunization coverage, and ultimately child health. Also, women within higher wealth quintile are more empowered to take some decisive decision as regards their personal health and that of their children. Furthermore, mothers in the urban centres are found to be more likely to fully immunize their children than those in the rural area. This could partly be as a result of the affordability and availability of the health care facilities in urban areas. Thus improving and increasing the availability of health care facilities in the rural areas could be a way forward to improve childhood preventive care in the rural areas as well.

Of all the mothers’ health seeking indicators used, mothers’ place of delivery was revealed as a strong significant predictor of full childhood vaccination both at the bivariate and multivariate level of analysis. Meanwhile, at bivariate level, mothers’ 1st time of ANC visit, number of ANC visits, Place of ANC care and mothers’ places of postnatal care were found to be significantly related to full childhood vaccination. Majority of the children whose mothers went for 1st ANC visits outside the first trimester are at increased risk of incomplete childhood vaccination unlike those children whose mother initiated 1st ANC visit within the first trimester.

Also, mothers with more than four ANC visits are more likely to vaccinate their children than mothers with less than four ANC visits. Likewise, mothers who received antenatal care within the health care facilities (both public and private) are more likely to fully vaccinate their children than mothers who received antenatal care at home. Also, mothers who received postnatal care within health care facilities were found to be twice more likely to fully vaccinate their children than those who received postnatal care at home. This result is consistent with the conclusion of the WHO/UNICEF, 2010 findings that mothers’ utilization of health care services during conception and delivery is a precondition that mothers will seek subsequent health care services for both themselves and their children.

The complexity of these findings traced in detail, and also disaggregated, in all sense of actual reality shows that mothers’ health seeking behaviour needed to be focused and improved because it is a process that extends over time, space and cannot be picked out as something intrinsic to the individual alone but also influenced by their socio-economic circumstances as well.

Therefore, if the childhood survival programmes and strategies must succeed and the needless loss of children lives prevented, the following recommended strategies and programmes must be embarked upon by all the three tiers of government, non-governmental organization as well as international agencies to achieve 85 per cent full national immunization coverage:

- Expanding educational opportunities for women as well as focusing on literacy training for mothers as many countries have done.
- Develop strategies and programmes that will be targeted at improving the health seeking behaviour of mothers through:
I. Sensitization Programmes targeted at pregnant women to inform them on the value of modern medicine.

II. Programmes that lay emphasis on the importance of ANC care, place of delivery as well as postnatal care;

III. Programmes and strategies that will help women in developing familiarity with health care systems which will further increase the likelihood that they will rely on health care services again to the benefit of their children.

- Above all, the national health care system must be restructured, the number of available facilities must be increased, well-equipped primary health care centres must be located in the rural areas as well as some remote places and all the basic vaccines must always be made available within the health care facilities.

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SUB-ETHNIC IDENTITY AND CONFLICT IN NIGERIA: THE POLICY OPTION FOR THE RESOLUTION OF THE CONFLICT BETWEEN EZZA AND EZILLO IN EBONYI STATE

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Abstract

Nigeria's high level of ethnic diversity can explain the country's ethnic based conflicts. Scholars have focused attention on explaining these inter-ethnic conflicts using political and linguistic differences as well as patterns of segregation as factors behind the conflicts. However, sub-ethnic identity conflicts are becoming increasingly common in Nigeria today. While such conflicts hardly attract academic attention relative to inter-ethnic conflict, they are capable of yielding theoretical insights into identity formation, ethnic transformation and the questions that border on citizenship. This study, therefore, analyzes the conflict between Ezza and Ezillo in Ebonyi State. It assesses the role of material interest and deep-seated animosity in the conflict between the two communities in a homogenous setting. It argues that the conflicts emanate from the interface between material interest and animosity. Our analysis indicates that the effects are deep-rooted and widespread. The study made use of documents and interviews as its method of data collection. It concludes that political factors, linguistic differences and patterns of ethnic segregation are found to be poor predictors of sub-ethnic identity conflict. It finally proffers a-people-oriented approach to conflict resolution.

Key Words: Sub-ethnic identity, ethnic conflict, material interest, animosity, Ezza-Ezillo

1. Introduction

The frequent manifestation of inter-ethnic violence in Nigeria has brought to the fore the issue of ethnicity and ethnic conflicts in Nigeria. The situation has become extremely worrisome since the inauguration of the Nigeria's Fourth Republic in 1999. The country has witnessed the outbreak of not less than forty violent communal or ethnic conflicts (Imobighe, 2003: 13). These conflicts are both inter and intra-ethnic in nature. Among the prominent recent ones are: Zango-Kataf in Kaduna State; Tiv-Jukun in Wukari, Taraba State; Ogoni-Adoni in Rivers State; Chamba-Kuteb in Taraba State; Itsekiri-Ijaw/Urhobo in Delta State; Ife-Modakeke in Osun State; Aguleri-Umuleri in Anambra State; Yoruba-Hausa Community in Shagamu, Ogun State; Ijaw-Ilaje conflict in Ondo State; the intermittent clashes in Kano, Kano State; Basa-Egbura in Nassarawa State; Eleme-Okrika in Rivers State; Hausa/Fulani-Sawaya in Bauch State (Imobighe, 2003: 13). These conflicts have become so pervasive that there is hardly any part of the country that has not witnessed one conflict or the other. These conflicts have implication for economic and political development in Nigeria.

In their pioneering article, Easterly and Levine (1997) suggested that Sub-Saharan Africa’s high level of ethnic diversity can explain the regions poor economic performance. However, a leading set of explanations for the poor economic performance of ethnically diverse countries is political (Frank and Rainer, 2012: 294). It is often argued that ethnic diversity leads to costly rent-seeking by different ethnic groups and this generates ethnic conflict over the provision of public goods. These arguments imply that politically dominant ethnic groups will use their power to provide economic benefits to their own members (Frank and Rainer, 2012). In ethnically heterogeneous societies, it has been common for the groups that come to power to fashion government policies that expropriate the ethnic losers and limit the production of pubic goods to prevent those outside the ruling group from also benefiting and getting stronger (La Porta et al, 1999: 231). Consequently, ethnic favoritism becomes prominent theme in formal
theories of ethnic politics. In most African countries, state power has become means of production for the ethnic group that has acquired it. It is used as an exclusion device, and the winning ethnic groups redistribute resources to their own members. These patterns above generate inter-ethnic conflicts that are widespread and multi-dimensional. Nigeria presents complex individuals and crisscross and recursive identities of which the ethnic, religious and sub-ethnic are the most salient and the main launch pad for violent conflicts in the country. In most cases ethnic and religious identities are most often reinforcing. The identities are often implicated in many contestations over citizenship/indigene competition and conflict over resources and privileges.

Ezza and Ezillo are two communities in Ebonyi State. They are both located in the Ishielu Local Government Area of the state. The state is ethnically homogenous, being one of the states in the Igbo heartland. Unlike many multi-ethnic communities in Nigeria, it seems reasonable to assume that identity based conflicts would be minimal in such a setting of ethnic homogeneity. To the contrary, Ezza and Ezillo have been engaged in an explosive struggle dating back to the beginning of the last century.

Micro-ethnic identity conflicts are becoming increasingly common in Nigeria. Apart from the Ezza-Ezillo conflict, the Aguleri-Umuleri and the Ife-Modakeke conflicts are also well-known. Apart from the above, there are other numerous and serious intra-ethnic conflicts that remain largely unreported, yet pose extremely serious threat in terms of loss of lives and destruction of livelihoods. In the South-East Zone of Nigeria alone, a study twelve years ago recorded over seventy serious conflicts among Igbo sub-identities (Ibeanu and Onu, 2001: 51). However, this number might have increased two-folds. The most important one is the Umu-Ode-Oruku conflict in Nkanu East Local Government Area of Enugu State. While such conflicts may not attract as much academic attention as macro-ethnic conflicts, they are capable of yielding theoretical insights into identity formation, ethnic transformations and questions of citizenship in a dynamic setting like Nigeria.

Sub-ethnic conflicts in Nigeria certainly predate colonialism. However, they have been shaped and sustained by the structure of the post-colonial State (Ibeanu and Mbah, 2011: 1). First, colonialism set the pace for modernization and economic development in Nigeria, while dramatically changing existing patterns of social, political and economic interactions of ethnic groups and communities. Second, colonialism had far reaching impact on ethnic group consciousness. Outside the gates, colonialism was conducive to the emergence of pan-ethnic identities, particularly in the competitive setting of urban areas (Nnoli, 1980). However, within the gates, colonialism encouraged micro-ethnic, often competitive identities. Within the Igbo ethnic group for instance, sub-ethnic identities such as Ado (the Onitsha Igbo), Wawa (the Northern Igbo of Enugu State), Jookwa (the Afikpo), Ohuhu (parts of Central Igbo land) and Ijekkebe (the old Onitsha colonial province) have emerged mainly from clans increasingly claiming a sub-ethnic identity. The foregoing should not be seen as a denial of the existence of sub-ethnic division among the Igbo prior to colonialism. In this study, we explore how in spite of a pan-Igbo identity, serious sub-ethnic identity conflicts have persisted. Using Ezza-Ezillo case, we hope to shed light on a layer of identity formation and the citizenship question in Nigeria that remains largely neglected. That is not to suggest that existing explanations are wrong, but we hope to bring a new explanatory framework to analyze the increasing sub-ethnic conflicts in Nigeria.

Nigeria today, is divided into six geo-political zones. One of the zones is the South-East zone. The South-East Zone of Nigeria comprises the five states of Abia, Anambra, Ebonyi, Enugu, and Imo. Probably, the zone is ethnically homogenous, being the heartland of the Igbo ethnic group. However, happenstances of recent times reveal that this zone is witnessing increasing rate of conflicts due to increasing nature of multi-ethnic character which the area is fast acquiring, particularly in urban areas such as Enugu, Onitsha, Owerri, and Aba. This pattern of conflict is not limited to urban areas. In the rural town of Ibagwa-Aka in Igbo-Eze South Local Government Area of Enugu State, there is a substantial
population of Muslims of various ethnic origins including Nupe, Igala, Hausa, and Yoruba. Many years of inter-confessional marriages and conversions among the Christians, the Muslims, and the Traditionalists in Ibagwa have deepened this rare incidence of rural multiculturalism (Ibeanu and Onu, 2011: 1). Furthermore, a substantial proportion of the Igbo inhabitants of the community are Muslims, despite the predominant Christian religious affiliation of the Ndi Igbo. This unique case of rural multiculturalism has been explained as a product of historical interactions through trade and commerce between northern Igbos and the Igala (Afigbo, 1981: 90).

Arguably, the South-East Zone is almost ethnically homogenous. Conflicts in this zone have tended to be less inter-ethnic and more intra-ethnic. That is not to suggest that inter-ethnic conflicts between minority settlers and indigenous Igbo people in Ibagwa and between Igbos and Fulani herdsmen in villages and cattle markets should be ignored. However, sub-ethnic identity conflicts in the zone are numerous. These conflicts take their origins variously from dialects of the Igbo language, clans, administrative distrust and even towns. Although these sub-identities according to Ibeanu (2003: 169) often have cultural, linguistic and geographical origins; they are subsequently cultivated and nurtured politically. Consequently, the predominant basis for identity conflict in the area is sub-ethnic. Ibeanu (2003: 173) explains that the Wawa in the Enugu and Ebonyi states of the zone do not take the word ‘wawa’ to be more significant than its occurrence in many dialects in the area. Initially, it had no cultural connotation. However, careful cultivation of the identity by politicians from the area has raised it into a sub-ethnic identity treasured and accepted across the zone. This tendency to cultivate sub-ethnic identities, and to mobilize grievances behind them for political and economic purposes, especially the work of town and clan associations, have been very important in intra-ethnic conflicts in the South-East Zone (Ibeanu, 2003).

The significance of the study of Ezza-Ezillo identity conflict is that first, it could serve as an experimental control for testing some assumptions underlying the study of ethnic conflicts in Nigeria, particularly those positing a link between ethnic differences and conflicts. Again, Ezza-Ezillo conflict focuses attention on intra-ethnic conflict which has not received adequate attention among scholars. This micro or sub-ethnic identity has not attracted much attention in the study of communal and ethnic conflicts in Nigeria.

2. Explaining Sub-Ethnic Conflicts

Identity-based conflicts became the dominant features of the historical, social and political processes in Nigeria from the late 19th century to present day. Recent studies have pointed out the surge of rural ethnicity in Nigeria. Hitherto, ethnicity was formulated as a predominantly urban phenomenon (Ibeanu and Mbah, 2011: 3). Consequently, Nnoli (1980) posits that the colonial urban centre with its insecurities and uncertainties for the migrant was the cradle of ethnicity in Nigeria. In Nigeria today, identity conflicts are exacerbated by the growing poverty of ordinary Nigerians and the state’s declining capacity for development. With the growing reduction in arable land due to a variety of reasons, land disputes keep multiplying especially in areas where communal boundaries are either too difficult to establish or contested by one of the parties. Consequently, identity conflicts due to social exclusion have increased the level of inter-communal violence and ethnic wars, which are defined here as cases of ethnic cleansing and genocide (Nzongola-Ntalaja, 2011:7).

Social exclusion is a function of class and other identity-based distinctions. The question of indigeneity in Africa assumes political significance with respect to identity-based conflicts in which the bone of contention is control over power and resources such as land. Inter-communal violence, based on identity conflicts, takes place between a group that defines itself as the rightful stakeholder and the one or those it perceives as intruders (Nzongola-Ntalaja, 2011: 8).
Ibeanu and Onu (2001: 3) have noted that the popularization of ethnicity in public discourse and academic research in Nigeria often conceal numerous unresolved theoretical and methodological issues surrounding identities and their roles in social and political action. They argued that these issues are crucial in any attempt to map ethnic and sub-ethnic identities in Nigeria.

There are two contending perspectives in explaining ethnic and sub-ethnic identity conflicts in Nigeria. The first is the primordialists perspective. The primordial argument suggests the naturalness and/or innateness of ethnic or national identity (Stalin, 1942; Shils, 1957; Naroll, 1964; Otite, 1999). In this view, membership of an ethnic group is at least partly, biologically defined (Otite, 1990: 19), which makes identities fixed (Stalin, 1942). Consequently, conflicts are inherent in inter-ethnic relations because ethnic groups have “ready made cleavages for man-made conflicts and alliances in a wider state system” (Otite, 1990: 19).

This is what Horowitz (1998) calls the “hard view” on ethnic groups. In it, ethnic groups are:

- inscriptive, firmly bounded entities based on a strong sense of communality, producing considerable loyalty, persisting over time, providing large affective rewards to group members, inclined to ethnocentrism and hostility to and a desire to dominate outsiders, liable to conflict behaviour based on passion and engendering a great willingness on the part of group members to sacrifice for collective welfare.

There is a tendency for primordialists to confuse an individual’s emotive subjectivity (feelings, consciousness, etc) towards an ethnic identity with its innateness. While it is true that certain biologically transmitted characteristics are necessary to make an individual’s claim to the membership of certain identities plausible, it is not the case that such biological characteristics are adequate to define such identities (Ibeanu and Onu, 2001: 3). The clearest example, according to them is race. It is assumed that the colour of one’s skin may be necessary tickets for gaining access to a racial identity, but they are never sufficient conditions.

The second perspective is the constructionist perspective. This school of thought suggests that ethnic identities are not inherited like skin colour, but constructed like an art object (Laitin, 1998, cited in Ibeanu and Onu, 2011). Ethnic identity, like any other identity, is dynamic and fluid rather than fixed and bounded. People learn identities as they group and become exposed to family, community and national histories. Communal identity is, therefore, false consciousness.

However, while the view that these sentiments are natural is highly presumptuous and historical, the view that they constitute false consciousness, which is instrumentalized by ruling classes, is too voluntaristic to be fundamental (Ibeanu, 2003). Ake, (1985) attributes the persistence of ethnic consciousness in post-colonial Nigeria to what he calls ‘the limited penetration of capitalism and commodity relations’. Consequently, he argues, that where there is a limited atomization of society, and the market ethic does not rule the lives of a vast majority of Nigerians in the rural areas. It is these factors which are characteristic of capitalism that can destroy such sentiments. Ake’s formulation without doubt advances our understanding of the persistence of ethnic and other communal sentiments. But there are two major problems with his formulation. First is that in those areas of the formation where we could rightly say that capitalism has substantially penetrated, for example the urban areas, such sentiments remain quite strong. Second and more fundamental is that Ake describes only one form of capitalist commodity relations, namely, the free market/competitive type. While this may be conducive to the atomization of society and the growth of individualism, other forms of capitalist commodity relations such as monopoly and oligopoly may, in fact, hamper these processes.
Sub-ethnic conflicts have not featured significantly in the analysis of identity and citizenship in Nigeria. Most often the focus is on conflict among ethnic groups. However, adequate analysis of citizenship, particularly conflicts relating to indigeneity in Nigeria should properly document not only the inter-ethnic level but also the intra-ethnic level of the problem. All original legal definitions of citizenship in the world are notorious by their exclusionary character. The fundamental dimension of the notion of citizenship in Africa follows attachment to one’s community and through it, to the soil of the ancestors or the homeland. This attachment was not in contradiction with the colonial legal concept of indigeneity, which was enforced through the indigenes, a separate legal status for Africans in French colonies until 1946 and the native authority system elsewhere.

The modern concept of citizenship is associated with the American and French revolutions. Citizenship became determined either by the place of birth (Jus soli or the law of the soil) or by blood (Jus Sanguinis). Consequently, while indigeneity or Jus Sanguinis is the first principle of citizenship in Africa, other legal principles do exist and can be used to broaden the boundaries of citizenship in post-colonial Africa (Nzongola, Ntalaja, 2011: 3). The democratization process, which involve expanding the political space to empower women, the young, ethnic minorities and other strata of the population, require the expansion of the boundaries of post-colonial citizenship beyond indigeneity in conformity with the realities and idea of globalization. However the poor performance of the federalist ideology in building a socially cohesive, politically stable and economically prosperous Nigeria is a result of weak commitment to the cultivation of “federal spirit” i.e. sufficient quantity of integrative principles and strict adherence to them in the process of governance.

At the heart of rural communal conflicts is the land question. Pressure on land resulting from a combination of expropriation, monetization, rising population density, degradation and resurgence of pre-colonial communal competition has raised land into a primal casus belli in rural communities. In this context, formal, modern demarcation of boundaries has ceased to be a trend. Consequently attempts by government to demarcate boundaries in order to keep warring communities apart, have failed to bring a lasting solution to violence (Ibeanu, 2003: 173).

Although land and the material interests are the objective causes of intra-ethnic conflict, they do not completely explain their persistence. There is a subjective dimension explaining their persistence. This is what we may describe as deep-seated animosity. By deep-seated animosity, we mean a sense of grievances shared by members of an intra-ethnic identity or a sustained sense of grievances towards another intra-ethnic identity arising from long standing conflict between the two. Consequently, while land is a necessary explanation of this conflict, it is this long standing animosity that explains their recurrence over time. This transformation is aptly demonstrated in the Ezza-Ezillo conflicts.

3. **Ezza-Ezillo Conflicts: The Interface of Material Interest and Animosity**

The two communities of Ezza and Ezillo are in Ishielu Local Government Area of Ebonyi State. They are believed to be homogenous in ethnic composition, marked out by a fairly distinct language, similar culture and a myth of common origin as well as having the same ancestral father with their kit and kin of Ngbo, Ezzamgbo, Izi, and Ikwo communities of the state. Unlike many multi-ethnic communities in Nigeria, it was reasonable to assume that ethnic-based conflicts would be minimized in such a setting of ethnic homogeneity. However, this has not been so. Rather Ezza and Ezillo people have engaged themselves in a bloody battle contesting the ownership of Ishimkpume, Amalinze, and Umuezikoha land and this has assumed frightening dimension.

Consequently, one of the most important factors motivating conflicts among the Igbos is land. This is because of the spirituality of land in Igbo culture as expressed in the prominence of the deity *Ana*. It is also expressed in the general view that the land is the spiritual connector of the living, the dead and
the unborn (Ibeanu and Mbah, 2011: 3). Thus, land is a very serious issue among the Igbo since it touches both the material and the spiritual, the very essence of Igbo ontology. Again, land is something that is worth dying for. However, the spiritual thesis affords a limited explanation of the violence that attends land disputes in Igbo land today. We think that at present the principal causal factors include the increasing commercialization of land, population pressure, collapse of traditional structures for gaining access to land and managing conflicts arising from it, as well as government rural development policies. Land remains one of the biggest basic natural resources in Igbo land. Land, however, is inelastic, yet population explosion is seriously making land acquisition, and compensation conflictive in nature and character.

While land and other material interests are the major immediate casus belli in communal conflicts they do not explain the identities that form around them and how these identities acquire specificity and become the basis of intensification of conflict. For instance, although both the Ezza and Ezillo agree that they are of the same ancestral father, their common descent has receded almost completely and they see themselves as distinct. It is paradoxical that two communities at one and the same time claim common descent, yet different identities. This paradox calls for an understanding or unpackaging of the character of identity formation and persistence. We can do this by reconciling the primordial/innate and constructions/instrumentalist viewpoints. The two are not opposing but they are dimensions of a historical process of emergence and development of ethnic and sub-ethnic identities. To be sure, an ethnic identity exists where there is a large group of people defined by:

1. Their collective consciousness of belonging to a cultural, linguistic or other communal ensemble;
2. Their collective attachment to a specific geographical homeland, and
3. Their collective engagement in the propagation and transmission of that identity over a relatively long period of time (Ibeanu and Mbah, 2011: 5).

However, the Ezza-Ezillo conflict started as a resource conflict over material interest in Ishimkpume, Amalinze, and Umuezikoha lands, and is now an animosity conflict. An animosity conflict is one in which memories of past conflicts acquire a relative autonomy, and become significant in renewing and intensifying conflicts. Animosity conflicts are likely to be prolonged conflicts in which the protagonists have memories of loss, hurt or humiliation. An animosity conflict often begins as resource conflict. However, over time the original cause of the conflict becomes only apparent, while bitter memories become the immediate course of new conflict. At the same time, fears of preemptory attacks by the opposing side usually provide a very short fuse that ignites new round of conflict.

4. An Analysis of the 2008 and 2010 Ezza-Ezillo Conflict

In Nigeria, the differential access, ownership, and control of land (farming, fishing, grazing, oil deposit, solid mineral deposit, etc.) by the nationals and the government is largely responsible for the recurrent incidents of sub-ethnic or inter-communal hostilities in the country. Ebonyi State is essentially dominated by peasant agricultural based communities. Instances of inter-communal strife are not alien to the state; it has witnessed pockets of sub-ethnic identity conflicts even before its creation in 1996. These fratricidal internecine conflicts (most of which have been resolved) include the communal conflict between Mgbalukwu, Obeagu, and Ojiegbe communities in Onicha Local Government Area; Akaeze-Oso Edda Land Dispute in Afikpo South Local Government Area; Nwanu-Nduoffia Communal Clashes in Izzi Local Government Area; ABC Farm Settlement Crisis in Ikwo Local Government Area; Crisis in Ameka Community over the ownership of Ameka Mining Corporation in Ezza South Local Government Area; Edukuwuachi-Agbaja Communal Conflict in Izzi Local Government Area (Ebonyi State Department of Border Security and Conflict Resolution Report, 2011).
The inter-communal interaction between the people of Ezillo and Ezza dates back to the late 1920s. The Ezillo Community, now the headquarters of Ishielu Local Government Area, had a communal conflict with Ngbo, its neighbouring community in the present-day Ohaukwu Local Government Area of the state. Because of their apparent ethnic homogeneity and myth of common descent which invariably forbade the Ezillo Community from shedding the blood of Ngbo people, Ezillo decided to lay a complaint before Ezza, generally regarded as the oldest of all Abakaliki clans. Accordingly, the Ezza came to make peace between the Ezillo and Ngbo Communities by occupying the buffer territory, which Ezillo insists is in the present-day Eguechara. On the contrary, the Ezza version of the story indicates that they were invited to fight and drive the Ngbo backwards and live in the land which is now the claimed present-day-disputed areas of Ishimkpume, Amalinze, Umuezikoha, amongst other hamlets in dispute.

The two communities had lived together peacefully and had even been inter-marrying after the defeat of Ngbo. Ezza people are generally nomadic, most populous, and most evenly spread across the three geo-political zones of the state. They are also found in Wawa land in Enugu as well as some parts of Benue, Kogi, and Cross-River States. Wherever the Ezza occupied, they would build new settlements and name such a place after themselves, hence there are places like Ezza-Ezillo, Ezza-Effium, Ezza-Akpoga, etc (Agbo, 2010:1; http://www.newswatchngr.com 13/02/2012). However, for purposes of this study, we shall consistently employ Ezza instead of Ezza-Ezillo in reference to the Ezza community of Ezillo extraction.

The Ezillo Community further holds that only twenty two Ezza men were invited to come and settle in Ezillo originally. With passage of time, however, they (the Ezzas) started inviting their kit and kin from Onueke, in the present-day Ezza South Local Government Area and began to occupy the extra portions of land that made both the Ezillo and Ezza live without a clearly defined boundary. Consequently, problems ensued and Ezillo sought for Ezza relocation to Eguechara, the place the former maintained was the original place it agreed to give to the latter. The matter was taken to an Abakaliki colonial customary court in 1955 and the court ruled in favour of Ezillo, thereby mandating the Ezza to move to Eguechara. The Ezza appealed the matter before an Abakaliki colonial district officer called Mr. Gunning who affirmed the judgement of the customary court. However, the Ezza remained in the land till 9th May, 2008, when the dispute that led to the February 19, 2010 and December 31, 2011 recrudescence of bloodbath in the area started.

Although land has been identified as the primal casus belli in the origination and escalation of the protracted conflict, the Ezzas’ quest for different identity is also implicated in its recrudescence. They had built churches and separate traditional leadership institutions for themselves as a means of checkmating the dominance of the Ezillo people who regarded them as settlers. For many years the Ezillo Community had complained that scholarships meant for their indigenes were taken by the Ezza people because of their positions in government both at the state and federal levels. That is why Otite (1999:25) argues that identity mobilization acquires significance because of the struggle for access to a variety of limited resources which could include power, chieftaincy, market or land. More often than not the negative mobilization of such identities as ethnicity, religion, language, clan or race in the pursuit of access to the limited resources further fuels conflict and violence. The Ezillo people began to see the position of the Ezzas as a threat and consequently mobilized themselves to checkmate their hegemonic disposition.

The latest war started after a misunderstanding on where to erect a commercial pay phone booth broke out between an indigene of Ezillo and an Ezza man. The disagreement led to the pulling down of the booth and consequent burning of motorcycles that belonged to both parties. The problem escalated and culminated into a full-blown war with the attendant loss of innocent lives and destruction of valuable property. Although, it was settled, it resurfaced with a much greater force in January 2010, leaving
hundreds of residents, unsuspecting travellers and police officers dead. The recent crisis between Ezillo and Ezza communities dubbed ‘The Ezillo Mass Murder’ cropped up on December 31, 2011. According to Ubabukoh (2012:1), when relative peace eventually returned, over 70 people were dead, over 100 survivors are still recuperating in various hospitals in the state while about 700 people were declared missing. Essentially, the war was a hangover or reverberation of the deep-seated animosity between the two belligerent communities which was often suppressed by recourse to the coercive apparatuses of the state.

5. Previous Attempts to Manage the Conflict

As stated earlier, the efforts of the government to address the internecine conflict between the Ezillo and Ezza communities dates back to the colonial era. The matter was brought to an Abakaliki colonial customary court in 1955 when the court ruled in favour of Ezillo, mandating the Ezza to move to Eguechara. However, the Ezza appealed the matter before an Abakaliki colonial district master, Mr. Gunning who affirmed the judgment of the customary court. However, the Ezza remained in the disputed territories till May 2008 when the inter-communal conflict became full-blown.

Consequently, the Ebonyi State Government set up a peace committee headed by Eze Chibueze Agbo, the traditional ruler of Ezzamgbo, with the mandate to unravel the remote and the immediate causes of the conflict and make recommendations accordingly. The formation of the committee was vehemently opposed by Ezza people, especially concerning the objectivity of its headship. The Ezza community accused Governor Martins Elechi of composing a panel headed by an Ngbo man, who could carry over the grudge of the Ezza’s olden days’ war against the Ngbo. Thus, the Ezza expressed their loss of confidence in the panel that was sitting in Ishielu Local Government Council Secretariat instead of the preferred state capital.

The committee amongst other things recommended the relocation of Ezza to Eguechara land originally allocated to them by Ezillo people through the customary method of land allocation *imaba ogbu*. The Government White Paper of 2nd October, 2008 on the panel report accepted the report and consequently directed the Ezza to vacate a substantial portion of the land to Eguechara (Mkpuma, 2012:3). The Ezza protested that they had been short-changed and swore never to relocate to the new land; leaving their houses and cash crops.

With the withdrawal of the military in 2010, the then Inspector General of Police, Ogbonnaya Onovo, ordered a large scale police operation in the area to flush out militants who were killing innocent users of Abakaliki-Enugu expressway at will. According to Mkpuma (2012:3) a combined team of men of the Ebonyi State Police command and those of the Force Headquarters, Abuja, stormed six enclaves of the warring militants, capturing 34 persons, including women. He further noted that the operation witnessed the deployment of police helicopter and over 1500 mobile policemen from various mobile units across the country. The police sacked the remaining Ezza people from the disputed area and forced them to relocate to Ezza North Local Government Area (their ancestral home). However, the operation witnessed a huge casualty with more than 400 lives lost, including those of 16 policemen and three soldiers in the Abakaliki-Enugu Expressway (Mkpuma, 2012:4). The exercise led to the suppression of the communal unrest until the December 31, 2011 attacks that reopened the old wounds.

6. Policy Option and Conclusion

True conflict resolution requires a more analytical, problem-solving approach than dispute settlement. The main difference is that resolution requires identifying the causal factors behind the conflict, and finding ways to deal with them. On the other hand, settlement is simply aimed at ending a dispute as quickly and amicably as possible. This means that most sub-ethnic conflicts are settled, while, the underlying causes of the conflicts are not addressed.
The heights of serious conflicts in Nigeria are attained following the dispatch of soldiers to quell crisis, and this has become a regular method of settlement in most communal conflicts in Nigeria. This method sees that fighting between the communities involved is stopped. However, the underlying causes of the conflict structure of society are not usually addressed. No significant socio-economic or political changes that restructure the boundaries or economic welfare in a more just or inclusive way are adopted by the government. As a result, there are reoccurrence of sub-ethnic identity conflicts in Nigeria. Thus, conciliation is sacrificed. We therefore recommend conciliation as a major strategy for the purpose of resolving Ezza-Ezillo conflict. Conciliation is a process whereby Ezza and Ezillo communities would agree to utilize the services of a conciliator or conciliators who meet with the leaders of the communities involved in an attempt to resolve their differences. Through this process, concessions are sought and reached. When this is achieved, understanding between the communities will also be achieved.

The conflicts between Ezza and Ezillo show that citizenship question is below the often issue of ethnic question. The reason is that intra-ethnic conflicts demonstrate the interface and the centrality of material questions in defining citizenship conflicts. Ibeanu and Mbah (2011: 14) explain that indigenes and settlers are contrary to common reasoning, principally economic categories. This is to understand the intricate ways in which economic interest become part of the complex of construction, propagation, primordialization and intensification of contradictory cultural identities, leading to indigene-settler conflicts. The pieces of land namely Ishimkpume, Amalinze, and Umuezikoha, are the central cause of the Ezza-Ezillo conflict. While the ownership of the disputed territories is the lasting cause of the conflict, the animosity arising from a lingering sense of deprivation has assured its persistence. It is in the context of this animosity that Ishimkpume land amongst others has become a central basis for contracting, propagating, primodalizing and intensifying the differences between the two communities. It is difficult to reverse this trend and pattern of conflict between Ezza and Ezillo.

As Ibeanu (2003) notes, regarding the Aguleri-Umuleri conflicts, the zero-sum solutions that have been predominantly pursued by the state since colonial times have not, in any way, helped matters in resolving the micro-ethnic conflicts. Both in court judgments and in white papers of investigation panels, these solutions have applied standards of justice which only serve to exclude people and deepen animosities. Consequently, alternative solutions to Ezza-Ezillo conflicts need to be sought since the zero-sum solutions have failed to bring peace to the two communities. We think the Aguleri-Umuleri solution might also be helpful.

The major thrust of this initiative was the return to traditional means of settling disputes. The settlements of the Aguleri-Umuleri conflict started by setting up a process of traditional oath taking and covenant to end the feuding and shedding of blood. Oath taking (inu iyi) and blood covenant (Iko Mme or Igba Ndu) are common traditional practices in traditional societies of the Igbo people. The first involve swearing to powerful community deities and pledging a specified course of behaviour. Oath-taking was a very powerful mechanism for behavioural change in traditional Igbo societies. The second arises in situations where there has been shedding of blood. It is a means of appeasing the Ana deity, who abhors the spilling of blood (Ibeanu and Mbah, 2011: 15). Igba ndu involves sacrifices and may also involve reparations taking the form of exchange of human beings to replace the dead or mere exchange of valuables and/or services. These practices which had previously been widely abandoned were reinvented in spite of the tremendous progress of Christianity in the case of Aguleri-Umuleri area. Those practices helped to bring peace to the two communities. This signifies the failure of previous approaches to solving the problem. These practices can be applied in the case of Ezza-Ezillo conflicts as a mechanism for peace and stability in the two communities and their environs. This would follow after the first one, conciliation has been reached.

References


THE ROLE OF TACTICAL PLANS IN ACHIEVING ORGANIZATIONAL GROWTH AND OBJECTIVES: (A CASE STUDY OF ZENITH BANK PLC DAMATURU BRANCH)

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Abstract

The role of tactical plans is an activity that is said to be inherent in everything a manager does in reality the essence of every given organization is for the organization to achieve its goals effectively and efficiently it follows therefore that such goals or objective cannot be achieved just like that, it need all the required planning inputs to attain the targeted goals of the organization. The survey method of research design was adopted for the study, the of population study comprises of the entire staff of Zenith Bank Damaturu, (38) in total, out of which thirty five (35) respondents were selected for the study, from both the senior and junior staff. The sampling techniques use in selecting the respondent for the study is the simple random sampling, both primary and secondary sources of data collection were adopted for the study, data collected were presented and analyzed in a tabular form, and the simple percentage was the statistical tools use in data analysis and finding were made that effective planning program me leads to the achievement of the aims and objectives of the organization and recommendations were therefore proffered for effective and efficient management of this organization some of this recommendations are avoidance of short cut, in planning process and manager should also make plans on daily basis so as to check mate change in Business environment.

Key Words: Tactical Plans, Organization, Growth and Objectives.

1. INTRODUCTION

Planning is a major component of the management processes at all levels of organizational life, it is an activity which begins by considering or redefining the aims and objectives of the organization, or a unit within it. This activity in itself requires organizations and their sub-unit’s to make a thorough assessment of their external environment and their internal structure process and resources. Planning is also about taking steps (making plans) to agree on the means by which aims and objectives will be fulfilled. This is as much concerned with decision making process as with the provision of resources and the allocation of time schedules as part of the planning process is concerned with the manner in which plans will be carried out. This aspect of planning has received greater prominence in recent years as organizations strive towards meeting objective associated with such concepts as “total quality” customer satisfaction and excellence. The conduct of organization is generally governed by such written document as mission statement, customer charters, policy statement and the like. It is also determined by the implicit (and unwritten) standards that underpin organizational behaviors and cultural norms.

In addition, one may wonder why some organizations have failed. Is it because managers in these organizations are ineffective in making good plans? Or is it because the stated
Objectives of the organization lack credibility and reliability, therefore making plan ineffective? These are related burning questions which have prompted this study; furthermore, the purpose of this paper is to examine the role of tactical plans in achieving organizational growth and objectives with a particular reference to zenith bank plc Damaturu Branch, Yobe State.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

THE CONCEPT OF PLANNING

Planning is a major aspect of most managerial jobs especially those at the higher level. Consequentially, it has been the object of considerable decision both written and spoken. Inner (1973) planning in the past and even today is said to be inherent in everything a manager does it should be noted that it is futile for manager to attempt to perform the other management function without having a plan. Rue and Byers (1977) are of the opinion that managers who attempts to organize without a plan will find them re-organize without a regular basis. The manager who attempts to staff without a plan will be constantly living and firing employees. Motivation is also impossible in organization characterized by continuous re-organizing and excessive employees turnover. In similar vein, AAT work book (1989) highlighted that “Planning is arguably the most significant change in management thinking in modern times.

There have been various approaches to the concept of planning. Welrich and koantz (2002) viewed planning as “that aspect of management that involves selecting missions and the action to achieve them. it require decision making that is choosing from among alternate course of action.” Dam Robert and associates (1979) in their words saw planning as “preparing for the future of the firm be establishing objectives and the method for achieving them, “Evidently, when a manager plans, he or she establishes objective for the organization, and tries to determine the best way to accomplish them. Rue and Byers (1979) conceptualized planning as “the process of deciding what objective to pursue during the future period and what to do in order to achieve that objective” they further stressed that the process planning is consist of two major segments.

1. Setting objectives
2. Determining course of action to be used in achieving those objectives adding also planning answer three (3) basic questions
   a. Where are we now?
   b. Where do we want to be?
   c. How can we get there?

In reality, the first question calls for an assessment of the present, situation, the second question involves determining the desired objective and the third question requires an outline of action and analysis of the financial impact.

Nwachukwu, (1988) looked at planning as “something that goes beyond attempting to attain stated organizational objective. It involve the development of strategy and the procedure require for effective realization of the entire plans, it entails determination of control, direction, and methods of accomplishing the overall organizational objective, he further stressed that: planning involve the establishment of strategies to achieve the objective and step-by-step determination of the activities and resource necessary to achieve them. The above author have similar view, their definitions indicate that planning is the process of
establishing objectives and how to determine the best way of achieving these established objectives stoner and Freeman (1989) define planning as the process of establishing objective and suitable course of action.

In the work of Hell Rigel and Slocum (1996) planning is seen as that management function that involve defining goals and objectives for future performance and deciding on how to reach them “ on a more comprehensive note they argued that planning is the formal process of

1. Choosing an organization mission and overall goals for both the short run and the long run.
2. Devising divisional department and even individual goals best on the organizational goals choosing strategies and tactic to achieve those goals and
3. Allocation resources to achieve the various goals strategies and tactics gale wood, taylor and ferred (1995) posited that “ planning involve determined what the organization will specifically accomplished, deciding on how to accomplish these goals and developing methods to reach them. Taylor and sparke (1970) argued that “Planning is the systematic exercises in determine the total resource of the organization to the achievement of its quantified objective without a specified time frame. Taylor and sparkes (1970) in Osaze (1991) argued that “planning is the systematic exercise in determining the total resources of the organization to the achievement of its quantified objective without specific time frame. Lucey (1991) defined planning as the establishment of objective and the formulation, evaluation and the selection of policies strategies tactic and action required to achieve these objectives. In a nutshell, the research shows similar view with the above authors, planning is generally a process of determining organizational objectives or goals and how best those objective can effective by be attained. The essence of every plan is to facilitate the accomplished purpose and objectives and most importantly to reduce business risk.

TYPES OF PLANNING

A plan is course of action outcome of every planning process depending on the need at hand. This then implies that there are many types of plan; depending on the need and nature of the business we shall examine various types of plan as identified by Hellrich and slocum (1996)

1. Long – range plan
2. Medium – range plan

LONG – RANGE PLAN: This type of planning is commonly referred to strategic planning, it determines the major objective of the enterprise and the policies and strategies for obtaining and employing resources to achieve predetermine goals. It should be noted that strategy planning is a function of top management.

MEDIUM – RANGE PLAN: Medium, range plan is the preparation of alternative course of action that may be use if the primary plans do not achieve the objective of the enterprise. Such plans are made in anticipation of future change.

SHORT – RANGE PLAN: Short range plan is the process of making detailed decision about what to do, who will do it within normal time horizon of one year or less. It takes care
of intermediate and immediate plans of the firm and is usually done at the lower level of management such as annual budgets.

FEATURES OF TACTICAL PLANS

Certain features distinguish a good plan from a bad one. Nwachukwu (1988) identified the following distinguishing features of tactical plan.

a. Tactical plans, most have clearly defined objective in terms of scope, accuracy, clarity and definitiveness
b. Tactical plans must be reasonably economical and should consider the resources available.
c. Tactical plans must be flexible plan can be adjusted smoothly without delay or serious loss of economy
d. Tactical plans should be realistic and capable of implementation
e. Tactical plans should be comprehensive. This make it possible to take a system view of the entire organization
f. Tactical plans should contain alternative course of action to meet possible change as the arise
g. Evidently effective plans should be such that all members of the organization will see as “real and work implementing. Secondly plans should be flexible so as to accommodate new change.

THE IMPORTANCE OF TACTICAL PLANS

Tactical plans as earlier noted is a core aspect of management in the achievement of the overall objective of an organization it should be noted that tactical plans performed the levels of management its is important in the day- to –day activities such as that one done by departmental and operating personnel. However Saleh, A. (2001-2-3) identified the following important of tactical plans.

1. Tactical plans serve as a guide to action through the establishment of policies, rules and procedures. Any organization without define policy lacks proper direction.
2. In tactical plans, objective are established which are not only offer a means of measuring the performance, but are also means of achieving any improvement in what has been done before.
3. Tactical plans ensure unity of direction because stating objectives are lying down policies is a means of coordination between different segments of an organization.
4. Tactical plans serve as a guide to action through the establishment of policies, rules and procedures. Any organization without well defined policies lacks proper direction.
5. Tactical plans eliminate bottle necks in operations for example ensures that require resources are available when needed and thus ensuring continuity of operation.
6. The tactical plan considers time facts especially in terms of operation and other activities that is involved.
7. Its importance also lies in its pervasiveness in that implementation the result of planning affect the other function of management for example, if one doesn’t plan
well, it can affect organizing, directing and controlling. Evidently, the importance above is undoubtedly obvious axons.

There are obvious because, the essence of any planning activity is to offset uncertainty and mission. It also helps an organization in gaining economy of operation and finally, it provides room for co-ordination growth sustainer and development.

**ESSENTIAL STEPS IN TACTICAL PLANS**

Tactical plans are meant to increase probability that the organization will achieve its objective. This follows therefore that steps in tactical plans should not be violated in tactical plan, the more likely that the objectives of the organization will not be achieved.

Gate wood, Taylor, Ferrel (1995) have identified eight (8) steps of tactical planning. This include creating the mission statements, assessing the current situation, stating goals, specifying assumption creating the plan, implementing the plan and finally evaluating the results.

Gate wood, Taylor and ferrel were of the opinion that, in tactical plans the organization should define their fundamental purpose taking into cognition its present situations. After this, the other steps should instantaneously be followed united it reaches evaluation stage.

Similarly Nwachukwu, C., C. (1988) gave six (6) steps in the tactical planning process. These include organizational objectives identification of opportunities and selection of course of action, formulation of specific targets, implementation and finally feedback.

Gate wood, Taylor, Ferrel and Nwachuku’s view reveal that in tactical plans the current situation should properly be assessed, secondly, organizations should always shift from thinking mode to the during mode. That is, they should see that plans are implemented.

In another related development; free man and stoner (1989) identified four (4) basic steps these include:

i. Establish a goal or set of goals
ii. Define present situation
iii. Identify aid and barriers
iv. And finally develop a course of action.

The researcher is of the view that, Gate wood, Taylor, Gerrel and Nwachukwu's steps, in the tactical planning process are the most appropriate steps, though the above authors have similar views. Free man and stoner have neglected the usefulness of feedback or evaluation of plans as put forward by Gate wood, Taylor, Ferrel and Nwachukwu. This step of feedback or evaluation of plans is very important in any planning process because after comprehensive plan is made, there is the need therefore to review the plans to see whether the result is in line with the objective of the organization or not.

3. **METHODOLOGY**

The survey method of research design was adopted for the study, the of population study comprises of the entire staff of Zenith Bank Damaturu, (38) in total, out of which thirty five (35) respondents were selected for the study, from both the senior and junior staff. This is because the entire population cannot be studied. The sampling techniques use in selecting the
respondent for the study is the simple random sampling; this is because every member of the population has an equal chance to be selected for the study. Both primary and secondary sources of data collection were adopted for the study, data collected were presented and analyzed in a tabular form, and the simple percentage was the statistical tools use in data analysis.

Research Questions

1. What is the role of tactical planning in achieving organizational growth and objectives?
2. Does tactical planning have a significant effect on organizational growth and objectives?
3. What is the nature of tactical planning in organizations?
4. Of what importance is tactical planning in an organization?
5. What is the procedure or steps involved in tactical planning?
6. What are plausible ways of rectifying anomalies identified in planning process?

4. DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

Table 4.1 Effectiveness and role of the methods of planning adopted in an organization

<table>
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<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<td>63</td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
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<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The table above indicates that 19 respondent, representing (63%) of the respondents agree that the planning method of the organization under study is effective while, the remaining respondents constituting (37%) do not think so, in their responses. This implies that the achievement of the aims and objectives the organization depends on the planning method adopted by organization.

Table 4.2 Period of tactical plan and it effect on organization

<table>
<thead>
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<th>VARIABLES</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DAILY</td>
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<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MONTHLY</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANNUALY</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shown that 18 respondents constituting (60%) were of the view in their responses that planning should be a daily task, while 2 respondent (7%) were of the opinion that planning is a monthly task 10 respondent (33%) on the other hand responded that planning is should be an annual task. This simply means that for a business to operate successful in the world of dynamic and complex environmental changes in business planning should be on daily bases.

Table 4.3 whether effective planning lead to the achievement of organizational goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>100</td>
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<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013
The above table indicates that 30 respondents constituting (100%) of the respondents were positive in their responses as to whether effective planning will lead to the achievement of organizational goals. This implies that if plans of an organization are effective, then the organization stands the chance of achieving its goals successfully.

Table 4.4 lack of good communication on plan and action to organization members is the reason why many organization plans fail.

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<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table shows that 20 respondent constituting (67%) respondents positively state that lack of communication of goals plan and action to organizational members is the reason why most organization fail in the planning activities, while 10 respondents constituting (33%) of the respondents were negatively inclined. The research however, shares a view with the higher percentage because for an organization to have an effective planning process the goals must be communicated to all the member of the organization.

Table 4.5 whether organization encounter problems before making plans to deal with such problem

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLES</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>YES</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2013

The above table indicates that 10 respondents constituting (33%) of the respondents were of the opinion that an organization should wait until it encounters problems before making plans to deal with such problems, while 20 respondents (67%) were positively inclined. This signifies that planning is a futuristic activity and therefore does not condole waiting to encounter problem before planning to deal with it.

Table 4.6 Responses on those involved in planning in an organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>FREQUENCY</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Board of directors</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functional managers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the levels of management</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey

In the above table, 10 respondents constituting (33%) of the respondents responded that, the planning activity of an organization is purely for the board of Directors while 2 respondents representing (7%) are of the planning activities is the responsibility of the functional manager, while an overwhelming majority of the respondents are of the opinion that planning activity should be done at all level of management this represented by 60% of the respondents. The researcher however, shares view with the higher percentage which indicate that planning activity is at all level of management. This is inconsonance with every ideal organization of which the organization, under study is no by exemption.
RESEARCH FINDINGS

Questionnaires, which were the main source of data collection instruments, were obtained from the respondents and checked for completeness. Only questionnaires that were 90% complete were considered for data analysis and the overall response rate was checked if it was over 90% of the total sample size. The data obtained from the questionnaires was examined to detect errors and questions that were not answered properly, all the mistakes were analyzed and poorly answered questionnaires exempted from the analysis process. This increased accuracy, consistency and reliability of the gathered facts. Data completeness and uniformity was maintained and this facilitated application of other data analysis techniques such as data organization, data classification and tabulation. As such at the course of the study it was noticed that

1. There is also lack of communication of good plans and action to the organizational members by the top management which often times render their plan ineffective.

2. In addition it was also noticed that the method of plan adopted by the bank is effective, which in turn leads to the achievement of the organizational goals of the bank.

3. At the course of the study it was also observed that managers and organization that plan tend to perform better in the realization of the organizational goals.

4. It was yet again noticed, that environment also affects the effectiveness of plan adopted by an organization.

5. It was yet again revealed that planning activities in an organization is mostly carried out by all levels of management.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Planning is a major aspect of most managerial jobs especially those at the higher level. Consequentially, it has been the object of considerable decision both written and spoken. Inner (1973) planning in the past and even today is said to be inherent in everything a manager does it should be noted that it is futile for manager to attempt to perform the other management function without having a plan. Base on the findings of the study the following recommendations are advice for the organization under discussion and any organization interested in improving the quality of planning activity and as well as improvement, of workers performance.

1. The organization under discussion should as a matter of fact make plans on a daily basis this is to checkmate change in business environment.

2. Managers should always specify objectives to all members of the organization, which will serve as guide to action.

3. Short cuts in planning process should be avoided by managers. This matters for greater success in making plans.

4. Managers should not always wait until when a problem surface before making plans to deals with it; if they do, it may spell doom for the organization.

5. Managers should carry everybody along if their plans are to be effective. This can be done by way of involving all the process.

6. Managers should also as a matter of fact always communicate goals plans and action to all members of the organizations if they have to achieve effective planning.
THE REVIEW OF THE ROLE OF SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED ENTERPRISES FOR ECONOMIC GROWTH

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ABSTRACT

This study, the role of small and medium sized enterprises for economic growth, was undertaken to find out how SME sub-sector in Nigeria has performed and its impact on the economic growth of the country. Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) is accepted globally as a tool for empowering the citizenry and economic growth. It has been associated with the rapid economic growth of countries in Asia and North America. In Nigeria efforts have been made by successive governments to reduce poverty and accelerate economic growth by increasing foreign direct investment, diversifying the economy, enacting policy frameworks which favour small business ownership and sometimes initiating employment and entrepreneurship programmes. Specifically this study tends to figure out: how profitable SME business is; whether infrastructural development could be attributed to the presence of SMEs; if significant number of people are employed within the SME sector; whether the SME market has attracted banks and financial institutions with increase in loans and incentives; whether there is increase in information Technology related businesses due to presence of SMEs and if there is need for the government to encourage and develop more opportunities for SMEs.

Key Words: SMEs, Enterprises, Economic, and Economic Growth

1. Introduction

In the words of Levitsky (1996) and Zecchini (1997) small enterprise development is portrayed as one of the most successful economic development trajectories in the post-communist economies of central and Eastern Europe. According to Milford (2000), while quoting from World bank (2000), “enormous store has been placed on its presumed capacity to address extreme poverty, create desperately needed jobs, halt the ongoing de-industrialization process and curtail any further ethnic unrest associated with bleak economic prospects and social collapse”.

Nigeria seeks to be counted among the world’s 20 largest economies by 2020 and this to many is not practical. The goal of this research work is to determine using primary and secondary data, the role of small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) so far in the economic growth of Nigeria. This would enable one to make deductions and suggestions on how to make use of SMEs at the local scale to engender economic development.

What constitute a small and medium scale enterprise varies especially from country to country. For example, according to the newly enacted Indian Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises Development Act 2006, enterprises are classified into Micro, Small and Medium according to the following criteria:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of enterprise</th>
<th>Engaged in manufacture or production of goods</th>
<th>Engaged in providing or rendering of services</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Micro enterprise</td>
<td>Does not exceed 25 Lakh rupees</td>
<td>Does not exceed 10 Lakh rupees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Investment in plant and machinery</td>
<td>Investment in equipment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small enterprise</td>
<td>More than 25 Lakh rupees, but does not exceed 5 Crore rupees</td>
<td>More than 10 Lakh rupees, but does not exceed 2 Crore rupees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium enterprise</td>
<td>More than 5 Crore rupees but does not exceed 10 Crore rupees</td>
<td>More than 2 Crore rupees but does not exceed 5 Crore rupees</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: The Indian working group on science and technology for Small- and medium-scale enterprises, 2007-2011

In Taiwan, enterprises in the manufacturing, construction and mining and quarrying sectors that have paid-in capital of less than NT$80 million or fewer than 200 regular employees are classed as SMEs. For other industries, those enterprises that had annual operating revenue of less than NT$100 million in the previous year or that have fewer than 50 regular employees are classed as SMEs (White paper on SMEs in Taiwan, 2008).

In the United States of America, enterprises in the manufacturing sectors with fewer than 500 regular employees or wholesaling and retailing sectors with fewer than 100 regular employees and an average annual operating revenue of less than US$6 million are classified as SMEs. For the services and construction sector, they may have an average annual income of less than US$6 million and less than US$28.5 million respectively to be classified as SMEs (White paper on SMEs in Taiwan, 2007). In the United Kingdom the classification is based on staff strength. They classify businesses with less than 250 regular employees as SMEs (UK: Department of Trade and Industry).

This research paper intends to validate the link between the monetary value of SME output and economic growth in the Nigeria context. The statistical definition of SMEs varies by country, and is usually based on the number of employees, capital, or the value of assets and sales volume (Kanamori et al., 2006). According to Schaper (2000), SMEs account for over 95% of private sector firms in most industrialized economies. The importance of SMEs in driving economic growth is again emphasized in the case of communist East and Central European countries that allowed limited forms of officially-sanctioned SME development as a way of ameliorating poor economic performance and lifting living standards (Patterson, 1993). According to Rowen et al., (1998) the rapidity of industrial development success achieved in the last thirty years in East Asian economies have been staggering and this is attributed to SMEs.

This may be the same in developing countries of Africa, such as Nigeria but the degree of impact on economic growth needs to be properly documented and investigated using local case studies. This study seeks to gather data from all relevant sources on the extent to which SMEs have affects the Nigerian economy. The core will be investigating the impact of SME in Nigeria’s economic growth. The research outcome may either validate it as a viable economic tool in the Nigerian circumstance or nullify the belief that it drives the country’s economic growth. Information gathered from primary sources will answer questions on the size of typical SMEs, ownership patterns, approximated value of assets as well as level of assimilation of information technology.

2. Literature review

An overview of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises

Nigeria remains a country with very high potential but an equally high inertia to develop. The country is blessed with abundant supply of enormous human, agricultural, petroleum, gas, and large untapped solid mineral resources (Obadan, 2003). Since her independence from British rule in 1960, the country has gone through decades of political instability and this has brought with it a climate of
social tension and an unpredictable market for business. The successive forceful takeover of
government by the use of military coup and the indigenization policy of the late 70’s has put off
investors who hitherto saw the country as a large and growing market. Due to the nature of these
governments, there is perceived corruption, policy instability, poor infrastructural development and
lack of accountability of public funds. For these reasons, the World Bank described Nigeria as a
paradox (World Bank, 1996). This is also true for most Sub-Saharan African countries as industrial
production has declined or stagnated over the past decades (Lall, 1992).

According to Mambula (1997), since its independence, the Nigerian government has been spending
an immense amount of money obtained from external funding institutions for entrepreneurial and
small business development programs, which have generally yielded poor results. Unfortunately
these funds hardly reach the desired business because they may be lost to bureaucratic bottle necks
and end up in accounts of public office holders.

Despite these setbacks, the role of small business owned by middle class Nigerians, set up by
individual savings, gifts and loans and sometimes sustained by profit cannot be ignored. According
to Asmelash (2002) countries that have made economic breakthroughs in the last two decades
demonstrate beyond doubt that the development of entrepreneurship has been the sine qua non of
economic growth and development. According to Asmelah (2002), the significant role SMEs play in
development is acknowledged world over. He cited the work of Schell, (1996) who noted that in
developed countries such as the USA, where big corporations are dominant, SMEs still play
enormous role in the country’s economy. Also, according to the report of the Indian working group
on science and technology for Small- and medium-scale enterprises, SMEs occupy an important and
strategic place in economic growth and equitable development in all countries. Constituting as high
as 90% of enterprises in most countries worldwide, SMEs are the driving force behind a large
number of innovations and contribute to the growth of the national economy through employment
creation, investments and exports. Owing to the success of the Asian tigers, interest is running high
globally particularly in developing countries that are in the rat race to meet up and reduce the
economic and development gap. Chinese and foreign experts estimate that SMEs are now
responsible for about 60% of China's industrial output and employ about 75% of the workforce in
China's cities and towns (Schell, 1996). These SMEs creates jobs for workers who have been laid off
from state-owned enterprises due to the steady transition from communism to a market based
economy.

According to Cook and Nisxon (2000), interest in the role of small and medium-sized enterprises
(SMEs) in the development process continues to be in the forefront of policy debates in developing
countries. Owing to the relevance of SME’s, in 2006 the government of Taiwan launched a $61
million "branding" initiative, which is aimed to push the economy from being production-based to
knowledge-based. According to the report in EE Times Asia in August 2006, the so-called "Branding
Taiwan Plan" is a seven-year program designed to help promising small-to-medium enterprises
(SMEs) in developing their own brand, according to the Taiwanese government. This was initiated
with the full consciousness of the ability of SMEs to drive the economy particularly in the medium
term. Small businesses employ 72,000,000 people (Asmelash, 2002).More than 90 per cent of the
industries in Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, India and Sri Lanka are small
enterprises (Fadahunsi and Daodu 1997).

A 2004 survey conducted by the Manufacturers Association of Nigeria (MAN) revealed that only
about ten percent (10%) of industries run by its members are fully operational. Essentially, this
means that 90 percent of the industries are either ailing or have closed down. Given the fact that
manufacturing industries are well-known catalysts for real growth and development of any nation,
this reality clearly portends a great danger for the Nigerian economy. The acting director-general of
the association, Mr. Jide Mike, who disclosed this fact, attributed the cause of this sorry state to
such factors as poor infrastructure, multiple taxes imposed on manufacturers in Lagos state by all tiers of government and the difficulty in accessing finance. He noted, “The debris of dilapidated manufacturing concerns across the country is the outcome of years of harsh operating conditions”. Mr. Jide Mike also remarked, “In addition to policy somersault, funding remains a challenge to all stakeholders in the manufacturing sector, the several palliatives, including the Small and Medium Industries Equity Investment Scheme (SMIEIS) and other sector-specific incentives notwithstanding”. He added, “In summary, 30 percent of industries in Nigeria have closed down. About 60 percent are ailing companies and only 10 percent operate at sustainable level”. The acting director-general of MAN emphasized that low capacity utilization has undermined the competitiveness of manufacturing industries, whose fortunes have been worsened by the impact of globalization. He recalled that at Nigeria’s independence in 1960, the manufacturing sector’s contribution to national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was 3.8 percent and that despite the discovery of oil, manufacturing contributed as much as 9.9 percent to the GDP from 1975 to 1981 when capacity building was above 70 percent. Mr. Jide Mike however regretted that the story is different today as the manufacturing sector is back at the independence level as it contributed a mere 4.7 percent to GDP in 2003 while industrial capacity utilization dropped to a paltry 48.8 percent in 2003. The above is indeed not encouraging as it is representative of the fate of the manufacturing sub-sector of the SMEs. It is said that the large manufacturing companies are even better off given that those of them, which have international affiliation do get succor and support from their parent companies or technical partners overseas. The support and services the multinationals get from their parent companies could be driven by the profit repatriation, expansion of their overseas market and other motivations but overall, the Nigerian economy benefits if only through employment generation. President Olusegun Obasanjo in his address on March 01, 2002 at the commissioning of the headquarters of SMEDAN (The Small and Medium Enterprises Development Agency of Nigeria) in Abuja also noted that there was a great disconnection between the SMEs and the large companies in Nigeria, pointing out that the multinational companies dominated business in the country even in the area of finished products. Because of these and other debilitating problems, only about 10 percent of SMEs in Nigeria are into manufacturing.

The Nature of the Study Matter

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) as defined by the National Council of Industries refer to business enterprises whose total costs excluding land is not more than two hundred million naira (N200, 000,000.00) only. A lot has been said and written about SMEs the world over. It has also formed the subject of discussions in so many seminars and workshops both locally and internationally. In the same token, governments at various levels (local, state and Federal levels) have in one way or the other focused on the Small and Medium Enterprises. While some governments had formulated policies aimed at facilitating and empowering the growth and development and performance of the SMEs, others had focused on assisting the SMEs to grow through soft loans and other fiscal incentives. International agencies and organizations (World Bank, United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO), International Finance Corporation (IFC), United Kingdom Department For International Development (DFID), European Investment Bank (EIB) etc are not only keenly interested in making SMEs robust and vibrant in developing countries but have also heavily invested in them. Locally in Nigeria, the several Non-Governmental Organizations such as Fate foundation, Support and Training Entrepreneurship Programme (STEP), the Nigerian Investment Promotion Commission (NIPC), the Association of Nigerian Development Finance Institutions (ANDFI), as well as individual Development Finance Institutions (DFIs) have been promoting the growth of SMEs in Nigeria through advocacy and capacity-building initiatives, and have continued to canvass for better support structures for operators in the SME sub-sector. All the massive attention and support given to SMEs relate to the widely acclaimed fact that SMEs are job and wealth creators. In justifying the introduction of SMIEIS in 2003, the then Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria, Chief Joseph Sanusi said “With a concerted effort and renewed
commitment from all stakeholders, this scheme will surely succeed and realize its intended objective of revamping the SMEs as engines of growth in the economy and a veritable tool for the development of indigenous technology, rapid industrialization, generation of employment for our teeming youths and the pivot for sustainable economic development in Nigeria”.*

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) occupy a place of pride in virtually every country or state. Because of their (SMEs) significant roles in the development and growth of various economies, they (SMEs) have aptly been referred to as “the engine of growth” and “catalysts for socio-economic transformation of any country.” SMEs represent a veritable vehicle for the achievement of national economic objectives of employment generation and poverty reduction at low investment cost as well as the development of entrepreneurial capabilities including indigenous technology. Other intrinsic benefits of vibrant SMEs include access to the infrastructural facilities occasioned by the existence of such SMEs in their surroundings, the stimulation of economic activities such as suppliers of various items and distributive trades for items produced and or needed by the SMEs, stemming from rural urban migration, enhancement of standard of living of the employees of the SMEs and their dependents as well as those who are directly or indirectly associated with them. In recognition of the enormous potential roles of SMEs, some of which have been outlined above, various special measures and programmes have been designed and policies enunciated and executed by government to encourage their (SMEs) development and hence make them more vibrant in Nigeria. The highlights of these measures include:

i. Fiscal incentives and protective fiscal policies
ii. Specialized financial institutions and funding schemes for the SMEs
iii. Favorable tariff structure
iv. The SMIEIS funding scheme
v. Selective exemption and preferential treatment in excise duties
vi. Establishment of Export Processing Zones
vii. Selective reservation of items for exclusive manufacture in the SME sub-sector
viii. Government’s full weight and support for NEPAD and AGOA activities and operations

It has however been worrisome that despite the incentives, policies, programmes and support aimed at revamping the SMEs, they have performed rather below expectation in Nigeria. Different people, organizations, and operators have advanced various reasons as to why SMEs have not been able to live up to their billing. While an average operator would always hinge his failure on lack of access to finance, some others think otherwise arguing that inappropriate management skills, difficulty in accessing global market, lack of entrepreneurial skills and know how, poor infrastructure etc are largely responsible. The Association of Nigerian Development Finance Institutions (ANDFI) in 2004 issued this statement in relation to why SMEs perform poorly in Nigeria:

“Finance is usually considered as the major constraints of SMEs. While this may be true, empirical evidences have shown that finance contributes only about 25 percent to the success of SMEs. Thus, the creation of other appropriate support system and enabling environment are indispensable for the success of SMEs in Nigeria”. In a Consultant’s Report on Business Support in FCT Number 107, by David Irwin in March 2004 for DFID, it was stated on Page 5, paragraph 3.3 that “Governments all around the world now recognize the important contribution that small firms make to the economy and many governments have established extensive support arrangement to help people start and grow their businesses. In Nigeria, hitherto, there has been no concerted effort to encourage and support new businesses”. Some others have argued that the bane of SMEs in Nigeria is the lack of long-term loans since most loans in the Nigerian market are short-term while what SMEs require to grow and become really successful is long-term patient capital. The dearth of venture capital financing in Nigeria has also aggravated the situation as venture capital provides long-term patient capital, which allows a small business to grow, as is the case in Ghana and some developed
economies. Other challenges and problems, which frustrate SMEs in Nigeria and make some of them to either die within their first two years of existence or perform below standard even after surviving in their early years abound. The key ones include inadequate infrastructural facilities (road, water, electricity etc), insecurity of lives and property, inconsistent monetary, fiscal and industrial policies, limited access to markets, multiple taxation and levies, lack of modern technology for processing and preserving products, policy reversals, capacity limitations, data inadequacies, harsh operating environment, fragile ownership base, fragile capital base. While some of the challenges that SMEs face are induced by the operating environment (government policies, globalization effects, financial institutions, local government policies, attitude to work etc), other challenges are driven by the inherent characteristics of the SMEs themselves.

Characteristics of SMEs in Nigeria

A major characteristic of Nigeria’s SMEs relates to ownership structure or base, which largely revolves around a key man or family. Hence, a preponderance of the SMEs is either sole proprietorships or partnerships. Even where the registration status is thus that of a limited liability company, the true ownership structure is that of a one-man, family or partnership business. Other common features of Nigeria’s SMEs include the following among others.

1. Labour–intensive production processes
2. Concentration of management on the key man
3. Limited access to long term funds
4. High cost of funds as a result of high interest rates and bank charges
5. High mortality rate especially within their first two years
6. Over-dependence on imported raw materials and spare parts
7. Poor inter and intra-sectoral linkages - hence they hardly enjoy economies of scale benefits
8. Poor managerial skills due to their inability to pay for skilled labour
9. Poor product quality output
10) Absence of Research and Development
11) Little or no training and development for their staff
12) Poor documentations of policy, strategy, financials, plans, info, systems
13) Low entrepreneurial skills, inadequate educational or technical background
14) Lack of adequate financial record keeping
15) Poor Capital structure, i.e. low capitalisation
16) Poor management of financial resources and inability to distinguish between personal and business finance

17) High production costs due to inadequate infrastructure and wastages.

18) Use of rather outdated and inefficient technology especially as it relates to processing, preservation and storage.

19) Lack of access to international market

20) Lack of succession plan

21) Poor access to vital information

**Funding of Small Business**

“Most small firms will never be able to raise all the funding they would like from banks and other institutions. In this crude sense there will always be a deficiency in the funding of the sector equal to the difference between the total demand for funding and that part of this demand which qualifies for funding support” (Hamilton and Mark, 1998). As a result, a clear and present challenge for operating and intending small business is sourcing of funds. Small business may start up from personal savings, gifts from friends and relatives and sometimes loans. Levy in 1993 reported that smaller enterprises have limited access to financial resources compare to larger organisations and he discussed the impact of his findings in economic growth. According to Cork and Nisxon, (2000) poor management and accounting practices have hampered the ability of smaller enterprises to raise finance. This is coupled with the fact that small businesses are mostly owned by individuals whose personal lifestyle may have far reaching effects on the operations and sustainability of such businesses. As a consequence of the ownership structure, some of these businesses are unstable and may not guarantee returns in the long run. However, there is reason to hope because according to Liedholm et al. (1994), a large number of small enterprises fail because of non-financial reasons. Remmers et al. (1974) reported the debt/total assets ratio to be independent of firm size while Peterson and Schulman (1987) reported that debt/total assets ratio to first rise and then fall with size of firm. Irrespective of which side of the divide one is, the behaviour of loan granting institutions can be obviously predicted when they have a choice of granting loan facilities to either a big business with a good balance sheet or a small business with an equally good balance sheet.

In Nigeria, banks particularly the Agriculture Development banks are mandated to give loans to small business but the inability of most small business owners and intending entrepreneurs to present the required collateral remains a major setback.

It is common practice in the country for small business owners to organize themselves into cooperatives commonly called “Esusu”. Members of an Esusu would generally contribute a fixed amount daily, weekly or monthly, to be pulled and then collected in turns to fund their business or personal projects.

“A good number of NGOs in Nigeria focus on the problem of the declining state of agricultural production, unsustainable farming practices and poverty. For instance, Imo Self-Help Organisation (ISHO), Nsukka United Self-Help Organisation (NUSHO), Committee for
Women in Development – Nigeria (COWAD), Lift Above Poverty Organization (LAPCO), Lagos, Development Exchange Centre, Kakeme, Bauchi (DEC), Country Women Association of Nigeria (COWAN), Alternative Development (Alter Dev), Women Farmers Association of Nigeria (WOFAN), and Farmers Development Union (FADU) focus mainly on poverty alleviating activities among the rural poor all over Nigeria” (Elumilade et al, 2006)

Challenges of the SMEs

Most SMEs die within their first five years of existence. Another smaller percentage goes into extinction between the sixth and tenth year thus only about five to ten percent of young companies survive, thrive and grow to maturity.

Many factors have been identified as to the possible causes or contributing factors to the premature death. Key among this include insufficient capital, lack of focus, inadequate market research, over-concentration on one or two markets for finished products, lack of succession plan, inexperience, lack of proper book keeping, lack of proper records or lack of any records at all, inability to separate business and family or personal finances, lack of business strategy, inability to distinguish between revenue and profit, inability to procure the right plant and machinery, inability to engage or employ the right calibre staff, plan-lessness, cut-throat competition, lack of official patronage of locally produced goods and services, dumping of foreign goods and over-concentration of decision making on one (key) person, usually the owner. Other challenges which SMEs face in Nigeria include irregular power supply and other infrastructural inadequacies (water, roads etc) unfavourable fiscal policies, multiple taxes, levies and rates, fuel crises or shortages, policy inconsistencies, reversals and shocks, uneasy access to funding, poor policy implementation, restricted market access, raw materials sourcing problems, competition with cheaper imported products, problems of inter-sectoral linkages given that most large scale firms source some of their raw material outside instead of subcontracting to SMEs, insecurity of people and property, fragile ownership base, lack of requisite skill and experience, thin management, unfavourable monetary policies, lack of preservation, processing and storage technology and facilities, lack of entrepreneurial spirit, poor capital structuring as well as poor management of financial, human and other resources. Their characteristics and the attendant challenges notwithstanding, it is the consensus that SMEs, which globally are regarded as the strategic and essential fulcrum for any nation’s economic development and growth have performed rather poorly in Nigeria. The reason for this all-important sector’s dismal performance have been varied and convoluted depending on who is commenting or whose view is being sought. For sure it has nothing to do with government’s appreciation of the vital central role of the sector as evidenced by how well SMEs have been acknowledged and orchestrated in various government’s budget, with the imperativeness of SMEs as the bulwark for employment generation, poverty reduction and technological development being highlighted. While many attribute the relatively poor performance of SMEs in Nigeria when compared with the significant roles which SMEs have played in developed economies such as the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States and even developing countries of the world like India to the challenges outlined above, some others hinge the reasons on the fair share of neglect on the sector by the government. The latter group argues that government’s appreciation of the SMEs in capacity building has always been restricted to the pages of the budget presentations and submissions at various fora.

Essentially, they argue that poor budget implementations over the years account for the unsavoury impacts of SMEs on the Nigerian economy, which has had a record sluggish
growth and declining future as measured by the population of Nigerians becoming literate, having more access to better healthcare, shelter, food, and other necessities of life such as access to more and better paying jobs as well as declining per capita income. Other parameters usually used to measure the performance of SMEs include percentage of working population employed by the SMEs in a given country or economy, the percentage contribution to the country’s GDP, managerial and technical capacity building, percentage of revenue internally generated or percentage of total PAYE accruing to the government from the SMEs employees, years increases in average household income, etc. This research is intended to critically appraise and analyse the operating environment and circumstances of SMEs in Nigeria with a view to actually identifying why they (SMEs) are not playing the vibrant and vital roles in the Nigerian economy as they (SMEs) do in other economies such as India which has so many similarities with Nigeria in terms of population and other demographic variables. This is even more disturbing if one recalls that Nigeria remains the largest market in the African continent where investment opportunities are beckoning to be exploited. This research uses Matori community in Lagos state Nigeria as the case study area.

3. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SMEs have been fully recognized by governments and development experts as the main engine of economic growth and a major factor in promoting private sector development and partnership. The development of the SME sector therefore represents an essential element in the growth strategy of most economies and holds particular significance in the case of Nigeria. SMEs not only contribute to improved living standards, employment generation and poverty reduction but they also bring about substantial domestic capital and achieve high levels of productivity. From a planning standpoint, SMEs are increasingly recognized as the principal means for achieving equitable and sustainable industrial diversification and growth. In most countries, including developed countries like Japan, USA, UK etc, SMEs account for well over half the total share of employment, sales and total contribution to GDP.

A major gap in Nigeria’s industrial development process in the past years has been the absence of strong SME sub-sector. With over 170 million people, vast productive farmland, rich variety of mineral deposits and other natural resources, Nigeria should have been a haven for SMEs. Unfortunately, SMEs have not played the significant roles they are expected to play in Nigeria economic growth, development and industrialization.

Recommendations

Driven by the findings in this research from the challenges faced by SMEs, SMEs in Nigeria have a long way to go for the sector to be relevant, focused, productive enough, and play the crucial role it is expected to in relation to contributing to the growth and development of the economy of Nigeria.

The challenges and problems of the SMEs in Nigeria are hydra-headed and hence can only be effectively tackled by a multi-dimensional and concerted approach by all stakeholders i.e. the governments (Federal, State and Local) and their agencies and parastatals, banks, regulatory authorities, tax authorities, SMEs (owners and management), the employees of SMEs, multilateral and bilateral agencies and donors.

It behooves the government to create an enabling environment that is appreciably devoid of corruption and bureaucracy, and at the same time, motivating and entrepreneurially friendly. It has to be a two-pronged approach for the government efforts to be effective in recreating a conducive environment in which SMEs can thrive and blossom. It has to be an environment full of opportunities and incentives which would sufficiently attract investors and would-be entrepreneurs including
young school leavers who would be motivated enough to opt to be employers instead of looking for paid jobs.

For the government to succeed in reinventing the future of SMEs, it has to extend the current reforms to our educational system to make it more functional, relevant and need-oriented and driven. The thrust and emphasis should be on modern technology, practical technological and entrepreneurial studies aimed at producing entrepreneurs. This implies a change in our culture, value system and orientation as well as Nigerians’ overall attitude, ethics and appreciation of the need for every Nigerian to contribute in making our country better than we met it.

The transformation of our educational system has to start from primary through secondary and tertiary emphasizing the cultural reorientation and focus on technological studies through all the stages. Where possible, the technological and entrepreneurial studies can be thought in the indigenous or local dialect to ensure full understanding and appreciation by the pupils and students. This method is bound to enhance fast and full integration of the new values into the culture of these young impressionable Nigerians.

A change in our value system, which would place high premium and recognition on entrepreneurial acumen, honesty, diligence, and ability to contribute to the society through invention or creation of employment opportunities for others, demonstration of quality leadership and the likes, should concurrently be introduced into our educational system with the above technological thrust.

In the same vein, morality, civics and war against corruption should also be introduced at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of our education alongside entrepreneurial and technological studies. Corruption should be viewed as a canker worm, which eats deep into the fabrics of any progressive nation and certainly destroys the value system as well as economic growth and development. Civic studies should also be vigorously pursued in our educational system, as it will help the fight against corruption.

The existing anti-corruption agencies should not only continue but also be invigorated to more aggressively pursue their respective mandates in ensuring a better and more conducive and enabling environment for investors and entrepreneurial pursuits.

There is the urgent and dire need for the government to revamp the SME sector of the economy in order to redress the growing unemployment rate in the country, reduce poverty level, enhance standard of living and stimulate economic growth and development.

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GOOD GOVERNANCE, NATIONAL SECURITY AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA: A POLITICAL DIAGNOSIS OF BOKO HARAM INSURGENCE

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Abstract

The thrust of the survival of any nation is embedded on its security situation. Insecurity is a threat to development because it produces economic stagnation. However, the situation is not absolutely, if at all so in Nigeria given the insurgency of Boko Haram and its attendant negative consequences on the economy of the country. The work utilized the theory of Good Governance and National Security in analyzing Boko Haram insurgency and the Nigerian economic development. Deriving from the above, it was discovered that there is a close relationship between and among good governance, national security and economic development through the study of Boko Haram insurgency. The study therefore argued that the only thing that can sustain development and curb insurgencies in Nigeria is good governance, as what we are witnessing presently is the resultant implication of contrapuntal maladministration that had hitherto characterized the Nigerian state.

Keywords: Good Governance, National Security, Economic Development, Insurgencies, Boko Haram.

1. Introduction

Good governance is a concept in political discourse that has acquired a considerable emotive force; especially with its derivative positive consequences to national security and economic development. However, the challenges of national security at the vagaries of Boko Haram insurgency in Nigeria are giving both scholars and policy makers, serious concern. Hence, the work is a deliberate attempt to explicate the linkages between and among good governance, national security and economic development given the socio-political cataclysmic consequences of the emergence of Boko Haram and its overwhelming implication on our corporate national existence. The concept of governance, from early 1990s, attracted considerable interest from international aid donors concerned with political and administrative obstacles to successful economic development in the Third World (The Social Science Encyclopedia, 2nd Edition, 1996:348). Here, governance, by a derivative nomenclatural extension, is taken to mean good governance.

The emergence of Boko Haram has always been attributed to poverty, lack of good governance and the deplorable educational system in Nigeria, especially in the North. Though this has been refuted in many quarters; beyond this assertion, is an unstated agenda which is not even, in any way, connected to enthroning Sharia in the core Northern states of Nigeria. It is equally unfortunate that the insurgents are fighting to uphold what they think they intend to displace. The analysis of the work has revealed the true state of the nation, as regards Boko Haram insurgency and its close relationship to being a product of bad governance, poverty and stark illiteracy of the underlying mission by even the insurgents.

2. Theorizing Good Governance and the National Security

Governance applies to the exercise of power in a variety of institutional context; the object of which is to direct, control and regulate activities in the interests of people as citizens, voters and workers. For political scientists, governance refers to the process of political management which embraces the normative basis of political authority, the style in which public affairs are conducted,

Central to the definition of governance are the following:

1. Accountability, which denotes the effectiveness with which the governed can exercise influence over their governors.
2. Legitimacy, which is concerned with the right of the state to exercise power over its citizens, and the extent to which those powers are perceived to be rightly exercised.
3. Transparency, which is founded on the exercise of mechanisms for ensuring public access to decision making.

Where the above factors are strictly observed, we say there is good governance. But where they are subject to violation, we say there is bad governance. Good governance therefore becomes an affirmative observation of accountability, legitimacy and transparency in administrative management at whatever level(s) – private or public.

Nevertheless, some factors have been identified as being responsible for crisis of governance in Africa, or simply put, bad governance. These factors, three of which have been outlined, include:

1. corruption
2. self-interest and
3. loss of political legitimacy owing to weak or undemocratic leadership

These three factors, identified as the bane for the crisis of governance in Africa (Nigeria included), have permeated the leadership fabrics to the level of institutionalization or near-institutionalization thereby making it very difficult for leaders to be extricated from the web of this glued administrative nemesis.

As a corollary, National Security is a cherished value associated with the physical safety of individuals, groups, or nation-states, together with a similar safety of their most cherished values. It denotes freedom from threats, anxiety or danger. Therefore, security in an objective sense can be measured by the absence of threat, anxiety or danger. More importantly, security has a subjective sense, which can be measured by the absence of fear that threat, anxiety or danger will materialize (Nnoli, 2006: 16).

No matter how much safety there is in objective terms, unless there is confidence that such safety exists or will exist, there is no security. Even when no safety exists in objective terms but there is confidence that it exists, then there is likely to be security, at least in the short term. This might be called false security (Nnoli, 2006: 16). Harold Lasswell and Abraham Kaplan (1950) defined security as “high value expectancy” (cited in Nnoli, 2006:16). This definition stresses both the subjective and speculative character of security via the usage of the term ‘expectancy’.

3 Boko Haram Insurgence And Economic Development In Nigeria

The emergence of Boko Haram insurgence in Nigeria has not only paralyzed the already bastardized economy but threatens our corporate national existence. Like other insurgences in Nigeria, the Boko Haram has been attributed to poverty, which also is a product of bad governance. Nigeria has the wherewithal necessary to command and even become a world power but the contrapuntal maladministration over the years had succeeded at rendering this dream illusory.

Consequently, Boko Haram is reinforcing the economic comatose of the Northern Nigeria and therefore impoverishing the people the more and making life unbearable for both the indigenes and non indigenes who perpetually live in fear thereby re-echoing the insecurity situation and
forcing many out of the region. Drawing from the national security theorizing, insecurity subjective exists when there is a threat of attack. Nonetheless, Boko Haram insurgency speaks volume on the economic backwardness of Nigeria while projecting serious cataclysmic consequences in the future should the insurgency even end now. The level of destruction and distrust prevalent within Nigeria as a result of Boko Haram insurgency has become so devastating that it would take ten or more years’ consistent virile policy(ies) to address as well as redeem the situation.

Recent Green-White Coalition (2013) revelation has it that Boko Haram was a creation of the United States through the CIA agents and American Embassy in Nigeria. According to the revelation:


The report further revealed that the CIA has been running secret training and indoctrination camps along the porous and vulnerable borderlands of Niger, Chad and Cameroun. It maintains that in these camps, youths from poor, deprived and disoriented backgrounds are recruited and trained to serve as insurgents. The agents who supply these youths lure them with the promise of better life and work for Allah and further indoctrinated to believe they are working to install a just Islamic order from the ungodly one that currently holds sway in Nigeria. The American CIA programme officers of this project prudently remain in the background, living the day-to-day running of the camps to supervisors of Middle Eastern origin specially recruited for this purpose. After several months of indoctrination and training on weapons handling, survival tactics, surveillance and evasion techniques, the insurgents are now put on stand-by for the next phase of the operation (http://newsrescue.com/boko-haram-a-cia-covert-operation-americas-destablization-plots-against-nigeria-greenwhite-coalition/ixzz2NVfXxr9L). The next phase of the operation involves the identification and selection of the targets which had already been mapped out by the American Embassy. If buildings are the targets for attack, the weapons and technical equipment to be used are kept in safe houses. The countdown to the attack involves ferrying of the insurgents and quarantined at safe houses for the H (appointed) hour. After the attack, in the ensuing panic, the insurgents make their escape into safe houses to dispose the weapons and disappear and dissolve later into the local population. The technical angle of sending out e-mails and messages of responsibility for the attack to the media in the name of Boko Haram is done through secure telecoms equipment by the American programmers of the operation which can hardly be traced. If the selected target is to be bombed by an Improvised Explosive Device (IED), the building is cased for days and the devise inserted when security is lax. The devise is then detonated by an in-built timing mechanism or by a hand held detonator some distance away from where the bomb is placed. If on the other hand the attack is to be carried out by a suicide bomber, the person to carry it out would have been severely drugged with a synthetic crystalline compound called LSD (Lysergic Acid Diethylamide), which is a powerful hallucinogenic drug manufactured by CIA to disorient the person(s). In such a state of mind, the person would have no clue as to what he is programmed to do having been turned into a veritable human robot (http://newsrescue.com/boko-haram-a-cia-covert-operation-americas-destablization-plots-against-nigeria-greenwhite-coalition/ixzz2NVfkGFTf).
However, within the context of this work, we are not interested at interrogating why America is doing this; rather, why has Nigeria created the opportunity for this to thrive? The problem therefore is, can a graduate with well-paid job be recruited to waste his life all in the name of fighting an ungodly administration or government? That the CIA succeeded or is succeeding to recruit and train jobless youths in the act of terrorism (if at all the revelation is anything to go by), boils down to lack of good governance in Nigeria which had flagrantly refused to take care of those citizens that are vulnerable to being used as human robots. Closely related to the above is the porous nature of our borders without corresponding security surveillance to checkmate the activities going on within and outside the areas. This has made it very possible for the borders to be used as perfect rendezvous for recruiting and training societal deviants in the act of terrorism.

The only problems that cannot be solved by good governance are non-existing ones. By a derivative implication therefore, good governance is a panacea for the insecurity and the economic doldrums characteristic of the Nigerian society. These are the problems Nigeria has continued to suffer right from the military era. Perhaps, with the return of Nigeria to democratic rule, one should have expected that the situation would improve, but as Adele (2011: 60) noted that:

The transition to civilian rule has created its own challenges for national security and socio-political development, as demonstrated by diverse conflicts, upheavals and anti-state/government agitations especially in the Niger-Delta, South-East and now in the menace of the Boko Haram in Northern Nigeria.

He has more importantly identified that these problems are paradoxical in nature because they impinge on the basic issues of poverty, socio-political grievances, human rights and the ethnic question. However, if the above internet sources are sustained, then, Boko Haram insurgents are unwittingly fighting to enthrone the very thing they hate with passion by covertly perpetuating the interest of the West which they view as common enemy that must be crushed. Accordingly, poverty and socio-political underdevelopment are not conquered through arm-struggle but instead, through coordinated struggle of minds imbued with constructive criticisms and policy initiatives.

Similarly, there is a nexus between strong democratic leadership and good governance which are exemplified in the three components of good governance – accountability, legitimacy and transparency. A strong democratic leadership, beyond being a legitimate and transparent one, is an accountable leadership. It is only accountability that can sustain good governance and where there is a technical maneuver, bad governance reigns supreme. This explains why Nigeria has refused to develop notwithstanding all the potential paraphernalia of development it is imbued with.

As a corollary to the above, beyond the nexus between strong democratic leadership and good governance, there is an intricate linkage between and among good governance, national security and economic development. Consequently, economic development derives from the national security which also derives from good governance. Where good governance is in critical short supply, national security is compromised and economic development is eroded and insurgencies thrive.
The argument would be made more lucid considering the diagrams below vis-à-vis the graphical interpretation.

Diagram A

![Diagram A]

The central big circle in the diagram represents the state bearing the image of strong democratic leadership. The small circles represent the legion of people looking up to the state for their survival. The black boxes represent the resource-generating sectors of the state. The lines linking the black boxes with the central circle represent the channels through which the state milks the resources. The zigzagged lines represent the nexus through which the state gives back to the legion of people that which was milked from the resource-generating sectors and the big box housing the entire elements represents the territorial society. The more there are the resource-generating sectors, the more the state generates and the more it gives back to the people, and the more security and economic development there are also.

Diagram B

![Diagram B]

This diagram represents a significant difference from the diagram A with reduction in the number of resource-generating sectors and an emergence of a black circle representing an insurgent group with a fighting arrow targeted at the state. The emergence of this group is not unconnected to
the grievance arising from the reduction in the number of resource-generating sectors from other parts of the society; yet, no corresponding preferential treatment from the state. Here, due to the decline in the resource-generating sectors of the state, the political leadership finds it difficult to provide adequately for its citizens but at least, there is provision of the quantity capable of taking care of the legion of peoples’ daily need. The people in this society are likely to lend credence to the state in fighting the insurgents from one part. Security is seen as collective responsibility of both the state and the people; hence, the collective fight against the enemy while hopefully looking up to the state to improve the resource-generating sectors of the society for onward adequate provision of better life for them (that is, the people).

Diagram C

In this society, the resource-generating sector has collapsed to a gigantic but less sufficient monolithism and the state actors (the politicians) can rarely give back to the legion of people anxiously looking up to the state for their survival. The grievance arising from the situation has given rise to more insurgent groups fighting to gain more resource allocation and attention which the state may or may no longer have, and because the people receive little or nothing from the state, they are less willing to help the state fight the insurgents. The uprising continues to exacerbate whereas the state also continues to shrink. The insurgents are seen by the people to be fighting for a just course. Here, bad governance has corrosively gained control and the state actors scamper to accumulate the less available resources of the society for their private use in anticipation of their generation yet unborn.

Diagram D
This society has been taken over by anarchy and the state barely finds a room to even exploit the already miniaturized monolithic resource-generating sector let alone giving back to the legion of people. The society has virtually degenerated to the state of nature where life of man, as explained by Thomas Hobbes, was solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short. Due to the fact that the state has failed woefully in providing for her citizens and that the people must feed, even the legion of people who barely have anything to live on, are no longer safe in spite of their state of impoverishment. The state has withered away but not the type suggested by Karl Marx in his scientific communism but rather the type suggested by the anarchists in their utter condemnation of the state as a regulating instrument of the society.

Nevertheless, a society does not collapse at once. It takes incremental process sustained through contrapuntal maladministration to erode the resource of the state and derivatively create accompanying destruction of what the society lives for, and eventually results to anarchy and disintegration. Never mind that diagram B represents sharp decline in the resource-generating sectors of the state, the situation is often not so. In most cases, it starts with the neglect of one sector especially following vibrant domineering overture of few which propels the state to abandon those considered redundant but without the knowledge of the political actors of their efficacy in sustaining the domineering ones. This is where strong democratic leadership plays crucial role in determining what constitutes good governance. It takes only the strong democratic leaders to understand the implications of a given policy on the economy especially when the economy is still vibrant or relatively so.

Graphic interpretation of the Diagrams

Graph A
**Keys:**

A= Good Governance  
B= Resource-Generating Sector(s)  
C= National Security  
D= Economic Development  
E= Insurgencies

**Graph B**

**Keys:**

A= Good Governance  
B= Resource-Generating Sector(s)  
C= National Security
D= Economic Development

E= Insurgencies

The graph A suggests that once there is good governance and it is improved upon, the resource-generating sectors of the state will also be increasing and same with national security and economic development, and insurgencies are bound to decline. Graph B suggests that the decline in good governance elicits corresponding decline in the resource-generating sectors of the state and same with national security and economic development, while insurgencies are on the increase.

However, the diagrammatical representations of the gradual corrosion and erosion of good governance exemplified in utter degeneration of the resource-generating sectors of the society and the subsequent grievance arising therefrom suggests that the more resource-generating sectors of the state, the more resources the state has to allocate to the legion of the people, and the less aggrieved the people. By implication, the lesser the insurgencies and the more national security and economic development there are. The resource-generating sectors of the society, as used in this work, do not suggest those that are in comatose or moribund rather, the ones that are vibrantly functioning.

From the foregoing, one may begin to ask, what is responsible for the corrosion of good governance and the subsequent nemeses following therefrom? This question has already been answered. The work itemized three factors responsible for this as:

1. Corruption
2. Self-interest or selfish interest
3. Loss of political legitimacy owing to weak or undemocratic leadership.

4. Conclusion

The work has succeeded at arguing that both bad governance (arising from the selfish interest of leaders built on the use of state power for material acquisition) and insurgencies (arising from the desire of the insurgents to lure the state through violence to grant their wishes) are all products of greed which is a precondition for corruption and other social vices that follow suit. According to Reno (2006: 26), “greed and opportunity play important roles in motivating some individuals to fight.” There is no difference between the politicians who fight and kill in order to gain the state power by all means possible and the insurgents who also fight and kill in order to drive home their selfish desires and needs. They are all products of greed and opportunity. Greed because they all desire to have what they presently lack by merit or demerit, and opportunity, because they had or still have access to the means for securing them. The politicians have the money to distribute and buy votes and the insurgents have the arms with which to threaten, main and destroy in order to have their way. Greed and opportunity must agree before individuals or groups engage in a fight. While the greedy politicians and insurgents have their way to loot the state by whatever mechanism, the remaining relatively greedy legion of people without corresponding opportunity to have their way are left to exist in the mercy of the remnant left over or forgotten by the politicians and the insurgents. Therefore, while greed is the necessary condition for both bad governance and insurgencies, opportunity is the sufficient condition for them.
Nonetheless, greed is responsible for corruption, self-interest and persistence governance of either weak democratic or undemocratic political leadership in the face of the total rejection from the governed (absence of legitimacy).

5. **Recommendations**

As a matter of urgent national importance, the state represented by the political actors should hasten to revive all the ailing resource-generating sectors of the economy – agriculture, mining, education, in addition to commerce and industry. What is means is that, budgeting more for security (like was the case with the 2012 national budget), while not bad, is not a panacea for the insurgencies Nigeria is enmeshed in today.

Corruption should attract capital punishment unlike the leap service paid to it in addition to a shameful situation where a pen-robber (worse than an armed-robber) is found guilty of corruption and is made to pay paltry sum as a recompense while waiting for amnesty to continue in the loot.

Finally but also importantly, the country has no alternative to securing her borders and regulating the influx of foreigners to the state. As a matter of fact, all Nigerian borders should be high-walled to regulate this influx. With these three recommendations; especially the second point, Nigeria will attain an enviable height while maintaining a society devoid of insurgencies and the issue of amnesty to insurgents (which is one of the worst solutions) will not even be contemplated.

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Abstract

Researchers and financial economists have for long identified that bank managers use loan loss provisions which is a substantial accrual in the banking industry to manage reported earnings in line with the prediction of the agency theory. In Nigeria, this practice remains a mere theoretical insinuation because there are hardly any empirically documented evidences to support the assertion. In order to fill this void in literature, the present study explores the relationship between loan loss provision and earnings management in Nigerian DMBs. Secondary data were obtained from the 8 banks’ annual reports for the period of 2006 to 2011 and robust regression was used as a tool for data analysis. The result indicates that there is a positive relationship between the provision for loan losses and earnings management in Nigerian DMBs. It is therefore, recommended that, if emphasis is on the integrity of financial reports, regulators should put a ceiling on the provision for loan losses rather than leaving it at the total discretion of managers who provide it to suit their selfish interest.

Keywords: loan loss provisions, discretionary loan loss provision, earnings management, DMBs, Nigeria.

1. Introduction

The use of loan loss provision to manipulate reported earnings have been widely discussed in the literature particularly in the light of developed countries. Different reasons for it have been proffered by researchers including capital market incentives, contracts motivation and regulation motivation. In this regard, Chang, Shen and Fang (2008) note that bank managers use discretion regarding loan loss allowance to manage earnings. The basic argument is that since it is replenished by a charge to earnings and the credit quality of the loan portfolio cannot be determined precisely by objective criteria, the allowance for loan losses has been shown potentially as a means to manage earnings (Grey and Clarke, 2004). Thus, from the regulators’ point of view, the emphasis is on whether loan loss estimation truly reflects the prevailing economic conditions of the firm. The question is how adequate is the provision in covering the expected credit losses over the lifespan of the loan?

At least three philosophies surround the discussion on loan loss provisioning in the banking industry. In a review of theoretical and empirical evidence regarding the estimation for loan losses, Wall and Koch (2000) note that the philosophies include economists’ view, FASB’s view and the capital view. While the economists view loan loss allowance as the provision that is intended to capture expected future losses should the borrower fails to pay his obligation as at when due, the FASB’s view is concerned with the measurement of a firm’s net income over a given period of time. The last view sees loan loss allowance as a form of capital to be accumulated in good times to absorb losses during bad time. Wall and Koch (2000) further note that the philosophy from which the provision is viewed depends on the...
researcher’s intention. But regardless of the motivation and the philosophy, the behaviour for earnings management implies conflict of interest between managers, owners and minority shareholders.

Like most industries the worldover, the Nigerian banking industry is going through tough times with the recent financial crises which saw a collapse of some banks such as Oceanic Bank and Intercontinental Bank which were eventually acquired by other banks. This, among other things led to the challenge of the governance practice of the Deposit Money Banks (DMBs) in Nigeria. The introduction of new codes of governance practices by the CBN in 2003 and its constant modifications are all in the interest of effective monitoring to align the interest of shareholders with that of managers. Because it was generally observed that undesirable banking practices such as poor risk diversification, inadequate loan evaluation, fraudulent activities were as much responsible as other macroeconomic factors in causing banking crises that shook the financial systems of nations (Arun and Reaz, 2005). Inadequate provisions for loan losses thus served as a major tool used by managers during these crises to cancel true firms economic conditions of their banks.

The reason why banks manipulate earnings is supported by three arguments: signalling argument, income smoothing or earnings management argument and capital management argument (Zhou and Chen, 2004). The signalling argument suggests that banks use discretionary loan loss provision to insinuate that earnings will be high in subsequent periods (Wahlen, 1994: Liu and Ryan, 1995: Beaver and Engel, 1996). Contrary to the signalling argument, earnings management argument holds that managers increase the provision for loan losses in periods when earnings are high, under the assumption of income smoothing (Beatty, Chamberlain & Mogliolo, 1995: Collins, Shackleford & Wahlen, 1995: Rivard, Bland & morris, 2003). This implies that earnings management in this area can improve a bank’s cash flows, capital adequacy, market value and overall performance. While the capital management argument suggests that since increase in loan loss provision increases regulatory capital, management exercises discretion over its provision (Ahmed, et al., 1999: Beatty et al., 1995). Regardless of the industry and the strings attached, managers’ discretionary behaviour to achieve personal gains undermines the shareholders’ wealth maximization objective of the firm.

Empirical evidences in this field of research are characterized by conflicting findings. Ma (1988), Anandrajian, Hassan and McCarthy (2006) both find that loan loss allowance are used for earnings management in samples of U.S. banks. Also Rivard et al. (2003) and Perez, Fumas and Saurina (2006) find that there is positive interaction between the provision for loan losses in U.S. and Spanish banks respectively. However, Beatty et al. (1995) find little statistical relationship between loan loss provisions and earnings management. Moreso, Ahmed et al (1999) fail to document robust relationship between loan loss provision and opportunistic accounting but still they conclude that loan loss provisions reflect meaningful changes in the expected quality of banks’ loan portfolios. These differences in findings between studies are due to different sample selections and the use of different time periods being examined. Wall and Koch (2000) conclude though that the available evidence clearly suggests that banks have an incentive to use loan loss accounting to help manage reported earnings.

A considerable number of studies explored the relationship between loan loss allowance and earnings management in the developed countries. However, the attention on developing nations whose economies are rapidly growing and have peculiar corporate control features, capital allocation and regulations have only recently gathered momentum (Bradbury, Mark
differences in economies and level of sophistication of regulatory authorities across the globe call for such investigations in the Nigerian context. Moreso, the existing literature do not yield a conclusive results as conflicting findings trail these studies.

The objective of this work, therefore, is to investigate the relationship between loan loss provisions and earnings management in DMBs in Nigeria. To achieve this aim, it is therefore hypothesized that there is no significant relationship between loan loss provisions and earnings management in DMBs in Nigeria. The contribution of this work is in two ways. Firstly, it adds to the extant literature that examined the interaction between loan loss provisions and earnings management. Secondly, given that almost all the works in this area are focused on samples of developed economies like the U.S. and Australia, this study therefore extends these research phenomena in the context of emerging economies like Nigeria.

The remaining of this paper is organized as follows. Section two reviews empirical works that are related to this study and presents the theoretical framework. Methodological issues are raised and discussed in section three and the model is specified. In section four results are presented and major findings are discussed together with their policy implications. Finally, in section five the work is concluded and recommendations are poferred in the light of major findings.

2. Theory and Evidence

In this section, we review existing literature that relates to the present study in order to give a bird’s eye view on the concept of earnings management through the use of loan loss provision which is a substantial accrual in the banking industry.

2.1 Earnings Management

There is no single universally accepted definition of earnings management (also called creative accounting) in the literature. According to Barnea, Ronen and Sadan (1976) earnings management, is the deliberate dampening of fluctuations about “some level of earnings considered to be normal for the firm”. In the words of Schipper (1989:92), “By earnings management I really mean ‘disclosure management’ in the sense of a purposeful intervention in the external financial reporting process, with a view to obtaining private gain for shareholders or managers”. Thus, simply put, earnings management is the deliberate intervention in financial reporting process to achieve personal goals. The definition is important and it encapsulates all aspects of earnings management because it acknowledges that any attempt to temper with financial reporting process in order to intentionally change its true picture is what constitute earnings management.

Healy and Wahlen (1999) define earnings management as the altering of financial statements through the use of judgement in structuring transactions to either mislead the firm’s stakeholders about the true economic picture of the firm or to achieve some contractual benefit that is based on accounting numbers. This means that earnings management is the manipulation of financial statement by managers, using accounting choices, estimates and methods, to achieve some objectives that are largely in conflict with the underlying economic status of the firm.

Various methods for the detection of earnings management have been documented. “Empirical studies have found managers engage in earnings management through changing accounting choice, real transactions, total accruals/discretionary accruals, specific accruals,
earnings distributions approach and income smoothing” (Sun and Rath, 2010, p122). Of all these methods, the total accruals approach seems to be the one that has caught the attention of researchers the most. This is due to the fact that it is the most damaging to the usefulness of accounting information because investors are wary of such accruals (Al-Fayoumi, Abuzayed and Alexander, 2010).

Different incentives to manage earnings are widely discussed in the literature. Bhat (1996), linked it to the attempt to enhance shareholders’ value and to maximize executive compensation through income smoothing and earnings management respectively. Income smoothing, occasional big bath, living for today and maximization of variability are identified by Wall and Koch (2000). Chang et al. (2008) note three incentives to manage earnings. Firstly, because of capital market motivation, which includes initial public offerings, seasoned equity offerings, management buoyant plans and plans for mergers to meet earnings forecast, to smooth earnings, etc. Secondly, contracts motivation such as management compensation, debt agreement or job security also constitute the incentive for earnings management. Thirdly, laws and regulations such as import regulation, industrial regulation, antitrust laws, e.t.c., also can serve as incentives.

Most recently, Cornett et al. (2009), note that managers use discretionary accruals for opportunistic earnings mangement. This includes options (the incentive for bonus income by attaining some level of performance) and affecting stock prices to enhance managers’wealth through restricted stock compensation. The use of discretion by managers to target bonus plans was first documented by Healy (1985).

2.2 Loan Loss Provisions and Earnings Management

Considerable speculation about the provision of large loan losses to influence earnings sprang in the early 1980s when it was revealed that U.S. banks provided inadequate loan losses to understate net assets and profits (Grey and Clarke 2004). Prior to that, Hepworth (1953) acknowledged that firms manage income for tax purposes, shareholders confidence and expectations that are likely to accompany the report of high earnings. But the attention on the use of discretion to manage earnings received global impetus after the Enron crises and many other similar cases that followed. The central theme among the companies that were affected both in the U.S. and other parts of the world was financial irregularities, which reiterated the need for better grasp of earnings management among practitioners, regulators and those in the academia. Previous studies have identified that loan losses is one of the major causes of these financial crises and its provision has a direct impact on firms’ cash flows and consequently the reported earnings (e.g Chang et al. 2008 and Mohammad et al. 2011).

Loan loss provision is an expense on the income statement which signifies managers’ assessment of expected future losses. This means that an increase in loan loss provision reduces net income, while a fall in loan losses increases net income. Since it is the result of managers’ assessment of the likely loss that the company would incur should the borrower fail to repay his obligations as at when due, the provision for it is considered to have two (2) portions: non-discretionary and discretionary portions. “Non-discretionary is a function of specific quality determinants in the loan portfolio- non-accrual loans, renegotiated loans, loans past due over 90 days, specific analyses on troubled large credits, usually implying internal grading system” (Grey and Clarke 2004: 323). The non-discretionary portion, therefore, is the provision that is based on fair and objective analysis of the firm’s economic conditions.
While the discretionary portion are those accruals that largely depend on the outcome of the managers’ future expectation of uncertain events (Mohammad et al. 2011). The components of it are both quantitative and qualitative. Grey and Clarke (2004: 323) point that the qualitative components include political, economic, geographical and political factors, while the quantitative are “statistical analysis of loans not individually analyzed for special reserve and therefore are largely at the discretion of managers”.

In their review of earnings management research, Sun and Rath (2010) note that the arguments that support the use of specific accrual (e.g loan loss provision) to detect earnings management is proferred by McNichols (2000: 126) who summarizes its advantages into two. “First, this approach enables researchers to develop intuition for the key factors that influence the behaviour of the accrual. Second, the approach can be applied in industries in which a certain type of business can result in a specific accrual being material”. He further notes that the problems attributed with measuring earnings management through specific accruals do not affect banks and insurance because some particular accruals accounts (loan loss provision in the case of banks) are very material due to the peculiar nature of the business. Therefore, since it constitutes large accruals for banks and since its provision has a significant impact on earnings, loan loss provision is an important tool for earnings management in banking sector.

The use of loan loss provision to manipulate earnings has been emperically reported in the literature. Anandrajan et al. (2006) find that banks in Australia use loan loss provisions to manage earnings. Their result suggest commercial banks engage more aggressively in the earnings management practice than unlisted commercial banks. conflicting. Ma (1988) examines if loan loss provisions were used as a tool for income smoothing in banks. He concludes that together with loan charge-offs it is used reduce volatility of earnings by banks.

Rivard et al. (2003) investigate the income smoothing behaviour of banks in the U.S. under revised international capital requirement. They revised the income smoothing practice using post Basel Accord data. The evidence from the study confirms the existence of income smoothing and extends the proposition that banks have become more aggressive in using loan loss provision as a tool for earnings management.

Perez et al. (2006) explore earnings and capital management in alternative loan loss provision regulatory regimes. Using sample of Spanish banks and panel data econometric techniques, the study documents that loan loss provisioning is used as a tool for earnings management. Regarding, capital management, however, a robust relationship is not documented. They conclude that the introduction of IFRS in Europe does not prevent managers from decreasing earnings volatility. Similarly, Oosterbosch (2009) tests the effect of IFRS implemenation on discretionary use of loan loss provision. Using a sample of European banks and single stage regression, evidence suggests that detailed disclosure requirements regarding loan loss accounting do not deter bank managers from using the provision for loan losses to their discretion for income smoothing.

Collins et al. (1995) investigates whether, in addition to the provision for loan losses, other tools such as loan charge-offs and securities issuances were used for earnings management. They document a positive association only between loan loss provisions and earnings management, and conclude that the other tools were used primarily for capital management. Looking at the special characteristics of those banks that engage in opportunistic accounting through the use of loan loss provisions, Greenawalt and Sinkey (1988) find that regional banks engaged in more aggressive income smoothing than money-centred banks. Bhat (1996)
establishes that banks that engaged in aggressive income smoothing were in poorer financial health relative to others.

However, there are other studies fail to find a robust association between loan loss provisions and earnings manipulations. They include Beatty et al. (1995) and Ahmed et al. (1999). Anandrajian et al. (2006) note that their finding of no association was surprising, since the capital adequacy regulation removed the costs of earnings management. They attribute the differences in results to difference in model specification.

For capital management and income smoothing, the use of loan loss provision has also been emperically tested. Liu and Ryan (1995) conclude that increases in loan loss provisions are good news only for banks that the market perceives to have loan default problems; if prognosis is already good, no significant stock market reaction occurs. Beaver and Engel (1996) document that increases in the discretionary component of loan loss provision are viewed as good news items. Also, Moyer (1990) find that banks used provisions for loan losses by inflating loan loss reserves when capital levels were close to violating minimum capital regulations. However, they did not find significant association with other tools, such as charge-offs.

In another context, Bushman and Williams (2011) examine the triangular relationship between accounting discretion, loan loss provision and discipline of banks’ risk-taking. Their sample consists of large banks from 27 countries. They find, among other things, that discretionary provisioning in the form of earnings smoothing dampens disciplinary pressure on risk-taking, consistent with the assumption that smoothing reduces bank transparency and inhibits monitoring by outsiders.

From the above discussion, it is evident that the use of loan loss provision to manipulate financial reports has gained the attention of researchers lately. Although, these evidences are drawn from the emperical results of the developed countries, the practice of the banks worldwide are similar. Loan loss provisions, thus constitute significant accrual that is potentially used as a tool for earnings manipulation in the industry.

Agency theory provides natural backdrop upon which this research is based. This is because of its relevance in proferring solution to agency problems that characterize the modern day businesses. The theory predicts that in the presence of information asymetry, the manager is exposed to some privilege information regarding the firm, a situation which induces opportunistic tendencies. Lambert (1984) as cited in Rivard et al. (2003) notes that earnings management can arise solely as a natural byproduct of the agency relationship. It is optimal for the principal to pick a contract which motivates to smooth the reported earnings over time. Earnings management, therefore arises as an optimal equilibrium behavior in the agency setting.

3. Methodology and Model Specification

This work is a correlational research that attempts to link loan loss provisions with earnings management. As the first step in establishing relationships, a correlational study measures the association or variability of two or more variables. The population consists of all 18 DMBs listed on the Nigerian Stock Exchange (NSE) as at 31st December, 2011 while the sample consists of 8 banks whose data for the study period, which is 2007 to 2011 are available. Thus, we have pooled panel data of 40 firm-year observations. This period is relevant as it is considered as the height of financial crises in recent times and inadequate provisions for loan losses has been identified as one of the factors that led to the collapse of quite a number of
corporations. The study uses secondary data only as a method of data collection while OLS multiple regression (robust) is used as a tool for analysis. The robust regression automatically tackles heteroskedasticity and serial correlation.

Various models have been advanced by researchers in identifying the accruals that is discretionary in the banking sector. Most of these models largely emanate from McNichols and Wilson (1988) who used estimated residuals of bad debts regression model as a surrogate of discretionary accruals. This approach is known as the specific accruals method, which focuses on specific industries such as banks and insurance firms and use knowledge of institutional arrangements to characterize the likely nondiscretionary behaviour of accruals.

The aim of discretionary accruals models is to segment total accruals into discretionary and nondiscretionary components. Consistent with McNichols and Wilson (1988) and Chang et al. (2008), a cross-sectional regression of loan loss provision (as the explained variable) is run against loans outstanding at the beginning of the year and loan charge-offs for that year (explanatory variables). The difference between the error term, on one hand and total loan loss provision, beginning balance for loan losses, on the other, will be used to estimate for the discretionary loan loss provision for each year. The result obtained will in turn be used in the second model as the dependent variable.

Loan loss provisions ($LLP$) is defined as the sum of the ending balance of allowance for bad and doubtful debts and loan charge-offs, then deducting the beginning balance of allowance for bad debts (Chang et al., 2008). The reason for the inclusion of beginning balance of total loan losses is due to the fact that it arises from past accumulations and serves as an inventory in setting the current loan loss allowance level. Mathematically, it is expressed as follows:

$$ LLP = f(LCO, BBAL) $$

(i)

The intuition underlying the choice of these variables is that “in practice most bank managers decide the amount of loan loss provisions every month according to individual risk assessment on potential uncollectible loans and loans write-offs.” (Chang et al., 2008:13). Since discretionary accruals can not be observed directly, it is estimated by regressing loan loss provision on the independent variables in equation (ii). The discretionary loan loss provision is the error term which is the difference between loan loss provision, on the one hand and loan charge-offs for the year and the beginning balance of loan losses, on the other. All variables are scaled by the beginning balance of total assets to mitigate spurious size effects in the explanation of provisions. The regression equation, therefore is as follows:

$$ LLP / TA_{t-1} = \alpha_0 / TA_{t-1} + \alpha_1 LCO_{t-1} / TA_{t-1} + \alpha_2 BBAL_{t-1} / TA_{t-1} + \epsilon_i $$

(ii)

Where: $LLP = Loan Loss Provision for firm i at time t.$

$LCO = the Loan Charge-offs for firm i at time t.$

$BBAL = the beginning balance of LLP for firm i at time t.$

$TA = the beginning total asset of firm i at time t.$

$\epsilon = the error term$

$\alpha_0 = the intercept.$
α1 and α2 are parameter estimates of the variables.

Earnings management is the residual of the regression from equation (ii).

\[
\left| DLLP_{t} / TA_{t-1} \right| = LLP_{t} / TA_{t-1} - \left[ \alpha_0 / TA_{t-1} + \alpha_1 LCO_{t} / TA_{t-1} + \alpha_2 BBAL_{t} / TA_{t-1} \right]
\]

(iii)

The higher the value of the \( DLLP / TA \), the higher the present of earnings manipulation via loan loss provision. This research focuses on absolute DLLP rather than the signed values of the accruals because the interest is on the magnitude rather than the direction of the accruals. The signed value only gives an insight into whether earnings are being managed upwards or downwards.

To test the study hypothesis, consistent with Grey and Clark (2004) and Chang et al. (2008), we model discretionary loan loss provision (DLLP) which is also referred to as earnings management as a function of loan loss provision (LLP), Change in non-performing loans (ΔNPL) and bank size which is proxy by natural log of total asset (lnTA). Both Change in non-performing loans and bank size are included in the model as control variables.

\[
DLLP = f (LLP, ΔNPL, lnTA)
\]

(iv)

The intuition underlying the choice of these variables is that “in practice most bank managers decide the amount of loan loss provisions every month according to individual risk assessment on potential uncollectible loans and loans write-offs.” (Chang et al., 2008:13). In order to mitigate the possibility of spurious data that may result if the discretionary accruals is taken in its raw form, the study uses lagged total assets to scale all the variables. This approach is consistent with Sarkar, Sarkar and Sen (2006) and Al-Fayoumi et al. (2010). The model of the study is therefore specified as follows:

\[
DLLP_{it} = a_0 + a_1 LLP_{it} + a_2 ΔNPL_{it} + a_3 lnTA_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}
\]

(v)

4. Result and Discussion

In this section, the study results are presented and discussed. A set of descriptive statistics are first presented, then followed by the regression result.

4.1 Table 1: Summary of Descriptive Statistics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DLLP</th>
<th>LLP</th>
<th>ΔNPL</th>
<th>lnTA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>.0116293</td>
<td>.008585</td>
<td>.0265455</td>
<td>80.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Dev.</td>
<td>.033437</td>
<td>.0153452</td>
<td>.0432047</td>
<td>65.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>-.1795355</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00169</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>.0957049</td>
<td>.0793218</td>
<td>.277709</td>
<td>27500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observation</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Output of summary statistics obtained from Stata 9

Table 1 above reveals average DLLP of 1% of total lagged asset of the sample banks with a standard deviation of .03. The minimum is -.18 while the maximum is .09. Average LLP is approximately 1%, the standard deviation is .01 and lying between 0 and 7%. ΔNPL has a mean of 3% and the standard deviation is .04 and the minimum and maximum are .01% and 27 percent respectively. lnTA averages 80.3 billion Naira revealing that Nigerian banks are large in terms of capital base. There is a wide gap accross the industry regarding bank size as the minimum is 25 billion Naira while the maximum is as high as 2.75 trillion. This is reflected in the wide difference between the mean (80 billion) and the standard deviation,
which is 65 billion Naira. The standard deviations of $LLP$ and $ΔNPL$ are relatively large which implies different level of pressure bornes by individual banks. It is worthy of note that the averages of the variables do not differ substantially from their respective standard deviations which means that the data are not skewed and are fit to produce a reliable result.

4.2 Table 2: Correlation Matrix Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>DLLP</th>
<th>LLP</th>
<th>ΔNPL</th>
<th>InTA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DLLP</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LLP</td>
<td>0.3628</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔNPL</td>
<td>-0.2648</td>
<td>0.2794</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InTA</td>
<td>0.7645</td>
<td>0.0653</td>
<td>-0.7521</td>
<td>1.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Output of Correlation Matrix obtained from Stata 9.

Correlation matrix shows the relationship between explanatory variables and explained variable and also the relationship among the individual variables themselves. The result indicates that apart from $ΔNPL$ all independent variables revealed a positive interaction with the dependent variable. This is enough to infer that variables are well selected and they explain the dependent variable strongly. The result calls for a verification as to whether only $LLP$ and $InTA$ impact on $DLLP$ in Nigerian DMBs by regressing only the variables on the regressor. However, the result shows a lower R-square Adjusted suggesting that the extent to which the two variables together explain the dependent variables is more than when they are taken separately. The result is not shown for brevity.

The correlation matrix is an alternative test for multicollinearity. Gujarati (2004) notes that correlation above 0.8 between variables is a concern as it indicates excessive correlation. From the correlation table, the results reveal only a mild correlation among the independent variables which indicates that the model performs well.

4.3 Table 3: Regression Result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Std Error</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Prob</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>.0427109</td>
<td>.0480161</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>.0379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LLP</td>
<td>.8478068</td>
<td>.142384</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ΔNPL</td>
<td>-.1889831</td>
<td>.0765496</td>
<td>-2.47</td>
<td>0.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>InTA</td>
<td>.4152929</td>
<td>.0605093</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adj.R-Square 0.8609  
F. 47.08  
Prob. of F. 0.0000

Source: Regression output from Stata 9

Table 3 above reveals that there is a positive relationship between $DLLP$ and $LLP$ having coefficient of 0.84 with a t-value of 5.95 and significant at 1% indicating. This implies that 1% increase in $LLP$ leads to 8% increase in earnings management. The result indicates that banks plan to maintain almost the same percentage of $LLP$ during the sample period. $ΔNPL$ and $DLLP$ exhibit an inverse interaction which is significant at 5% and having coefficient of -0.18 and t-value of -2.47 which signifies 1% increase in the $ΔNPL$ results to a fall in earnings management by 2%. The result also reveals a positive relationship between $DLLP$ and $InTA$ having a coefficient of 0.41 and a t-value of 6.86 and significant at 1% implying that 1% rise in bank size results in rise of earnings management by 4%.
From the results, the positive association between earnings management (DLLP) and LLP suggests that banks increase provision for loan losses to manage (smooth earnings). However this management is not indicated whether upward or downward (income-increasing or income-decreasing) because the study adopts the absolute DLLP rather than the signed values. Also, the positive relationship between earnings management and ΔNPL suggests that as the amount of non-performing loan increases, bank managers may increase the provision for loan losses in order to reduce the ratio of non-performing loans. The result of this study is in line with the findings of Collins et al. (1995), Greenwalt and Sinkey (1988), Bhat (1996), Rivard et al. (2003) and Chang et al. (2008). While it contradicts the findings of Moyer (1990), Beatty et al. (1995) Ahmed et al. (1999) and Anandrajan et al. (2006). Conclusively, it is documented in this study that bank managers intend to use discretionary loan loss provisions to influence reported earnings when they have high loan loss provisions or high non-performing loans. Thus, the earlier conjecture that there is no relationship between loan loss provision and earnings management in Nigerian DMBs is rejected.

The control variable positively relates with earnings management. This opposes the view that because large banks have more resources than their smaller counterparts they are more likely to avoid the use of loan loss provision to manipulate reported earnings. On the contrary, perhaps because of the pressure exerted on large banks by their stakeholders, banks have incentive to manage earnings to please their complex stakeholders.

Overall, the aggregate influence of the explanatory variables included in the model are able to explain DLLP up to 86% which is indicated by R-square (overall), while the remaining 14% are controlled by other factors that are not included in the model. The F-Statistics of 47.08 and significant at better than 1% shows that the model is well fitted and therefore provides substantial evidence that loan loss provision is positively related with earnings management in DMBs in Nigeria.

5. Conclusion and Recommendation

The purpose of loan loss provisions is to adjust banks’ loan loss reserves to reflect expected future losses on their loan portfolios. Bank managers have an incentive to smooth earnings through the discretionary part of the allowance for loan losses because less volatility in earnings is a fundamental foundation for stable stock prices. The manipulation of earnings is made possible by the existence of information asymmetry provided by the agency relationship that exists between managers and shareholders of modern day corporations. Empirical studies that explored the relationship between loan loss provisions and manipulation of earnings in Nigeria is almost non-existent thus it is not known with certainty whether the theoretical insinuation that bank managers use the provision for loan losses to manage earnings holds water. In this study, it is documented that earnings management is positively related with loan loss provision in DMBs in Nigeria. It is therefore recommended that regulatory authorities such as CBN and SEC should place a provision ceiling regarding loan loss allowance in order to curb managerial discretion in accounting for loan losses.

References


ANALYSIS OF SOCIOECONOMIC FACTORS INFLUENCING SAVING AMONG RURAL SMALLHOLDER FARMERS IN GWARAM LGA, JIGAWA STATE, NIGERIA


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Abstract

The study was conducted to analyze socioeconmic factors influencing saving among rural smallholder farmers in Gwaram LGA area of Jigawa State. Data was collected with the aid of well structured questionnaires. A total of 60 respondents were selected and interviewed. The sample was drawn through multi-stage sampling technique. Total of five (5) of villages, one from each of the five districts in the LGA were selected. The data was analyzed by both descriptive and inferential statistics. The results revealed that the average age of the farmers was 37 years with minimum and maximum age of 22 and 53 respectively. The average household size was 11 persons per household. About 79.33% of the respondents were married and about 28.33% acquired secondary education with 98.22% having farming as the main occupation. The average farm size was 2.33ha and about 60% of the respondents had less 1ha of farmland. Majority (>60%) of the farmers own their farmlands. The average annual income from farm and off-farm operation was N128, 275 while the average monthly savings was N5000. Estimated annual cost of production was between N35000 to 89,000. More than 90% of the farmers depend solely on personal savings as source of finance for farm operations.51.7 % save their money in kind forms. Factors such as farm size, age, years of education, annual income from farm and off-farm and household size were significant variables that determines the amount of money to be saved by farmers. Regression analysis further revealed that, there is 61% variation between the dependent variable and the independent variables. Household size (-270) and age (-1.715) negatively affect monthly saving of the respondents at both 1% and 10% level of significance respectively.

Introduction

Savings are of great importance in developing country like Nigeria, this because of the direct bearing it has on the level of economic activity of the nation within the agricultural sector. The degree of progress attained will largely depends upon what the farmers do with the additional income generated from year to year from their farm activities. Adequate integration of saving and investment programmes into development strategies is capable of improving resource allocation, promoting equitable distribution of incomes and reducing credit delivery and recovery cost. Oyenwaku and Ozoh, (1992) Savings is a means of accumulating assets that perform specific function for the future Ike and Idoge, (2006). It is also the setting aside of some items for future use (Shipton, 1990).

According to Pearce, (1981), capital accumulation is very difficult because with low income, very little savings or investment occur out of existing income. Saving is categorized into financial and non financial (physical) savings. Cash is the most liquid asset (monetary form)
while the non-financial form of savings include livestock, grain, land, gold and other valuables.

Ayanwale and Banire (2000), expressed that, the saving behaviors of the farmers in developing countries is less dependent on the absolute level of aggregate income, but more dependent among other factors on relationship between current and expected income, the nature of the business, household size, wealth and other demographic factors.

The broad objective of this study was to analyze the socioeconomic factors influencing saving behaviors of smallholder farmers in selected villages of Gwaram LGA of Jigawa State, Nigeria while the specific objectives were to describe socioeconomics of the respondents; determinants of saving among smallholder farmers and identify the constraints faced by the farmers that hinder achieving effective savings.

**Methodology**

The study was conducted in Gwaram LGA Jigawa state, Nigeria. Gwaram is situated in the Sudan Savannah agroecological zone of Nigeria located between latitude 10°13.977 North and longitude 10°17.14 East. The LG occupies a total of land mass of about 1,912Km square. The predominant occupations of the people in the area are farming, fishing, animal rearing, handcraft and trading. The 2006 census estimates put Gwaram LGA population at 272,582 with growth rate of 2.82% per annum.

In line with the purpose of the study, multi-stage sampling was used to draw samples. First involved purposive selection of five (5) villages from list of all villages in the LGA based on peculiar rurality features, one from each of the five (5) districts in the LGA. The villages included in the study were Malle, Rungo, Dingaya, Zandam, and Kafin Fulani. The second staged involved systematic random selection of 12 respondents from list of farmers from each of the five (5) selected villages making total of 60 respondents for the study. Data were collected by use of well structured questionnaires supported with interview schedules.

The data collected data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and multiple regression models to achieve the object of the study.

**Results and Discussion**

The result as presented in Table 1 revealed that 35% of the respondents were within the age range of between 31 to 40 years with an average of 35 years. This is an indication that the respondents were within their active age and this gives them the opportunity to actively participate in farming activities. Majority of the respondents (81.66%) were married while 13.30% were single. This is obviously possible taking into consideration of the cultural and religious factor of the study area that encourages early marriage. The implication of this is that majority of the farmers have dependents that rely on them for domestic expenditures thus have adverse effect on their monthly savings. Also 66.7 % of the respondents were found to obtained Qur’anic education while 10% respondents had primary education, 20% with secondary education and only 3.3% had tertiary education. This is an indication that both people with formal and non formal education were engage in farming in the study area. In respect of the main occupational status majority (55%) of the respondents had farming as their main occupation, 25% had handcraft as main occupation, 15% had trading as main occupation, and only 3.33% had civil service as their main occupation. However, most of the respondents (26.7%) had 1-5 years of farming experience. The study further revealed that (43.3 %) of the respondents had between 5-10 persons, the implication is that the larger the
household, the higher the expenditure which will in variable have effect on the on saving behavior of the farmers.

Table 2 showed that, 48.33 % of the respondents had between N51000 ($333.33) to N100000 ($653.59) as the average annual income from both on farm and off-farm operations, this figure is presumably low compared to the time and space extended to both on-farm and off-farm activities and invariably has effect on saving behavior of the farmers. Also table 3 revealed that majority (55%) of the respondents cultivated between 0.5-1ha size of land while 35% cultivated between 1.5-2ha of land size. This is grossly inadequate for profitable venture and it also shows the level of subsistence of the study area.

Table 4 further revealed that 28.66% had between N61000-N80000 as estimated annual cost of production while 26.33% had between N41000-N60000; the implication of this is that, the farmers hardly breakeven to talk less of profit that will provide surplus income for saving.

Personal saving accounted for 81.66% of source for finance for farm operations while 3.33% sourced finance from their relatives and only 1.66% sourced finance from association as indicated in table 5. This is an indication that there is need for farmers in the study to for cooperative society in order to encourage saving so that the farmers could generated adequate funds for their farm operations.

Table 6 showed the various farms which the farmers saved with 30% of the respondents using livestock as means of saving, 21.66% in grains form while 81.33% in cash form. This implies that the saving culture is mostly in kind form with only 18.33% saving in cash form. With majority using small ruminants such sheep and goat to save money for their farm operations hence having access to improved breeds of these will greatly improve the magnitude of funds to farmers.

28.33% of the farmers’ average monthly saving was between N5501 –N7000, while 26.66% saved between N4001-N5500 and 21.66% saved between N1000-N2500 monthly bases. The mean monthly was N5000.5 this low saving is attributed to high dependency ratio with most of the money earn expended on household expenditure.

Table 8 revealed that, household size ranked first (33.33%) as the major constraint militating against saving as substantial part of income goes into domestic consumption expenditure due relatively large household size.

The regression analysis result in table 9 revealed that coefficient of age (-248.40) is negatively related to saving @ 10% level of significance, this is against popular belief that age is strong determinant of saving. The household size had negative coefficient (-16989.9) @ 1% level of significance, this is in agreement with a prior expectation that large household size will result to low saving while years of farming experience indicated positive relationship with saving having positive coefficient (+17.78) @ 10% level of significance, this implies that the higher the number of years of farming the more the farmer learn how to manage resources efficiently. Annual income also had positive coefficient @ 1% level of significance this also is in agreement with a prior expectation that higher income encourages saving. Farm size is also positively related to saving @ 5% level of significance.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

Factors such as farm size, age, years of education, annual income from farm and off-farm and household size were significant variables that determines the amount of money to be saved by farmers. Household size is considered to constitute major challenge to the amount of saving
by rural farmer and the farmers means of saving is heavily dependent on personal savings, Thus, the farmers should be encourage to form cooperative society so that they can pool their resources together for improved productivity and income.

References


Table 1: Distribution of respondents according to socioeconomic variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 50years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum age = 22 Maximum age = 53</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital standing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>81.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widow</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational standing</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary level</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary level</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentages (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Farming Experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 years</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 20 years</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Household Size</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-4 Persons</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 Persons</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-14 Persons</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 Persons</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24 Persons</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Survey, 2013

Table 2: Distribution of respondents according to average annual income from farm & off-farm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20000-50000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51000-100000</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>48.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101000-150000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151000-200000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey, 2013
Table 3: Distribution of respondents according size of farmland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5-1ha</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5-2ha</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5-3ha</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 3ha</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey, 2013

Table 4: Distribution of respondents according to estimated annual cost of production

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21000-40000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41000-60000</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61000-80000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81000-100000</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 100000</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey, 2013

Table 5: Distribution of respondents according to source of finance for farm operations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal Savings</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>81.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relatives</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Association</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Survey, 2013
### Table 6: Distribution of respondents according to form of saving

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grains</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Survey, 2013*

### Table 7: Distribution of respondents according to magnitude of average monthly saving

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1000-2500</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2501-4000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4001-5500</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5501-7000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7001-8500</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Survey, 2013*

### Table 8: Distribution of respondents according challenges affecting saving

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenge</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33.33</td>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low value of farm produce</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost of production</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty in Prices</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of financial institution</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Survey, 2013*

### Table 8: Regression Estimates for Determinants of Saving among Farmers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Standard Error</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age ($\beta_1$)</td>
<td>-248.40</td>
<td>144.87</td>
<td>-1.715***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm size ($\beta_2$)</td>
<td>421.44</td>
<td>2205.02</td>
<td>0.191**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

475
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$\beta_3$</th>
<th>$\beta_4$</th>
<th>$\beta_5$</th>
<th>Significant Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years of farming Experience</td>
<td>17.78</td>
<td>247.32</td>
<td>0.072*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Income</td>
<td>38.72</td>
<td>116.13</td>
<td>0.113***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Household size</td>
<td>-16989.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>-270***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1117.49</td>
<td>7038.64</td>
<td>0.159NS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

R² Value = 0.612, R² Adjusted = 0.596,

*** Significant@1%LS, ** Significant@5%LS, * Significant@10%LS, NS= Not significant

Source: Survey, 2013
THE CRISIS OF NATIONAL SECURITY AND SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA SINCE 1999: IMPLICATION FOR THE VISION 20:2020

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&

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Department of Political Science,
University of Nigeria, Nsukka- Nigeria

Abstract

Global terrorism constitutes a veritable threat to international peace and security. On the other hand, Nigeria has witnessed sustained attacks through militancy and other forms of insurgency orchestrated by different groups since the inception of the 4th Republic in 1999. The operations of these armed groups with varying and conflictual ideological, political and ethno-religious agenda have become ominous to Nigeria’s quest of joining the league of the 20 largest economies in the world by 2020 as encapsulated in the Vision 20:2020 Economic Transformation Blueprint. This paper, therefore, examines the implication of militancy on the actualisation of the Vision 20:2020. Using the Radical Approach to National Security, the paper concludes that the answer to the national security question, sustainable economic development and the Vision 20:2020 is hinged on the welfare and security of the people. The paper recommends the formulation and effective implementation of populist policies and programmes capable of addressing the underlying causes of insurgency in Nigeria. These would invariably place Nigeria on the path of sustainable economic development thereby boosting its prospect of actualizing the Vision 20:2020.

Key Words: National Security, Militancy, National Economy, Sustainable Economic Development, Vision 20:2020

1. Introduction

The unhealthy interface between insecurity and national development in Nigeria has been established in the literature (see Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013; Akpan et al, 2012; Nwagbososo, 2012; Anyadike, 2013; Adebakin & Raimi, 2012). Nonetheless, substantial academic attention has not been paid to the overwhelming effect of militancy on the sustainability of growth of the national economy, especially in relation to Nigeria’s quest of being numbered amongst the 20 largest economies in the world by 2020 otherwise code-named Vision 20:2020. This paper is a contribution to the ongoing debate. The crux of the paper, therefore, is to analyze the implication of militancy in all its colourations since 1999 on the actualisation of the Vision 20:2020.

It is noteworthy that the incidence of militancy in Nigeria predates the 4th Republic. Nonetheless, the dismantling of military rule in 1999 led to the proliferation of insurgent and rebellious groups that were hitherto suppressed by successive military governments. The activities of these nefarious groups have been ascendant since the enthronement of civilian rule.
in 1999. Successive civilian administrations have witnessed consistent and sustained pressure from different ethnic militias like the Movement for the Survival of Ogoni People (MOSOP), Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB), Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger-Delta (MEND), Oodua People’s Congress (OPC), Arewa Youth Consultative Forum, etc. Similar pressure and general insecurity has also accompanied the increasing spate of kidnapping in the South-East geopolitical zone, politically motivated killings by unscrupulous groups, ethno-religious uprisings in Jos, Kano, Kaduna, Bauchi, as well as the incessant and often co-ordinated bombings in some terrorism-infested states of northern Nigeria by the Boko Haram sect.

The Boko Haram uprising of July 2009 in Northern Nigeria marked a tipping point in the conflict between the sect and government authorities. The brazen execution-style killings by both sides left more than 800 people dead in Borno, Bauchi, Yobe and Kano States (Human Rights Watch, 2012:32). From 2009 till date, the sect has engaged in arson, bombing, shooting and stabbing with disdain and impunity. The insurgents have attacked some strategic and high profile places/persons like the Nigeria Police Headquarters in Abuja on June 16, 2011; the UN House in Abuja on August 26, 2011; and St. Theresa Catholic Church, Madalla on December 25, 2011. Others are This Day and The Sun Newspapers’ Offices in Abuja and Kaduna on April 26, 2012; the massacre of nine construction workers at the Shehu of Borno Central Mosque, Maiduguri on July 1, 2012; and the assassination of a respected elder statesman, Maj. Gen. Muhammadu Shuwa and his guest, Sagir Musa, on November 2, 2012 in Maiduguri.

The activities of the Boko Haram insurgents and other militant sects in the country have caused Nigeria an irredeemable image crisis in the international community as well as engendered unprecedented humanitarian and economic catastrophe in the deeply affected states in Northern Nigeria. Accordingly, Adagba et al cited in Nwanegbo & Odigbo (2013: 289) assert that between July 27, 2009 and February 17, 2013, Boko Haram has launched fifty three (53) attacks in which 1,157 people were killed and hundreds of people injured in Northern Nigeria. The threat posed by these insurgent and subversive groups to national security is real. Several rating agencies within the international community have repeatedly declared Nigeria a failing state. These are found in several circles as well as in policy papers. For instance, the Fund for Peace (FFP) in its 2012 report ranked Nigeria as one of the top 10 failed states in Africa and 14th in the world because of growing wave of insecurity and endemic violence (Tella cited in Adebakin & Raimi, 2012:3).

The apparent inability of successive administrations to squarely and comprehensively address the lingering crisis of national security in Nigeria poses serious threats to the fragile unity and corporate existence of the country as a sovereign entity. Secondly and perhaps more importantly, the national security question adversely impinges on the sustainability of the Nigerian economy and, by implication, its preparedness to join the league of the 20 largest economies in the world by 2020. The overall effect of the malaise is overwhelming. Within the period under study, it has dwindled income from petroleum resources because of pipeline vandalism and crude oil theft; resulted in astronomical increase in the nation’s expenditure on defence and internal security; weakened the infrastructural base of the economy; and decelerated the growth rate of the gross domestic product (GDP), etc. The different levels of government have also committed large chunk of their monthly allocations into rebuilding of public and private infrastructural facilities destroyed by the insurgents as well as the rehabilitation of victims of the attacks.

Furthermore, the crisis of national security has culminated in unprecedented diversion of scarce capital in the national budget for the procurement of sophisticated military hardware. This has correspondingly denied capital projects in the education, health, agriculture and construction
sectors the needed attention. According to the 2012 Report of the Central Bank of Nigeria, in the 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011 fiscal years, the total expenditure earmarked for both internal security and defence in the approved budgets were ₦292.7 billion, ₦276.5 billion, ₦422.9 billion and ₦563.2 billion respectively (CBN 2012, see Table II below). Despite huge spending on defence and internal security in Nigeria, wave of insecurity of lives and property continues unabated in different regions of the country. The vandalism of oil installations, theft of crude oil, and hostage-taking of expatriate workers in the Niger Delta; the unabated incidence of kidnapping in the South East; the unmitigated armed robbery in the South West; and ethno-religious crises and the Boko Haram insurgency in different parts of the northern region have enervated economic sustainability and the Vision 20:2020 agenda in Nigeria. See Table I below for a highlight of the regional distribution of insurgent operations of these sectarian groups in Nigeria since 1999. The table also shows the dimension and degree of intensity of the sectarian unrests.

Although Nigeria is unarguably one of the countries with enormous untapped market for Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in Africa, it has continually witnessed poor participation of foreign investors in economic development of the country. The economy continues to wobble under the weight of militancy and insurgency. This has damaged investors’ confidence thereby sending the economy on a downward slide. The 2011 world investment report prepared by the United Nations Conference on Trade and Investment (UNCTAD) confirms the decline in FDI. According to the report, FDI capital to Nigeria declined to $6.1 billion in 2010 from $8.28 billion in 2009 (UNCTAD, 2011). Similarly, Umejei (2011) notes that:

most of the foreign missions have advised their citizenry to be wary of doing business in the country because of what they believe is a high security risk...hence, with travel advisories by most of the foreign missions warning their citizenry of the risk of doing business in Nigeria, it remains to be seen how the government can muster $33 billion as projected.

Corroborating the foregoing, Gbanite quoted in Nwagboso (2012: 245) opines that:

...when our citizens’ right to safety from all kinds of man-made threats are reduced considerably, the government will inherit an increase in foreign investments...most countries would like a likely trading partner to secure the lives and property of their citizens first before they themselves allow theirs to move into such territories...

The effects of the various threats to national security on the sustainability of economic development in Nigeria as well as its overall implication for the Vision 20:2020 agenda are quite phenomenal. Arising from the foregoing therefore, it is appropriate to investigate, analyze and answer the question: does the recurrence of militancy in Nigeria since 1999 implicate the actualization of the Vision 20:2020? The paper reveals that the realization or otherwise of the Vision 20:2020 is, among other things, hinged on the ability of the federal government to comprehensively address the security questions in the country. The paper is divided into five sections namely: introduction, theoretical framework, the crisis of national security and sustainable economic development in Nigeria, the implication of the crisis of national security on the Vision 20:2020 and conclusion and recommendations.
Table I: Regional Distribution of Security Crisis in Nigeria since 1999

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Security Threat</th>
<th>Geo-Political Zone</th>
<th>Degree of Intensity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Niger-Delta Militancy</td>
<td>South-South</td>
<td>Recessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ethno-Religious Crisis</td>
<td>Northern Region</td>
<td>Dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Kidnapping, Ritual Killings, &amp; Armed Robbery</td>
<td>South-East</td>
<td>Dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Boko Haram Insurrection</td>
<td>Northern Region</td>
<td>Dominant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>State Terrorism (Bakassi Boys, OPC, Arewa Youth</td>
<td>Evenly spread across the country</td>
<td>Recessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Consultative Forum, etc)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ Fieldwork

2. Theoretical Framework

The unhealthy interaction between the crisis of national security, sustainable economic development and the Vision 20:2020 in Nigeria cannot be appreciated without adequate understanding of national security. A close examination of the origin and escalation of the activities of militants and other insurgent groups since the return to civil rule in 1999 shows that the state and its apparatuses are intricately involved and even culpable. This is essentially because of the prevailing warped conceptualization of national security. Consequently, this paper employs the radical approach to national security as its theoretical framework.

The radical approach to the conceptualization of national security arose as a counterpoise to the overwhelming influence and dominance of the orthodox, militaristic and state-centric interpretation and understanding of national security. This scholarship which has dominated the international system evolved from the Westphalia state system after 1648. Thus, the orthodox scholarship conceptualizes national security purely as politico-military phenomenon. It is used to refer to the capacity of a ruling group to use state power to protect its interest or values from external threats as well as maintain order internally. This unbridled use of instruments of coercion otherwise called ‘hard security’ to maintain an existing state of affairs, usually favourable to the ruling groups is largely implicated in the origin and escalation of militancy and terrorism in Nigeria. Accordingly, Mbah (2008:156) argues that the greater application of hard security is an indication that the ruling groups are in fact insecure, notwithstanding the appearance of strength represented by coercive instruments of the state.

Contrariwise, the radical approach to national security as championed by the neo-Marxist scholars like Okwudiba Nnoli, Esko Toyo, Assisi Asobie, Claude Ake, Okechukwu Ibeanu, Ogban Ogban-Iyam, amongst others relates national security to the satisfaction of basic human needs. These needs include the provision of social services (food, shelter, education, health), the right to a sustainable environment, the protection of cultural and religious identity, and so on. The absence/neglect of these essential services is largely responsible for the ever increasing spate of armed violence and terrorism in the country since 1999.

The Nigerian state through its coercive apparatuses has inflicted and imposed extreme suffering on the citizenry. This is done essentially in the name of ‘national security’. According to Nnoli (2006), this has been possible because much of the leadership in Africa and the rest of the world have rigidly adhered to the concept of national security devised during the seventeenth
century in accordance with realities of the time. The prevailing conception of national security in terms of external attack is therefore, largely defective and irrelevant. There is general acceptance that national security must go beyond the narrow focus on external attack and the use of the military to defeat it. Thus, Nnoli (2006:17) avers that:

although a concern for security must ultimately focus on the physical danger to a state that is posed by imbalances in military power, a concern for security cannot be limited simply to military power. A state fashions the military power it deploys from various elements: the economic wealth of the nation, the quality of its political leadership, the cohesiveness of the polity, the motivation of its citizenry, the nature of its military leadership, its access to food and raw materials, and so on.

Ultimately, security demands military power sufficient to dissuade or defeat an attack; but so many non-military elements are required to generate effective military power that a concern for security can never be restricted solely to the final military end product. It is therefore not surprising that the orthodox conceptualization of national security is counterpoised to human, environmental, economic and social security. In the resultant anarchy of perspective that prevails, individuals, rebel movements, ethnic groups, political parties and even pressure groups implement disparate security measures. Consequently, private security outfits, ethnic militias, political thugs and armed rebel movements emerge.

The disintegration of the security arrangements of the Nigerian state has produced serious discussions about the concept of national security and its underlying relations to power. It has demonstrated the failure of the successive Nigerian governments to link the security of their regimes to the physical security of their citizens. The government is yet to realize that the best guarantee of state security is the security of their citizens, and the willing acceptance by the latter of the political rules of the game on which the legitimacy of the state rests. The radical approach to security is therefore more inclined to see citizens, rather than states as the beneficiaries of national security.

Since the return to civilian rule in 1999, the lives and properties of ordinary Nigerians have been terrorized by different armed groups. These groups which range from ethnic militias to state-sponsored terrorists include MOSOP, MASSOB, Bakassi Boys, Egbesu Boys, OPC, MEND, Arewa Consultative Forum, ethno-religious fanatics in Jos, Kaduna, Kano, Bauchi and the Boko Haram sect. The origin and escalation of the activities of these groups are not dissociated from the government’s penchant to exclude, marginalize and discriminate against the generality of the citizenry or some parts of it. Accordingly, Nnoli (2006:9) holds that:

political exclusion, economic marginalization, and social discrimination threaten the security of citizens to such an extent that they regard the state as the primary threat to their survival. In desperation, the victimized citizens take the laws into their own hands as a means of safeguarding their fundamental values from the threat of unacceptable government policies. People who believe that the government no longer represents their best interests seek, by all means, to overthrow it or otherwise establish an alternative state. The decline of the state as the guarantor of protection and human security is serious; but its role as the creator of insecurity is more serious.
In internal security management in Nigeria, the roles of the Nigerian Police Force, the Prisons Services, the Nigerian Immigration Services, the Nigerian Security and Civil Defence Corps, the Nigerian Customs Service and the National Drug Law Enforcement Agency are obviously indispensable. Unfortunately, the management of internal security in Nigeria seems to have been an exercise in futility in spite of the establishment of numerous security apparatuses as well as huge budgetary allocation to security agencies. Following this analytical tradition, a number of observers like Usman (2010), Asuni (2007), Aghedo & Oarhe (2009), have persuasively argued that Nigeria’s security management is bedevilled with misdiagnosis and very poor institution building. Paradoxically, the Nigeria’s security establishments with the responsibility of dousing the internal security challenges in the country is spectacularly obsessed with 'hard' factors – those factors that threaten the very foundation of the state and by extension, the vested interests of the ruling elite. This pathetic scenario has been at the expense of the 'soft' factors – factors that affect the entire society. In a similar context, the current conception of the Nigeria’s internal security management is at best state-centred and not society-centred.

As noted above, the unprecedented diversion of scarce capital in the national budget for the procurement of hi-tech equipment has correspondingly denied capital projects in the education, health, agriculture and construction sectors the needed attention (see Table II below). Despite huge spending on defence and internal security in Nigeria, wave of insecurity of lives and property continues unabated in different regions of the country. The vandalism of oil pipelines, crude oil theft, and hostage-taking of expatriate workers in the Niger Delta; the interminable incidence of kidnapping in the South East; the ferocious armed robbery in the South West; and ethno-religious crises and the Boko Haram insurrection in different parts of the northern region have become ominous to economic sustainability and the Vision 20:2020 agenda in Nigeria.

While the 36 states and the 774 local government councils in Nigeria enjoy security votes, the enormous fund allocated to this vote has not translated into better and more secure environment that is supportive of sustainable economic development and the Vision 20:2020. Consequently, the votes have come under serious attacks and criticisms in recent times. The prevailing public opinion is in total support of its abrogation on the ground that it is not economically sustainable considering the diverse challenges facing the nation. Greater emphasis must therefore be paid to the human components of our national security otherwise called ‘soft security’. This involves the conscious formulation and effective implementation of policies and programmes that could accelerate the amelioration of poverty, exploitation, diseases, injustice, and the like. This will provide the fertile ground for the revitalization of our wobbling national economy and consequently, facilitate the accomplishment of the Vision 20:2020.

3. The Interface between National Security and Sustainable Economic Development in Nigeria

There is no single universally accepted definition of national security. The variety of definitions provides an overview of the many implications of the concept. The term remains ambiguous, having originated from simpler definitions which initially emphasized the freedom from military threat and political coercion. However, the scope of the term has been expanded to include other forms of non-military security as suits the circumstances of the time. The term has therefore been enlarged to include elements such as economic and environmental security. According to Harold Brown, the former US Secretary of Defence, national security is the ability to preserve a nation’s physical integrity and territory; to maintain its economic relations with the rest of the world on reasonable terms; to preserve its nature, institution, and governance from disruption from outside; and to control its borders (Brown cited in Watson, 2008:281). Similarly, Prabhakaran (2008:521) defines national security as:
the measurable state of the capability of a nation to overcome the multi-dimensional threats to the apparent well-being of its people and its survival as a nation-state at any given time, by balancing all instruments of state policy through governance, that can be indexed by computation, empirically or otherwise, and is extendable to global security by variables external to it.

National security is therefore an appropriate and aggressive blend of political resilience, human resources, economic structure and capacity, technological competence, industrial base, availability of natural resources and of course the military might. National security from the various definitions provided above is a sacrosanct and non-negotiable phenomenon in human society. Little wonder Section 14(b) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria states that the security and welfare of the people shall be the primary purpose of government.

On the other hand, the term sustainable economic development or sustainable development is a novel concept in the development literature. Sustainable economic development is defined as an economic development which meets the needs of present generation without endangering or compromising the needs of future generation. The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), one of the foremost international bodies advocating economic and environmental sustainability across the globe, defines sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 2000:43). Similarly, Tounès et al (2011) view sustainable economic development as a worthy attempt by environmentalists, economists and scientists to come up with new models of exploiting the environment and its resources in a manner that guarantee long-term economic, social and environmental progress.

Sustainable development is a process in which the natural resource base (of a nation) is not allowed to deteriorate but utilised optimally for the benefits of the current and future citizens. The term aims at ensuring the effective utilisation of physical environment and its diverse natural resources in a manner that the environment and its resources would provide continuous stream of benefits to both current and future generation. It became a front-burner issue because of rising ecological challenges in the forms of impact of residue of agricultural pesticide on lives, effect of growing population demographics, emergence of environmental protection protests across Europe and America and the backlash of the Earth Day summit.

National security is generally held as a prerequisite for economic growth by economic development theorists. In other words, the sustainability or otherwise of the development of any given economy is essentially dependent on the general state of health of the national security architecture. The prevailing unenviable state of the Nigerian economy is attributable to the poverty of understanding of the ramifications of national security in the country. This has culminated in the adoption of a reductionist approach through which national security is associated with or approximated to the acquisition of sophisticated hi-tech military equipment. Thus, the proportion of GDP devoted to military spending or purchasing of arms has increased exponentially over the last decade. This diverts funds from productive activities to unproductive ones. Other things being equal, a rise in military spending exerts a negative impact on the rate of investment in productive fixed capital. This occurs because of well-known crowding-out effects: an increase in military spending must be financed either by raising current taxes or by borrowing (future taxes). In either case, it will lower the expected after-tax return on productive fixed capital, while simultaneously reducing the flow of (domestic plus foreign) savings that is available to finance productive fixed capital formation in the domestic economy (Deger & Smith, 1983:335).
The 2012 Report of the Central Bank of Nigeria indicates that in the 2008, 2009, 2010 and 2011 fiscal years, the total expenditure earmarked for both internal security and defence in the approved budgets were ₦164.5 billion, ₦276.5 billion, ₦422.9 billion and ₦563.2 billion respectively (CBN, 2012). Official statistics provided by the apex bank from 2000 to 2011 lend credence to the fact that national spending on security is not economically sustainable (see Table II below). For instance, defence and internal security spending for 2000 were approximately ₦43.4 billion and ₦25.2 billion respectively. Considering the deplorable security situation in the country, the budgetary provision has risen astronomically. From Table II below, the budgeted amount for security in 2006 was ₦202.2 billion. By 2010, the nation was spending the sum of ₦422.9 billion on security. Right from 2000 to 2011, the huge budgetary allocation to defence and internal security has diverted attention from education, agriculture, health and construction. In 2006, allocations to education, agriculture, health and construction were ₦87.3 billion, ₦17.2 billion, ₦62.3 billion and ₦20.1 billion respectively. The analysis shows clearly the preference for security as opposed to boosting real sectors of the economy that impact directly on the wellbeing of Nigerians.

Table II: Federal Government Recurrent Expenditure (₦ Million)

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<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>*Security</th>
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<th>Agriculture</th>
<th>Health</th>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>GDP</th>
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<tr>
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<td>135.18</td>
<td>24.44</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>12.48</td>
<td>14.28</td>
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<td>126.5</td>
<td>22.48</td>
<td>52.85</td>
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<td>155.81</td>
<td>17.14</td>
<td>52.79</td>
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<td>20.36</td>
<td>132.02</td>
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<td>202200</td>
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<td>17212.81</td>
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Apart from diverting attention from the productive sectors of the national economy, the growing crisis of national security in Nigeria has adversely affected the country’s economy. Before the federal government’s Amnesty Programme designed for repentant militants in the Niger Delta region, the oil production and the number of barrels produced per day declined drastically. This was largely due to kidnapping and hostage of oil workers in the region. This singular problem adversely reduced government's revenue from oil as well as implementation of government’s policies and programmes during this period. Thus, most capital projects captured in the 2007 and 2008 annual budgets were not effectively implemented largely due to shortage of financial resources occasioned by militancy in the Niger Delta. This include the construction and rehabilitation of federal roads in the six geo-political zones, construction of dams in the North-West and North-Central zones, the immediate take-off of dredging of River Niger, and construction of additional power plants in the six geo-political zones (Ezeobi, 2009:47). This ugly trend denied Nigerians these amenities because government was incapacitated to provide social services to the people.

Similarly, the spate of kidnapping in some parts of Nigeria ultimately resulted in serious economic problems. The continuous kidnap cases in commercial cities of Port Harcourt, Aba and Onitsha, obviously forced investors, businessmen and manufacturing companies to either relocate to other relatively peaceful cities in Nigeria or other countries within the West African sub-region. In Aba for instance, the NBL, SEVEN UP PLC, UNILEVA PLC, PZ PLC relocated to Enugu largely due to constant kidnapping of their expatriates (Nwagboso, 2012:254). The period 2007-2011 witnessed increase in kidnapping activities and the target group initially was the businessmen who frequently paid millions of naira as ransoms to kidnappers. Later on, this inhuman and violent criminal activity was extended to poor people and innocent children in the affected states in Nigeria. More worrisome is the silent suspicion that the security agencies are actually involved in the business of kidnap for ransom in the South.

Although the security challenges seemed not to have completely deterred investments inflow into the country, it has indisputably become the gravest bane to national development in Nigeria. According to Agomuo (2013:1), in the first nine months of 2012, data from the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) shows that portfolio investment stood at US$4.6 billion while Foreign Direct Investment stood at $1.44 billion. Foreign investors also controlled an average of 60 percent of all trading done on the Nigerian Stock Exchange in 2012 despite rising insecurity. However, what is difficult to evaluate is how much investments would have come into the country without the current security challenges. This is the opportunity cost of the current insecurity which (because it is difficult to measure), has been ignored by political economists and the government. The ever-increasing cases of kidnapping in the country has therefore affected Nigeria’s quest to sustain the growth of the national economy through the attraction of foreign direct investors. The malaise has considerably eroded investors’ confidence thereby diminishing the per capita output and technology transfer into the country.

In a typical behaviour of a nation that thrives on a rent economy, the government has always sought to buy peace and always ended with the peace of the graveyard like the current situation in the Niger Delta region. The ineffectively implemented and corruption-riddled
Amnesty Programme has transformed the erstwhile militants into either top level government contractors or emergency crude oil refiners in the creeks or kidnap merchants. Thus, it is the opinion of this paper that the programme which has gulped several billions of naira from government’s revenue cannot sustain the relative peace in the region.

Besides the incidences of kidnapping and militancy in the Niger Delta region, the lingering Boko Haram insurgency which started in 2009 in Maiduguri, Borno State has brought the economy of the northern region to a standstill. The insurgency has weakened the north’s once prosperous textile industry, thereby leaving thousands of people unemployed. Similarly, major consumer goods’ companies have seen their distribution chains destabilised as the distributors of their goods in the northern part of the country have been forced to relocate to the south. The telecommunication companies have seen their facilities destroyed while bank branches have been attacked and robbed. Several road construction companies have seen their expatriate staff kidnapped and in some cases killed. The economic cost of the violence may however be difficult to evaluate immediately in terms of lost investment opportunities and actual cost of damage done to existing infrastructure and human lives. Under the prevailing security situation, the first group of individuals to flee the country are investors or potential investors; those whose capital would have made any GDP growth possible at all.

Furthermore, the agricultural sector which provides jobs for most people and contributes almost 40% of our GDP has been devastated by the Boko Haram insurgency in the northern region. The 24 hours curfew imposed on Kaduna and Yobe States in June 2012 following the escalation of the insurgency provide vivid examples of what is in store for Nigerian agriculture. Kano, Kaduna and Yobe States are pivotal to the success of Nigerian agriculture which is over 75% northern based. Apart from being major contributors, Kano and Kaduna are vital trans-shipment points for produce from the Northwest while Yobe performs the same role for transport of agricultural produce from the Northeast. Even without 24 hour curfew, there has been a sharp drop in the flow of agricultural output, with post-harvest losses previously estimated at 40% soaring to more than 50% (Sobowale, 2012:2).

Owing to the fact that most farm produce are raw materials, any delay between farm gate and markets increases the post-harvest loss incrementally with the days spent on the road. With curfew, most of what is loaded at the farm will have to be thrown away. This was the situation in the 1990s when Kano State was rocked by a series of violent demonstrations. The entire length of the Kano-Zaria Expressway was littered with rotten tomatoes, peppers and vegetables. Thus, the Boko Haram insurrection which has wider regional spread with its attendant catastrophe portends greater ill to the Nigerian economy.

This prevailing state of insecurity has lowered agricultural outputs as farmers flee to safer territories. Second, those who still brave the odds to go farming (mainly because they have no other means of livelihood and no place to go), might find it difficult to evacuate their farm produce now that transporters are reluctant to go to the northern region. Narrating his ordeal in his bid to secure the services of transporters from Lagos (Iddo and Apapa) to Maiduguri, Sobowale (2012:2) laments that:

only one out of 35 was willing to go; and that was because the company’s headquarters is in Maiduguri. Even, that “willing” driver set conditions that would have been considered insane only two years ago. Apart from charging three times the normal rate for the trip, he could not guarantee reaching Maiduguri in less than
two weeks...and at the sign of great trouble, he would abandon the consignment and run for dear life.

The ripple effects of the foregoing are enormous. Despite our over-dependence on imported raw materials as a nation, there are some agro-allied manufacturing businesses which depend on local agricultural input for production. For instance, NESTLE and Cadbury, the world’s largest food marketers purchase millions of tonnes of onions, soybean and sorghum from local farmers. Similarly, the United African Company of Nigeria (UACN) Feed Processor Grand located in Jos, is perhaps the country’s largest consumer of groundnut and soybean; so does Livestock Feeds. These are only a few of the manufacturers whose fortunes and ours are inextricably tied with the fate of farmlands in the northern region. The bigger tragedy lies in the fact that famine and hunger which might result could actually make the situation worse.


The Vision 20:2020 is a dream statement that Nigeria would become one of the first 20 economies in the world by the year 2020. According to the Nigeria Vision 20:2020 Economic Transformation Blueprint, by 2020 Nigeria will be one of the 20 largest economies in the world, able to consolidate its leadership role in Africa and establish itself as significant player in the global economic and political arena (NV20:2020, 2009). The Vision is essentially aimed at achieving a globally competitive economy that is resilient, diversified and able to fully optimize Nigerian human and natural resources to meet the needs and aspirations of her citizens. It also tends to achieve an industrialized economy with a globally competitive manufacturing sector that is tightly integrated with the primary resource base of the nation and contributes about 25% to the GDP. Thus, according to the NV20:2020 (2009:9), the Vision statement posits that:

Nigeria will have a large, strong, diversified, competitive, technologically enabled economy that effectively harnesses the talents and energy of its people and responsibly exploits its national endowments to guarantee a high standard of living and quality of life to its citizens.

The federal government through the National Planning Commission launched the Nigerian Vision 20:2020 in December 2010. The Vision is traceable to a research conducted in 2005 by Goldman Sachs, a New York-based investment banking group. The research suggested that if current reforms are sustained, Nigeria would emerge the strongest economy in Africa, superseding South Africa and Egypt. It held that by 2020 Nigeria would become one of the 25 biggest world economies and by 2025 the 20th largest economy in the world. The report indicates that the country may even grow by 2050 to become the 12th largest economy in the world ahead of countries like Italy, Canada and Korea. In the same vein, Nigeria has been ranked amongst the N-11 countries—countries identified by Goldman Sachs to have the potential for attaining global competitiveness based on their economic and demographic settings and the foundation for reforms already laid. Nonetheless, the reports noted the challenge the nation faces in converting potentiality into reality. These reports apparently encouraged the government to pursue the vision of placing Nigeria among the 20 largest economies in the world by 2020. According to Eneh (2011:21), this was based on assessment of its abundant human and material resources and on the assumption that the country’s resources would be properly managed and channelled to set economic goals.

The vision is an articulation of the long-term intent to launch Nigeria onto a path of sustained social and economic progress and accelerate the emergence of a truly prosperous and united Nigeria. In recognition of the enormous human and natural endowments of the nation,
the long term plan is to improve the living standards of Nigerians and place the country among the league of 20 largest economies in the world with a minimum GDP of $900 billion and a per capita income of not less than $4000 per annum. The targets for year 2020 are based on a dynamic comparative analysis of the country’s potential growth rate and economic structure vis-à-vis those of other top 40 economies in the world (Ayodele et al, 2013; NV20:2020, 2009). The implication of this projection is that the Nigerian economy must grow at an average of 13.8% per annum during the time horizon. Agricultural and industrial sectors are expected to drive the growth at the earlier stage while service sector will take over from 2018. In other words, the economy would transform from agro-allied industrialization to service-based economy in line with the theory of economic development.

In his analysis of the Vision 20:2020 Economic Transformation Blueprint, Akpan (2009:35) states that the Vision 20:2020 has seven objectives, namely:

- To make Nigeria one of the 20 largest economies in the world by the year 2020;
- To make Nigeria an international finance centre;
- To evaluate Nigeria’s potentials using development variables;
- To make Nigeria to be African’s financial hub where most of the international financial transactions in Africa would be connected with Nigeria;
- To help other African nations move out of financial doldrums;
- To move Nigeria out of third world country state to an industrialized nation;
- To drive rapid and sustainable economic growth in Nigeria and Africa.

To be one of the 20 biggest economies by 2020 means that Nigeria must be able to do what some of the 20 biggest economies like the USA, China, Japan, Germany, France, Brazil, United Kingdom, Italy, India, Russia, Canada, Australia, Spain, Mexico, South Korea, Indonesia, Netherlands, Turkey, Switzerland, Saudi Arabia, can do. As noted above, the vision envisages a GDP size of US$900 billion. However, the current size of Nigeria’s GDP is US$245,229 billion, US$268,708 billion, US$262,606 billion and US$268,700 billion and global ranking by size of GDP is 39, 37, 37 and 37 out of 193 countries based on the United Nations, World Bank, IMF and CIA World Factbook 2012 data respectively (see Table III below). While the projected growth rate per annum over the time horizon is 13.8%, the growth rates for the economy since 2009 are as follows: 2009 (7%); 2010 (8.1%); 2011 (6.9%); 2012 (6.7%) (See http://www.africaneconomicoutlook.org/en/countries/). The growth levels above are well below the desired growth of 13.8% per annum. It is very easy to see the yawning gap between the GDP of $900 billion required by 2020 and the present situation. Thus, each year the country fails to grow at the projected 13.8%, it places itself in a situation in which it has to grow by 17 to 19% in subsequent years in order to catch up. Even a non-economist knows that this is impossible!
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<td>GDP 2</td>
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<td>GDP 4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>262,606</td>
<td>37 Nigeria</td>
<td>268,700</td>
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</tbody>
</table>


**Key:**

*The first table includes data for the year 2012 for the first 20 largest economies of the world within the United Nations. Data are in billions of international dollars and were calculated by the United Nations.*

**The second table includes data for the year 2012 for the first 20 largest economies of the world within the IMF. Data are in billions of international dollars and were calculated by the IMF.*

***The third table includes data for the year 2012 for the current United Nations member states. Data are in billions of international dollars and were compiled by the World Bank.*

****The fourth table is a tabulation of the CIA World Factbook GDP data update of 2012. Final figures are estimates in billions of international dollars.*
Meanwhile, clarifying doubts on the prospects of actualizing the Vision 20:2020 while presenting the 2012 achievements of his ministry before the leadership of the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) on 24th April 2012, the then Minister of National Planning, Dr Shamsuddeen Usman noted inter alia:

where were we in 2009 when we started the process? We were number 44. By the end of 2011, we were number 39 and by the end of 2012 we were number 36. This is progress…What I am saying is that even if we are not number 20 by that time, if by 2020 we are number 25, I will be a proud man. The reason is that we are consciously moving and doing all the necessary things to move up there (Vanguard, April 30, 2013).

Reiterating the above claims by the then minister, Eze (2013) notes that:

...the Commission and the Minister have continued to repose hope in the Vision as a realistic long term growth and development roadmap for the country, in line with this Administration’s demonstrated determination, disposition and capacity to do things differently, to bring about change and the needed economic growth and strategic development.

A critical look at the national economy under the prevailing state of insecurity indicates that these positive and optimistic prospects from the Ministry of National Planning pale into insignificance. Accordingly, the vision is widely discountenanced as a utopian stunt that is not based on sound economics. This is essentially, though not exclusively, because of the prevailing state of insecurity in the country. Although Nigeria has made remarkable progress in some key sectors of the economy such as the macro-economic environment, information communication technology and science, the country’s economic standing on the global scene in 2020 does not put her among the 20 most economically developed countries in the world as contained in the NV20:2020 document. Wave of insecurity of lives and property continues unabated in different parts of the country. The vandalism of oil pipelines, crude oil theft, and hostage-taking of expatriate workers in the Niger Delta, the interminable incidence of kidnapping in the South East, the armed robbery in the South West, and ethno-religious crises and the Boko Haram insurrection in different parts of the northern region have become ominous to the Vision 20:2020 project.

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The paper examined the implication of the recurrent incidents of militancy and terrorism in Nigeria since 1999 on the actualization of the Vision 20:2020. It reveals that the realization of the Vision 20:2020 is essentially, though not exclusively, hinged on the ability of the Federal Government to squarely and comprehensively address the security questions in the country. Anchoring analysis within the radical approach to national security, the paper found that the undue attention paid to the hard (instead of the soft) components of our national security by the successive administrations is largely responsible for the origination and escalation of the activities of different militant and terrorist groups in Nigeria since 1999. As a misguided solution to the multifarious crises of national security, the government has consistently increased the annual fiscal allocation to internal security and defence within the period under study. However, the present practice whereby security gulps larger proportion of the national budget is unhealthy and unsustainable. This is because it has continued to deny critical sectors like health, education, agriculture, energy, construction, etc. the needed attention and funding.
The vast human and material potentials in the country have not been repositioned to build a fast growing, dynamic and prosperous economy. Several factors such as harsh business environment have undermined the country’s development. Its huge potentials are largely untapped, local entrepreneurship is weak while inflow of FDI remains unimpressive. This is because the degree of public safety and security is not only a barometer of political stability but also a key consideration by potential investors. Nigeria therefore needs as much foreign and domestic investment as it can garner to realize the ambition of the vision especially under the prevailing international perception of the country as riven by periodic eruptions of violence. The underlying causes of these problems need to be effectively addressed to create an enabling environment for the country’s sustained growth and long term development. The paper therefore established that this ugly trend has crippled the national economy and correspondingly dimmed the actualization of the Vision 20:2020 project, which is merely seven years away.

Arising from the above findings therefore, the following recommendations are proffered:

- The federal government in collaboration with other sub-national governments should work assiduously to provide direct and indirect employment opportunities for the army of unemployed, disillusioned and restive youth in the country who are readily available for recruitment as militants, armed robbers, kidnappers, abductors and terrorists. The federal government should therefore formulate and effectively implement policies and programmes capable of addressing the root causes of insecurity in Nigeria such as poverty, unemployment, environmental degradation, dearth of infrastructural facilities, uneven development, among others.

- The federal government should phase out the National Poverty Eradication Programme (NAPEP) and establish a more viable and result-oriented agency capable of addressing the problem of abject poverty among large population of Nigerians, particularly those residing in the rural areas.

- The government should resuscitate the National Directorate of Employment (NDE) and reposition agricultural sector so as to play active role in job creation for Nigerian youths.

- Since national security is the precondition which enhances the ability of government, its agencies, and citizens to function without let or hindrance, the successful implementation or otherwise of NV20:2020 is largely dependent on the state of security in the country. All inclusive and well coordinated security networks should therefore be worked out as a matter of urgency to assure safety of life and properties in Nigeria.

- As a corollary, the federal government should re-organize the country’s intelligence system and build a capable and more proactive security apparatus in Nigeria. This will add more values in checking incessant bombings, robbery, kidnapping and violent crimes by hoodlums all over Nigeria and correspondingly attract more investors.

- The government should include Peace Studies and Security Management in school curriculum at primary, secondary and tertiary levels in Nigeria. This will enable the Nigerian youths to appreciate the importance of peace and security in a secular state like Nigeria.

- The use of military action to confront militants appears to be very expensive and most often military confrontational approach escalates violence rather than douse tension. Principles of mediation, negotiation, arbitration, reconciliation and general amnesty are contemporary strategies for contemporary conflict resolution. All militants who accept reconciliation should be rehabilitated and reintegrated.

- Lastly, the government and other interest groups should develop sincere political will to implement the recommendations of several panels and committees set-up to investigate immediate and remote causes of violent socio-political and ethno-religious crises in Nigeria.
References


It has been observed that no any meaningful development can be achieved in a state plagued by crisis and socio-economic challenges. Development of any sort can only thrive in a conducive environment. In this regard, this paper discusses the resultant effects of insurgency to the economic development of a state in relation to some Accounting concepts, so as to bring to light it consequences to the survival, growth and development of the economy in a World that is revolving on the orbit of numerous opportunities and pitfalls. Data are collected from respondents and statistical tools are used in the analysis which results in the conclusion that, the resultant effects of any uprising affect the socio-economic activities of an economy thereby thwarting its progress. It therefore recommended that economic opportunities should be made available to the teeming populace via the construction of suavity social amenities and orientation.

KEYWORDS: Cost implication, Insurgency, Economic Development, Conducive business environment and Amenities.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY:

Insurgency is a phenomenon which affect the macro-economic activities of a state to a greater extent, the macro-economic “study the economy as a whole or it basic sub-division or aggregate, such as the government, household and business sectors and the aggregate is a collection of specific economic units treated as if they were one in unit” (Mcconell and Brue, 2005). In this regard it is no longer a concern of handful of few individuals in a state for the social and environmental effects of such operations, but rather of the public who showed concern and perplex when conflicts erupt or evolve as a result of disputes.

The cost implication of any insurgence (Militancy ethnic or religion crisis, election crisis or violence) cannot be accurately quantify or measure due to variation in historical and current market value of affected items and most importantly human lives involved which are both of economic important to the growth or development of any community or state because “A cost object is any activity for which a separate measurement of costs is desired” (Drury, 2008).

The cost centre for any insurgency is disputes, as “Cost centres or cost pools are used to describe a location to which overheads costs are initially assigned” (Drury, 2008). The revenue return for any investment in a cost centre is only enjoyed by the pioneer(s) who made the financial outlay when their goal is achieve, in the same vein the return (Excess over investment) may turn out to be negative (loss) if their goal is not achieve, which may be as a result of checkmating their activities by either the opposing group or the intervention of the government (Security personnel) of the state to quell the activities of the insurgents.

Despite the huge investments made by entrepreneurs and government in a community or state in order to maximize wealth in the future and better the lives of the public respectively, the insurgents in executing their activities vandalize such investment activities.
and terminate the lives of their unfortunate victims, either of the opposing group or innocent, thereby disrupting the peace and development of the society.

A study may not be carried out without problem in mind to solve and objective to attain, this paper was motivated in order to known the possible consequence of any insurgence to the economic development of a state. Any benefit to derive by the state from any insurgence. What a state can do to prevent or forestall the occurrence of insurgence. How a state can achieve meaningful development in the period of insurgence.

It is the objective of the paper to see how the lives of the teeming youths who are mostly the foot soldiers of any insurgence can be better, so as to reduce or eliminate their participation in such unworthy attitude and also to see how development can be attain without violence.

AN ABRIDGE OF THE CASE STUDY

Zaria is major town in Kaduna State of the Northern part of Nigeria (North West Geopolitical zone). Zaria metropolis homed two Local Government headquarters, namely Sabon-Gari and Zaria, Zaria also have an Emir who is popularly known as “SarkinZazzau” in the native Hausa Language and is a first class Emir with district heads in the province.

The Palace of the Emir (Fadan Sarkin Zazzau) is located in the ancient city of Zazzau (Zaria City), which was surrounded by walls. Zaria City has neighbourhood that integrated or made the current Zaria metropolis, among the neighbourhood, is Tudun Wada, Gyallesu, Anguwan Kyaya-Nagoyi, Tudun Jukun, Tukur-Tukur, Dan Magaji, Wusasa, G.R.A Zaria, P.Z. Area, Anguwan Gwado, Dogon Bauchi Muchia, Chikaji, Hanwa, Palladan, Bassawa, Zangon Shanu, Samaru etc. Zaria metropolis is inhabited by native Hausa Fulani an Nigerians of different origins. Zaria metropolis contribute largely to the economic development of Nigeria as a whole, as it has substantial number of financial institutions, Agro-allied businesses, artisans, a tobacco company and lots of other business activities. Zaria also is a home to one of the largest African University (Ahmadu Bello University, Nigerian College of Aviation Technology, Nigerian Institute of Transport Technology, National Research institute for Chemical Technology, Federal College of Education, Nuhu Bamalli Polytechnic, Ameer College of Advance studies, Barewa College, Alhudahuda Collage, Nigerian Military School, Depot Nigerian Army and other established institutions.

THE CONCEPT OF INSURGENCY

Insurgency is usually of violent art and violence has been defined by the World Health Organization’s (W.H.O) World Report on Violence and Health as “The intentional use of physical force or power, threatened or actual, against one-self, another person, or against a group or community, that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury death, psychological harm, Mal- development or deprivation” (W.H.O, 2002:5). The above definition has given a vivid picture of violence and which has been accepted for this paper as a true picture of insurgency.

Any crisis caused by hoodlums or militants may not continue forever, neither would any anticipated benefit be continue to be recorded. In this regard one may vividly perceive that the universally agreed accounting concepts of going concern is threaten, because continuity of insurgent act may not be guarantee as the insurgents are killed as they are Killing, the going concern of such an unlawful investment is Jeopardized base on the understanding that financial statement of businesses are mainly prepared “on the understanding that the business is a going concern or continuing business and not one on the verge of cessation” (Longe and Kazeem, 2008). As far as the perpetrators of insurgence act are killed, their actions may also be reduced or abruptly come to an end.
The cost concept (Historical cost concept) as posited by Longe and Kazeem (2008) is that “the value of assets are shown at the cost of acquisition, it cannot be valued in terms of the future returns it is expected to generate”, this may also be ascertain as the cost of an asset is not a period cost which can be match with the revenue it generated, but can only be written off instalmental base on the usage it is put to or base on the anticipated useful life of it, any arm or ammunition bought or use by insurgent has no foreseeable life span, this made it somehow impossible to write it off base on the period of it usage as the activities of insurgents cannot be predicted.

“The Nigerian society has a high expectation on the accounting professional, because it can be said to be the bedrock for any social, political and economic transformation of any society” (Dandago, 2002). This made it important for the actions of the insurgent to be related to the accounting concepts, so as to give a quality picture of an economy plagued by insurgencies because business entity’s existence may be in dilemma as regard the choice of securing or protecting the life of their employees and their invested capital at the period of siege.

THE CONCEPT OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Peace played an important role in the development of an economy, as economic development “is the increase (or expansion) of the national income or total value of production of goods and services of a country accompanied by improvements in social political and economic lives of the people in that country” (Wiah, 2006). The country is an economy and “An economy or business system is a way of producing goods and services and of providing a means for people to get them” (Brown and Clow, 2000). That is investment may only be determined by the investors., because it is a means of putting money into use for future benefit to be enjoy, there by leading to the economic growth of a state which is usually seen as an increase in the total income of an economy and subsequently lead to an increase in the development of a state. During any period of insurgence, the security of the invested capital and lives of employee of any business entity is a source of concern to the stakeholders not increasing or maximising the profit of the investment.

LONG TERM COST IMPLICATION OF INSURGENCY

When able youths of today are killing their selves through fighting it then “Extend to the killing of state security officials…..kidnapping and ransom seeking” (Ikelegbe, 2001:13). As a result of uprising or insurgency, the future workforce may Shrink and gradually die out, that is to say the current workforce of today may get old as a result of day in day out or may become obsolete with respect to technological innovation in the future and youth of today who are to take over from them are gradually killing or harming themselves or harmed or being killed by the security officials thereby creating vacuum in the economic future of a state, which at the same time pose threat to the going concern of the economic activities of a nation which in the long run may also lead to child slavery as those to take up the future economic challenges may have gradually been reduce as a result of insurgences and the remaining may not be able to champion the economic demands, then the children would be force to work in order to sustain themselves and the living aged ones.

METHODOLOGY

Data was collected from respondents who are economically engaged in Zaria metropolis as a result of being one of the major town which host Nigerians of different ethnics and religion background and had also witness crises that always had a mix of ethnic and political dimensions in recent time convenient sampling method was adopted and at least each sector of the economy was represented. Hundred (100) respondents were sampled and issued with questionnaire but only 84 were able to responds to the demands of the questionnaire (see appendix).
FINDINGS

The economic implication of insurgence on the economic development of a state is a source of concern to every well meaning individuals, this provides diverse opinion which made it possible for questionnaire to be prepared in a close ended manner, so as data derived are easily analysed and interpreted to give meaningful information to the user or consumer.

The data sourced are divided into three phases and tabulated as follows (see appendix):
1. Attitude of respondents towards economic consequence of insurgency
2. Attitude of respondents towards the causes of insurgences and
3. Attitude of respondents on the prevention and control of insurgences.

Table: Attitude of Respondents Towards Economic Consequence of Insurgency.

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<td>8</td>
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<td>72</td>
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<td>H</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>94.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Questionnaire Administered 2013

The above table indicates that 75 percent of the respondents do not go to work or engaged in business activities, while 25 percent responded they do go work or engage in business activities during state unrest. 82.14 percent of respondents believed that there is no benefit derived, while 17.86 percent are of the believed that people derive benefit from engaging in social unrest. 83.33 percent of the respondent are of the opinion that the after with of any civil unrest destabilses economic development of the affected society, while 16.67 percent expressed a contrary opinion. 59.52 percent overweigh 40.48 percent who believed that society affected by any unrest benefit from it economically. 76.19 percent believed that the future of any society affected by conflicts would not be bright, while 23.81 disbelieve the assertion.

The above table also show that 72.62 percent are of the opinion that militants who engaged in militancy act benefit, while 27.38 responded negativley to the assertion. 85.71 of respondents opined that militant can be called enemies of economic development, while 14.29 refute the assertion. 75 percent opined that the public does not benefit from any conflict in any community, but 25 percent opined that the public benefit from any conflicts in any community. 94.05 attest that curfew period affect business or work, while 5.95 reject the claim.

It will be understood that whatever dimension an insurgence takes, it negatively affect the economic progression of a state.

Table II: Attitude of respondent on the prevention and control of insurgences.

<table>
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<tr>
<td>O</td>
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<td>73</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>76.19</td>
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</table>
The above table indicates that 86.90 percent are of the opinion that the occurrence of insurgency can be prevented, while 13.10 percent opined that nothing can be done to prevent the occurrence of insurgencies. 76.19 percent believed that the imposition of curfew help in controlling civil unrest, while 23.81 disregard such believe.

However; if can be noted that insurgency can be prevented or controlled by the parties involved.

**Table III: Attitude of respondents toward the cause of insurgence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question Code</th>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Illiteracy</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Politics</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.71</td>
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<td>60</td>
<td>71.44</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>100</td>
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</table>

**Source:** Questionnaire administered, 2013

The table above present the analysis on the causes of insurgences using simple percentage, where 71.44 percent opined that all the factors mentioned above (poverty, illiteracy and politics) causes insurgences, 10.71 percent opined as politics is a factor that causes insurgences, 9.52 percent are of the view that the cause of any insurgence is illiteracy, while the remaining 8.33 percent strongly believe that poverty is the sole cause of insurgency.

To sum it up, the factor which causes youth to engage in any civil unrest are factors which can be avoided or put in place for the benefit of the state.

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS:**

The information about economic activities of any Nation State or community affected by insurgency is usually disrupted pending when normally returned to the affected environment.

In line with the finding the following recommendations aimed at improving the conducive business environment to champion economic growth and subsequently attain economic development:

i. **Execution:** It is recommended that the government and the business organization should engage in the construction of social amenities in communities, so as to create the sense of belonging to the members of communities.

ii. **Orientation and awareness campaign:** The state and the non governmental agencies should engage in sensitizing and orientating the youth about the danger of doing politics with hatred.

iii. **Migration:** Economic opportunities should be made available to the grass root through creating power plant and other economics needs of investment to establish cottage industries in the interior villages.

iv. **Monitoring:** The legislature, executives and elites should help in monitoring development project awarded to rural areas for completion and standard to actualize.

v. **Counselling:** Guidance and counselling offices should be opened in communities to help in settling misunderstanding through dialogue so that youth would not work “full time or part-time with armed groups” (francis et al, 2011).
BIBLIOGRAPHY


ABSTRACT

The low status of Girls and women in the country is due mainly regard women’s cultures and traditions which generally regard women roles as largely confined to the family, upholding child bearing as the symbol of women head. Girls child are often treated as inferior and are socialized to put themselves last, thus undermining their self-esteem men and boys on the other hand are accorded greater authority / opportunities and exert control both within the family and the society, most especially in decision making process. The profile of reaching profession revealed low participation of women at the last concluded National Teachers Day 2011. It is along this line that this study dwelled to some important aspects on how to revitalize girls and women education towards youth empower in Borno State: implication for counseling; with special references to vocational subjects, Gender, curriculum issues and HIV/AID related matters. The study employed disruption research design and the finding shows that violence, economic, cultures and traditional factors serve as barriers to girl child education as well as lack of moral support from members of the society, international agencies and N.G.Os. Based on the results proper solutions and meaningful recommendations towards revitalization of girl child education and youth empowerment were provided.

Key words: Revitalization, Girls Child, Education, empowerment, counseling.

INTRODUCTION

“Education is the basic for the full promotion and improvement of the status of women, it is the basic tool that should be given to women in order to fulfill their role as full members of society” (Nairobi, forward looking strategies, 1985).

Since the 1970’s authors such Oakley (1972), have called attention to the fact that a lot of discrimination that women face on the ground of their sex is baseless. They distinguish between sex and gender, defining sex as biologically determination characteristics of men and women.

Within the context of the Nigeria environment, several definition of the child exist. The National child welfare policy (1989) defined girl child as a person below the
age of 14 years. (Offorma, 2009), defined the girl – child as a biological female offspring from forth to 18 years of age; which heralded a several stage of development.

Education has been the described as the most important aspect of human development, a key to a successful living especially good child education (Michael, 2011). It is the process of providing information to a person to help him or her develop mentally socially, emotionally, spiritually and economically (Offorma, 2009).

Education is one of the fundamental eight of individual; Articles 26 of universal Doctoral of human eight, which was adopted by the UN general assembly as cited by (Nwangwe, 1976) stipulated that:-

- Everyone has eight to education this shall be made free in elementary and primary stages.
- Elementary education shall made compulsory while technical and professional education be made generally accessible to all one the basis of merit
- Parent have a prior eight to chose the kind of education to be given to their children

GIRL CHILD AND YOUNG WOMEN’S EDUCATION AS A DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGE

Development in this context should be seen from the angle of the prevailing notion of sustainable human development that is a state of well being that focuses on human being and on empowering the human person to work continuously towards making the world a better place for human creativity enterprise, and quality living standards

An estimated fifty percent of the population of Nigeria (that 60 million persons) is made up of women and girls. UNDP’S human development report (2002) estimates the earned income of women to be $ 532, while the comparable figure for men is &1,255. This indicate that on the average, a women’s income is barely 42 percent of a man’s income. The same report shows female economic activities as representing only 56% of those of men. Thus for every women engaged in economic activities, there are at least two men. While there are well know political and economic determinants of the prevalence of poverty, the case of women is usually attributed to the following factors:

- Lack (insufficiency or inappropriateness) of education and training a situation in which knowledge and skill are not at the level that can awaken human potentials, a level at which they can enhance human creative and productivity.
- A disenabling socio-cultural environment, which denies women a good number of basic human eight: eights to property, in human treatment of widows, succession and inheritance eights, even the right to be seen and heard.
- Lack of access to credits, even when women manage to become venture some is spite of all odds.
- Lack of low social value placed on the girl child.
- The lack of social recognition for socio- economic and human welfare roles that women play in all societies
- The generally low status of women in society
• The prevalence of women in no-income, low income, unattractive, low-status and back breaking jobs and occupations.

Education for women and girls as envision by EFA, (Education For All) aimed at reserving the Trent of extreme poverty on half of the country’s population by ensuring their full empowerment in the true sense of raising that status in the following essential dimensions.

• Psychologically: building and enhancing their self awareness and self esteem.
• Intellectually: awakening and sustaining sustain reasoning and knowledge acquisition skills
• Technically: inculcating in them a verity of socially useable and marketable life skill
• Socially: ensuring that they use their newly acquired knowledge skills, self esteem, technical skills to serve society better and to push for social equity and social recognition
• Economically: enhancing their productivity in the economic sense, as well as enhancing their income earning capacity
• Politically: ensuring that they too can be seen and heard that their civil eights are recognized as essential human Eight that they also become fully involved in decision making at all levels.

Education for women and girls, when considered from the full empowerment perspective, has the following advantages:-

a. Self improvement: the intellectual, psychological, technical, and the socio-economic and political dimension of full empowerment through education, and the possibility of those leading to an improve on the quality of life.
b. The possible positive impact of the women’s self empowerment on the quality of family and societal life
c. Above all, the positive gains which the women’s self improvement ensures for future generation; improved state of nutrition, health, child care, family welfare –laying a solid foundation for lifelong learning eight from the cradle

On the other hand, a nation that fail to ensure the full empowerment of women and girls through education will very likely be a classic case of:-

1. More and worse forms of illiteracy and ignorance
2. Enormous loss of talents and human potentials that could have been developed and harnessed for development
3. Continued socio-economic and political marginalization of half of the country’s population.
4. Consciously cursing the next generation.

GENDER AND CURRICULUM ISSUE FOR COUNSELING IMPLICATION

Having considered the concept of girls and women education our focus now would be directed towards gender and curriculum issues as a counseling implications.

Thus in this context, counseling refers to as finding solution ways and manners on how to empower girl child education in order understand themselves better, and became a selves reliance and productive in marking a meaningful contribution to the society and the nations at large Saidu (2013) counseling is a method of helping the
person utilizing his or her psychological resources by focusing attention on his positive traits and capability that could be utilized for his or her development Dr, Mrs. Farjuma (2002).

However the numerous problem girls and women faced with regard to their educational pursuits would be greatly minimized, if there were more female guidance and counseling officers to advised them. Training of more of such officers is greatly needed. While the federal, state, local government and UNESCO should embarked on series of training workshops, seminars enlightenment campaign and conferences on guidance and counseling for school age that is girl child and women education. Subject area that particularly lack teachers such as technical and vocational subject technology I.C.T education and local language should be encouraged.

Based on the this, the following measure should be taken into consideration for the enhancement of girl child education especially into school curriculum.

- The reflection of patterns of social relationship that could enhance girls education in the curriculum.
- Incorporation of cultural and traditional practices into the curriculum providing opportunities for married women to be in school and still make babies; and equipping teachers while in training with methods that could be used to mobilize school communities and parents to send their daughters to school.
- Vocational subjects should be involved into school curriculum such-carpentry and Joinery, electrical, wearing, cabinet makers, water phimbering cloths dying, welding weaving, tailoring services building training, tier-dressing, and food catering services

Some counseling strategies that could enhance girls access to and participation in education for national development include

a. Giving more time to girls to compensate for the time spend on house hold chores; provision of remedial opportunities for girls; even and fair distribution of questions by counselor between boys and girls; the use of women as role models illustration during lesson, counseling and in textbooks; encouraging girls participation in class activities; avoiding gender discrimination in the language of instruction particularly in citing examples; and giving girls opportunities to lead.

b. Another counseling implication that could curb girls poor access to participation in education also include:

- Legislation against the employment of school age female as household help; formation of pressure groups to ensure the education of girls; government commitment to advocacy and sensitization on the important of girls education; integration of Islamic and qu’ranic education in to western education; equitable division of household chores between boys and girls; free education for girls all levels; school environment that girl friendly and the formation of community Based school focused mother clubs to support the tracking girls who are not in school.

c. Implication of female education also involved the following:

- Reduce population growth in rate and size; increased divorce; growth in National GDP (reduction in poverty levels) and Health consciousness (self & family).
• Government at all levels should promote activities targeted towards H.I.V/AIDS prevention through risk reduction, partner reduction, condom use among other evidence based implementation strategies.
• Federal Government of Nigeria should endeavour to provide care, support and treatment for all infected girls and women.
• Efforts should be made to strengthen the HIV/AIDS/STI surveillance capacity in the country
• Effort should be made to rehabilitate commercial worker (CSW).

With reference to the above mentioned, below are the list of table of analysis and discussion.

Table 1: parent provides all the necessary things expected from them for their schooling daughters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondent</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table presented above, provided with a vivid evident. Parents/teachers responses with regards to the statement given in view, 52% of 100 respondents (parent) gave positive responses, while 48% responded negatively. Meanwhile, out of 50 respondents (teachers) sample for study, 70% of the total respondent (teachers) confirmed to have given positive responses, while, 30% confirmed given negative responses.

Base on the analysis given above, it can concluded that, most of the parent are less able to provide with the basic school needs such as exercise books and the like to their schooling daughter, this is due to economic constrains which could be a serious problem of good child education.
Table 2: above shows that out of 100 total respondents (Parent) about 100% of the respondents responded positively to fact that parents prepare girl child western education to marriage, while 60% responded negatively. Meanwhile, out of the 50 teachers sampled for study, 30 of them gave positive responses while the remaining 20 gave negative responses with regards to the same statement given above.

From the analysis given above, it could be deduce that most parents prefer girl-child early marriage to western education due to cultural and religious constraints.

Table 3: Analysis on the parental education affects their preference of girl child education.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondent</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>89%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table presented above shows parents and teachers responses with regards to the statement given on the parental education affect their preference of girl-child. Out of 100 parents sampled for study, 89% responded positively with the given statement, while 11% gave a negative response. From above same statement, out of 50 respondents (teacher) sampled for study, 23% of the total respondent gave positive responses, while 8% of the respondents (teachers) gave negative response.

Table 4: parents are not skeptical about western education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of respondent</th>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parent</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 above indicates that out of 100 respondents (parent), 53% of the respondents have accounted to the fact that parent are not skeptical about western education, while 47% disagree. From the table above, it is also confirmed that out 50 teachers (respondent) sampled for study, 54% of 50 respondents (teachers) gave positive responses in view of the given statement, while 46% responded negatively. This shows that most of the parents and guardians in the study area exhibit less doubt the western education.

**Discussion of findings**

In view of all the responses given by respondent (parent/teachers) base on the data earlier analyzed on the subject under study it has been confirmed that economic, cultural/ religious factors has a strong negative bearing on the education of girl-child in the study area.

However, for a convenient, the discussion of findings for the study is going to be presented in two sections. Section –A: present discussion of finding on the economic factors militating against girl-child education, while section – B: dealt on the cultural/religious factors.

**Discussion of finding on the economic factor.**

Table 1: revealed that due to economic constraint, most of the parents are less able to provide with the schooling needs of their daughters such as exercise books and the likes out of 100 respondents (parent) sampled for study, 52% of 100 respondents (parent) have positive views with the given statement, while 48% responded negatively. Meanwhile, 70% of 50 respondents (teachers) sampled for study gave positive response in view of the statement given while 30% of the respondents confirmed to have given negative responses.

In view of the discussions of result on the economic factors so far given above; the findings of the study is substantiated to the work of sweetman (1998) and Obanya (2003) among others.

Sweetman (1998) revealed that over ½ Africa’s population (Nigeria inclusive), live below poverty line of one US Dollar (1$) a day that is equivalent to ₦150. He concluded that the poverty impact on child education is felt more especially by girl-child.
Also Obanya (2003) reported that it is known to the fact that most families in Africa especially Nigeria have extended with devastation impact of disease including malnutrition consequently families are less able to cater for education needs of their children notably girl-child education.

**Discussion of finding on the cultural / religious factors**

Table 2: pointed out that out of 100 respondents (parent) sampled for study, 25% of 100 respondents (parent) confirmed to have given positive response in view of the statement on parent prepare girl-child western education to married. Meanwhile, 80% of 50 respondents (parent) responded positively in view of the same statement given above. Analysis on table 3, revealed 89% of 100 respondents (parent) gave positive responses with regards to the statement on parental education affects their preference of girl-child education. Meanwhile in view of the same statement given, 92% of 50 respondents (teachers) sampled for study, certainly gave positive responses. Table 4, shows the analysis on the statement “Parents are not skeptical about western education”. 53% of 100 respondents (parents) selected for study, have been certified to have given positive responses in view of the statement given above. Whereas on same statement given 54% of 50 teachers confirmed to have given positive responses. On whether parent stay their schooling daughters for household duties,

With reference to discussion of findings so far given above, it could realize that finding of this study to subjected to the cultural / religious factors militating against girl-child education as stated UNDP (2008) and Fafunwa (1976). Among others.

According to UNDP (2008) report, cultural constraints, religious constraints among others are the main factors militating against girl-child education in the Northern parts of the country including Borno State. These factors translate into girls being more likely than boys not to be enrolled or discontinue schooling because of household duties, early marriage and so on (population Reference Bureau, 2002). The findings of this study also equally agree with the findings of Fafunwa (1976), where he disclosed that cultural and religious factors served to constraint western education in the north more especially girl-child education.

**METHODOLOGY**

Research methodology: According to Martin and Amin (2005) refers to as a philosophy of research process. While includes the assumption and values that serve a rational for research and the standards or criteria the researcher uses for collecting and interpreting data and researching at conclusion. This study adopt descriptive method of research design. Which in other words determines the factor such as how to write hypothesis and level of evidence is necessary to make decision on whether to accept or reject

Statement of problems: this study is on the revitalization of good child education toward youth empowerment in Borno State. The researcher has the impression that the problems hardening girl child access to education in the state included the following:

a. Cultures and traditional factors
b. Violence and economic factors
c. Parents reliance on girl child for household duties
d. Lack of moral support members of the society, international agencies and non-governmental organization (N.G.Os)
RESEARCH QUESTION

What are the factors that enhance the revitalization of good child education towards youth empowerment in Borno State and counseling implication.

Hypothesis the study shows that there are not differences between parents and teachers responses with regard to statement on the question sample and sampling technique, this refers to a small group of cases drawn from and used to represent the larger group or whole population under investigation. The sample size is the number of people or objects in selected sample (machiem 1999). For this study sampling technique was deployed for selecting the sample elements. This consists of stratified sampling technique and sample random sampling technique.

Sampling population for this includes Mohammed Goni College of legal and Islamic Studies (MOGCOLIS) Kashim Ibrahim College of Education, Ramat Polytechnic Maiduguri and Mohammed Lawan College of Agric were mapped out in selecting the sample size required for this study. The primary source of data was obtained from 150 respondents usually parents and featuring staff in the some selected institution in the state. Data generated in this study were analysed using frequency table and percentage. This method gives a clear picture on the ways forward, for the revitalization of girl child education towards youth empowerment in Borno and Nation at large.

CONCLUSION

Finding of this study, it is clearly indicated that Both boys and men do need education as much as women and girls. However women and girls have been the victim of neglect for too long, and are in dire need of education surgery, to ensure our continued survival. Secondly, the multiplier effects of educating women and girls are enormous. Thirdly a much larger proportion of women and girls are being denied educational opportunities. The condition has led to un-equalities that are seriously threatening the nations harmonious development. It has been aptly said that development becomes end angered if it is not engendered. Borno State and Nigeria surely needs to engender their development taking the engendering of education as a starting point, in view of the centrality of the human person to all meaningful programme of development.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Below are some of the recommendations based on the finding results in order to check the negative impact on revitalization of girls and women education towards youth empowerment and National development:

- Re-informing the gender in education research and development capacity of select tertiary institutions
- Empowering N.G Os and local communities, women’s organizations, parents, teachers, vocational training centres, Association, etc for advocacy programme development and execution in favour for girls and women’s education.
- Effective implementation of policy and legislation on girls and women education.
- Strengthened effort should be made toward the removal of social cultural traditional, baisenal, psychological, Religious, and economic barriers to the full empowerment of women and girl child education.
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Nigerian private sector and Girls education. A report on the 2003 FME/UNESCO/Private sector Round Table on 66 Building Momentum to Eliminate Gender Gaps by 2005


National Youth policy federal ministry of youth development April, 2009.


Peter Mbah and Chikodiri Nwangwu
Department of Political Science,
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Abstract
Nigeria has witnessed sustained and often co-ordinated attacks on innocent lives, valuable properties, government institutions, etc. by the Boko Haram sect since 2009. The iconoclastic and subversive activities of the sect has led to the deployment of the special Joint Task Force (JTF) comprising the military, police and intelligence personnel by the Nigerian government. Chapter Four of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, other laws established under it and several binding international human rights treaties clearly delineate the fundamental rights of the citizens. Ironically, these rights have come under severe abuse by members of the JTF drafted to restore public order in the terror-riddled states in northern Nigeria. This paper, therefore, analyzes the grossly under-reported role of the JTF, whose counter-insurgence operation in the preservation of national security largely contravenes the fundamental human rights of the citizens. Utilizing the Marxist theory of the state, the paper establishes that the counter-insurgency operation of the JTF is implicated in the wanton abuse of human rights in northern Nigeria. It concludes that the incidence of human rights violation in the region can only be eradicated through sustained rights advocacy and good governance.

Key words: Boko Haram, Joint Task Force, Counter-Insurgence, Operation, Human Rights Abuses

1. Introduction

As the international community continues to grapple with global terrorism, Nigeria is bedevilled by the notoriously subversive activities of the home-grown sect, dubbed Boko Haram. The exact number of casualties credited to the sect is relatively unknown due to the dearth of information on the group. However, the large number of people who have died on account of the insurgence is cause for concern. Since July 2009, suspected members of Boko Haram, an armed Islamic group, have killed at least 1,500 people in northern and central Nigeria (Human Rights Watch, 2012:5). Similarly, the jihadists have been responsible for roughly 10,000 deaths since its founding in 2001 (Allen, 2013).

The sect’s attacks have primarily targeted innocent citizens, government institutions, security formations, religious organizations, educational institutions, media houses, beer halls, etc. So far, the government has concentrated its efforts at resolving the security challenge with
the establishment and deployment of the Joint Task Force (JTF) to the terror-riddled states in what has become one of the largest peace time military operations in Nigeria. The deployment has not stopped the bombings but rather increased resentment in the local community where the force is located. The Nigerian government through the counter-insurgence operations of the JTF has killed hundreds of Boko Haram suspects and random members of communities where attacks occurred. The JTF has engaged in excessive use of force, physical abuse, secret detentions, extortions, burning of houses, stealing of money during raids and extra-judicial killings of suspects (Human Rights Watch, 2012; Amnesty International, 2012).

These counter-insurgence operations of the JTF have contravened the Force’s Rules of Engagement which according to the Code of Conduct for Nigerian Armed Forces Personnel on Internal Security & Aid to Civil Power Operations quoted in The National Human Rights Commission Report (2013:36) states inter alia that:

In enforcing domestic law and order, members of the Nigerian Armed Forces shall use firearms as a last resort with maximum restraint, and respect for the principle of minimum force even in situations of self-defence. Force may only be used when absolutely necessary and to the extent required to perform their duty.

Moreover, the activities of the force in the northern region have not only eroded the spirit of Section 14 (2) (b) of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria which makes the security and welfare of the people the primary purpose of government but also undermined the fundamental human rights of the citizenry as enshrined in Chapter Four of the document. They have equally negated other relevant laws established under the constitution as well as several international human rights treaties which the government has, at one time or the other, ratified. It is therefore ironical that the security agents who are statutorily responsible for the protection and preservation of the fundamental rights of the nationals are increasingly being indicted in the infraction of these rights.

The abusive tactics of the JTF have strengthened the Islamist sect’s argument that it is battling government’s brutality. Indeed, the extra-judicial execution of the sect’s leader, Mohammed Yusuf, and dozens of other suspected members of the sect in July 2009 became a rallying cry for the group’s subsequent violent campaigns. Similarly, community members whose rights are frequently violated by the JTF are often unwilling to co-operate with security personnel and provide useful information about the insurgents. This impedes effective responses to the nefarious activities of the Islamist militants.

The causative factors that instigated the origination and escalation of the Boko Haram insurgency have become a subject of intense disputation amongst scholars in the literature (see Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013; Copeland, 2013; Manni, 2012; Thomson, 2012; Ogundiya & Amzat, 2008; Roman, 2012 and Adetoro, 2012). The insurgency has been associated with the perennial neglect of the socio-political and economic architecture of the country by successive administrations in Nigeria. The failure of leadership to transparently use public resources to ameliorate poverty and prevent all forms of socio-economic and political exclusions in the country underlies the insurgency. It is essentially fuelled by perennial failure of the political leadership to fight corruption, provide public services, create economic opportunities and establish accountable and effective security institutions. Accordingly, Clinton (2009:1) affirms that the most immediate source of disconnect between Nigeria’s wealth and its poverty is the failure of governance at the federal, state and local levels.
Beyond econo-religious explanations however, Boko Haram is a terrorist group that romances with some desperate politicians in Northern Nigeria. The sect enjoys effective support from some well-to-do individuals, religious leaders, allies, admirers of their ideology and highly placed politicians in the North who claim to be Nigerians but are clandestinely working against the state (Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013:289). The group has transformed from a sect of Islamic fanatics to one with the overwhelming support of disgruntled politicians and other paid thugs who find the sect’s ideology appealing. It is now widely accepted as a destructive political tool with a cosmetic pretension to religiosity. The sect has provided a safe haven for disgruntled, deprived, desperate, frustrated and opportunistic politicians who were dislocated in the political configuration within the terror-infested states and the country at large. They hide under its umbrella, therefore, to perpetrate subversive acts with the ultimate goal of discrediting the President Goodluck Jonathan’s administration as fundamentally incapable of preserving the sovereign integrity of the nation. This largely explains the underlying reason behind the resurgence and escalation of Boko Haram insurgence after the 2011 general election.

From the extant literature, however, no work has substantially and systematically analyzed the implication of the grossly under-reported counter-insurgence operation of the JTF on human rights in Nigeria. The literature is rather replete with reports of occasional violations of the fundamental rights of the citizenry by the members of the JTF. Arising from the foregoing, therefore, this paper seeks to analyze and answer the question: *does the wanton abuse of human rights by members of the JTF implicate the counter-insurgence operation in Northern Nigeria?* It found that the operations of the security agents drafted to the hotbed of Boko Haram in Northern Nigeria have not only violated the rights of the citizenry but also intensified the insurgence. The paper which is divided into introduction, theoretical framework, the historical development of Boko Haram insurgence in Nigeria, the counter-insurgence operations of the JTF and human rights abuses in Nigeria, and conclusion and recommendation covers the counter-insurgence operation of the JTF between 12th June 2011 when the Force was established and the eve of the emergency rule of 14th May 2013 in Adamawa, Borno and Yobe States.

2. **Theoretical Framework**

In analyzing the phenomenon of human rights violation by members of the JTF in Northern Nigeria, the paper employs the Marxist theory of the state. The theory arises as a reaction to the Western liberal theory of the state which holds that the state is an independent force and a neutral observer that caters for the main interest of every member of the society. According to the Marxist theory, the state is a product and a manifestation of the irreconcilability of class contradictions. It arises where, when and to the extent that class contradictions objectively cannot be reconciled (Lenin, 1976:9). Thus, Engels cited in Lenin (1976:9) notes that:

The state is, therefore, by no means a power forced on society from without...it is a product of society at a certain stage of development; it is the admission that this society has become entangled in an insoluble contradiction with itself, that it has split into irreconcilable opposites which it is powerless to conjure away. But in order that these opposites, classes with conflicting economic interests, might not consume themselves and society in fruitless struggle, it became necessary to have a power seemingly standing above society that would moderate the conflict and keep it within the bounds of ‘order’; and this power, arisen out of society but placing itself above it, and alienating itself more and more from it, is the state.
The state does not represent the general interest but the particular interest of the dominant ruling
class. This state, which arose from the conflict between classes, is as a rule, the state of the most
powerful, economically dominant class, which by this means also becomes the politically
dominant class and thus acquires new means of holding down and exploiting the oppressed
(Jakubowski 1973:41). Accordingly, Marx and Engels (1973:35) aver that the executive of the
modern state is but a committee for managing the common affairs of the whole bourgeoisie. The
state autonomy in the class society is therefore more apparent than real because the state remains
the instrument of the dominant classes for exploiting and suppressing the subordinate classes.

Meanwhile, the classical Marxist theory of the state has been further developed to take
into consideration the peculiarity of the post-colonial states. For instance, Alavi (1973:146)
contends that the classical Marxist view of the state is not fully applicable to the post-colonial
states. This peculiar attribute of the post-colonial states can be traced to the colonial era. In order
to secure their economic interests, the colonial government discouraged the emergence of a
strong indigenous capitalist class. Worse still, the new indigenous bourgeoisie that inherited
control over the post-colonial state apparatuses had a very weak economic base, and hence relied
on this control for its own capital accumulation. Consequently, the state and its apparatuses,
including members of the JTF have become the main instruments for the perpetuation and self-
reproduction of the class interest. The states in peripheral social formations are considered
inchoate and thus thrive on low autonomy. The persistence of deficient and brutal security
personnel is largely a product of low level of autonomy of the post-colonial states and indeed, the
character of the Nigerian state. This low autonomization made it possible for the political
leadership to use the JTF and other security agents to commit acts of criminality such as wanton
abuse of the fundamental rights of the nationals.

The role perception of the Nigerian security agents is inevitably shaped by its historical
evolution as a colonial bequest. As a colonial force, the role of the security forces was largely to
suppress, aggress, repress and oppress those opposed to the imposed authority of the colonialists.
Consequently, it is widely accepted that even after over five decades of independence, the
Nigerian security personnel still operates like an occupational force. This has culminated in a state
of permanent hostility between the security agents and the citizenry. Correspondingly, the
Nigerian state is used by the dominant ruling class to suppress the agitation, grievances and revolt
from below—the lower classes. If there is no class to be suppressed by the ruling class, then state
is not needed. Therefore, the use of state terror (state terrorism) is an offshoot of class society
orchestrated by the dominant class to suppress the other classes. Although the official attempt to
enforce the law necessarily carries with it certain coercive and punitive procedures which are, in
the main, at variance with the guarantees stipulated in favour of the citizens by the constitution,
the JTF’s penchant for brute and unbridled force is quite alarming.

The establishment and deployment of the Force with the mandate of restoring law and
order in the North-Eastern parts of Nigeria and Borno State in particular has heightened the
incidents of rights violation in the region. The counter-insurgenge operation of the JTF in the
Boko Haram hotbed has not only intensified the militant activities of the sect but also seriously
implicated human rights violations. Although this ignoble disposition of members of the force is
rather ironical and contradictory to the internationally recognised and time-honoured
responsibility of the security agencies in the protection and preservation of the rights of the
citizenry, the practice however corresponds with the overall nature and character of the Nigerian
state. The prevailing warped understanding of national security in the country which is usually
elevated above the security of the nationals has become the greatest threat to the fundamental
rights of the citizenry. It is therefore within the context of the specific character and nature of the
post-colonial state of Nigeria that one can best understand and analyze the ugly incidents of
human rights abuses by members of the JTF in terrorism-infested North-Eastern Nigeria.
3. The Historical Development of Boko Haram Insurgence in Nigeria

Boko Haram is an Islamist sect that came into the limelight in 2002 after co-ordinated attacks in Kanama (Yobe State) and Gwoza (Borno State). The sect founded by Ustadh Mohammed Yusuf in the North-Eastern part of Nigeria is officially recognised by its members as Jama’atu Ahlis Sunna Lidda’awati wal-Jihad, meaning “People committed to the propagation of the Prophet’s teachings and Jihad.” The Hausa appellation “Boko Haram” is derived from its ideological orientation which forbids Western education and cultural practices. Thus, the sect advocates abolition of democratic governance and any man-made laws.

According to Copeland (2013:1), some reports link the insurgency with earlier iterations of Islamist groups that opposed the Nigerian state but lacked the international notoriety of the current organization. The group has also been associated with small resistance groups composed of young men that began to congregate in the mid-1990s, led initially by Mallam Abubakar Lawan and later by the pseudonymous Aminu Tashen-Ilimi (Copeland, 2013; Roman, 2012). However, a coherent group identity could not be established until Mohammed Yusuf, a charismatic Islamic cleric, gained prominence among local youths in Maiduguri, the Borno State capital. By 2003, Yusuf led a movement espousing a conservative theology that mimicked Saudi-style salafism and opposed Nigeria’s secular state which it considered corrupt and un-Islamic (Copeland, 2013:2). Over time, the sect demanded more economic and political reforms. The introduction of Islamic law (shar’a) in the twelve northern Nigerian states since 1999 was deemed insufficient by Yusuf and his followers, who argued that the country’s ruling class as a whole was marred by corruption and even Muslim northern leaders were irredeemably tainted by “Western-style” ambitions (Pham, 2012:2).

In a statement credited to Abu Qaqa in Daily Trust of April 25, 2011, the Islamist sect stated inter alia:

We want to reiterate that we are warriors who are carrying out jihad (religious war) in Nigeria and our struggle is based on the traditions of the holy prophet. We will never accept any system of government apart from the one stipulated by Islam because that is the only way that the Muslims can be liberated. We do not believe in any system of government, be it traditional or orthodox except the Islamic system and that is why we will keep on fighting against democracy, capitalism, socialism and whatever. We will not allow the Nigerian Constitution to replace the laws that have been enshrined in the Holy Qur’an, we will not allow adulterated conventional education (Boko) to replace Islamic teachings. We will not respect the Nigerian Government because it is illegal. We will continue to fight its military and the police because they are not protecting Islam. We do not believe in the Nigerian judicial system and we will fight anyone who assists the government in perpetrating illegalities.

It is expressly deducible from the above citation that Boko Haram is an Islamist fundamentalist sect. The sect could be arguably described as a ‘home-grown’ terrorist group that is headquartered in North-Eastern Nigeria. It is considered home-grown essentially because it arose from the neglect of the socio-political and economic architecture of the country by successive administrations. The leadership has failed to transparently use public resources to ameliorate poverty and prevent all forms of socio-economic and political exclusions in the country. The insurgence is primarily the result of the perennial failure of the political leadership to fight...
corruption, provide public services, create economic opportunities and establish accountable and effective security institutions. Accordingly, Clinton (2009:1) affirms that the most immediate source of disconnect between Nigeria’s wealth and its poverty is the failure of governance at the federal, state and local levels. Nonetheless, it is pertinent to note that domestic terrorism is not strictly separated from international terrorism because they are interwoven. Terrorist groups whose political agenda become localized to a certain political or national context tend to increasingly internationalize some of their logistics, fund raising as well as planning and other propaganda activities (Akpan, et al., 2012:70). The Nigerian case perfectly blends into this connectivity and the country has been on the throes of daring suicide bombers masquerading as Islamist Boko Haram adherents.

However, Boko Haram is a terrorist group that romances with some desperate politicians in Northern Nigeria. It appears that the sect enjoys effective support from some well-to-do individuals, religious leaders, allies, admirers of their ideology and highly placed politicians in the North who claim to be Nigerians but are clandestinely working against the state (Nwanegbo & Odigbo, 2013:289). The group has transformed from a sect of Islamic fanatics to one with the overwhelming support of disgruntled politicians and other paid thugs who find the sect’s ideology appealing. It is now widely accepted as a destructive political tool with a cosmetic pretension to religiosity.

The July 2009 uprising in Northern Nigeria marked a tipping point in the conflict between the sect and the government authorities. The brazen execution-style killings by both sides left more than 800 people dead in Borno, Bauchi, Yobe and Kano States (Human Rights Watch, 2012:32). From 2009 till date, the sect has engaged in arson, bombing, shooting and stabbing with disdain and impunity. The insurgents have attacked some strategic and high profile places/persons like the Nigeria Police Headquarters in Abuja on June 16, 2011; the UN House in Abuja on August 26, 2011; St. Theresa Catholic Church, Madalla on December 25, 2011; This Day and The Sun Newspapers’ Offices in Abuja and Kaduna on April 26, 2012; the massacre of nine construction workers at the Shehu of Bornu Central Mosque, Maiduguri on July 1, 2012; and the assassination of a respected elder statesman, Maj. Gen. Muhammadu Shuwa and his guest, Sagir Musa, on November 2, 2012 in Maiduguri. The activities of the insurgents have caused Nigeria an irredeemable image crisis in the international community as well as engendered unprecedented humanitarian and economic catastrophe in the deeply affected states in Northern Nigeria. It is one of the greatest threats to the attraction of foreign direct investment (FDI), sustenance of economic development and the actualization of the Nigeria Vision 20:2020 agenda. Accordingly, Adagba et al cited in Nwanegbo & Odigbo (2013: 289) assert that between July 27, 2009 and February 17, 2013, Boko Haram has launched fifty three (53) attacks in which 1,157 people were killed and hundreds of people injured in Northern Nigeria. Table I below is a tabular representation of the chronological list of major Boko Haram attacks and the attendant consequences in Nigeria since 2009.

Table I: Chronology of Major Boko Haram Attacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Consequences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Between July 28 and August 1, 2009</td>
<td>5 days of clashes between Boko Haram and government security forces in Borno, Bauchi, Kano and Yobe States</td>
<td>More than 800 people died, including the sect’s leader, Mohammed Yusuf, who was summarily executed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>July 2010</td>
<td>Boko Haram began a campaign of</td>
<td>Assassination of police</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event Description</td>
<td>Result</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 7, 2010</td>
<td>Boko Haram raided a prison in the city of Bauchi</td>
<td>Freeing of more than 700 prisoners, including at least 100 members of the sect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 4, 2010</td>
<td>Gun attacks on Christmas Eve on 2 churches in Maiduguri and series of explosions in Christian neighbourhoods in Jos, Plateau State</td>
<td>Death of a Christian cleric and 5 other Christians in Maiduguri. 33 people died in Jos, sparking a month of sectarian bloodletting which left another 200 dead— both Muslims and Christians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 31, 2010</td>
<td>An explosion at an out-door beer garden on New Year’s Eve next to a military barracks in Abuja</td>
<td>It killed at least 4 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 8, 2011</td>
<td>A bomb exploded at the office of the Independent National Electoral Commission (INEC) in Suleja, Niger State</td>
<td>It killed 16 people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 16, 2011</td>
<td>A Boko Haram suicide car bomber detonated a car bomb in the parking lot of the police headquarters, Abuja</td>
<td>At least 2 persons were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>August 26, 2011</td>
<td>A Boko Haram suicide car bomber attacked the United Nations House in Abuja</td>
<td>25 persons were killed while more than 100 persons were injured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>November 4, 2011</td>
<td>Boko Haram attacked government security targets, banks, and churches in Damaturu, Yobe State</td>
<td>More than 100 people were left dead</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 25, 2011</td>
<td>A Christmas day suicide bomber detonated a car bomb outside St. Theresa Catholic Church Madalla, Niger State</td>
<td>26 worshippers and 17 bystanders were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 20, 2012</td>
<td>Boko Haram launched co-ordinated attacks on police facilities in the city of Kano</td>
<td>The attacks left 185 people dead</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 16, 2012</td>
<td>Boko Haram prison break in Lokoja, Kogi State</td>
<td>119 prisoners released and 1 warden killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 8, 2012</td>
<td>A British rescue mission against Boko Haram hostages, Franco Lamolinara and Christopher McManus failed</td>
<td>The 2 foreign hostages were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 8, 2012</td>
<td>A suicide car bomber detonated a bomb on Easter Day along a busy street in the city of Kaduna</td>
<td>At least 41 people were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 26, 2012</td>
<td>A suicide car bomber detonated a bomb at the This Day Newspaper Offices in Abuja and Kaduna</td>
<td>At least 7 people were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 29, 2012</td>
<td>Gunmen attacked two churches at Bayero University, Kano</td>
<td>At least 19 people were killed, including 2 people (Christians)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event Description</td>
<td>Casualties/Details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September 17, 2012</td>
<td>Boko Haram members carried out series of attacks on more than 24 mobile telephone towers in at least 7 northern states</td>
<td>Severing of telecom services in the states</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October 3, 2012</td>
<td>Boko Haram members attacked the town of Mubi in Adamawa State during a night-time raid</td>
<td>46 people were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 2, 2013</td>
<td>Boko Haram attacked a police station in Song town of Adamawa State</td>
<td>2 policemen and 2 civilians were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 19, 2013</td>
<td>A bomb attack on a contingent of Mali-bound Nigerian troops in Kogi State by Boko Haram splinter group, Ansaru</td>
<td>2 soldiers were killed while 5 others were seriously injured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 19, 2013</td>
<td>Boko Haram attack on the convoy of the Emir of Kano, Ado Bayero in Kano</td>
<td>5 people were killed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 8, 2013</td>
<td>Gunmen carried out 2 separate attacks on 2 clinics in Kano</td>
<td>10 polio immunization workers were killed while 3 others were injured</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 16, 2013</td>
<td>An attack on a construction firm in Jama'are, Bauchi State by Boko Haram splinter group, Ansaru</td>
<td>7 expatriate construction workers were kidnapped</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>February 21, 2013</td>
<td>A suicide blast targeting a military patrol vehicle in Maiduguri</td>
<td>A section of a market and adjoining shops as well as a petrol station were burnt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 16, 2013</td>
<td>Attack of JTF personnel, Lance Corporal Olomoja, in a local convenience in the Bulabulin Ward of Baga town</td>
<td>The death of Lance Corporal Olomoja</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 25, 2013</td>
<td>Attack on Bama town by suspected Boko Haram insurgents</td>
<td>Death of 21 suspected Boko Haram members, 6 policemen, 14 prison officials, 2 soldiers, and four civilians comprising three children and a woman, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sources:** Authors’ Fieldwork; Human Rights Watch (2012); and www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/boko_haram-200k

**The Counter-Insurgence Operations of the JTF and Human Rights Abuses in Nigeria**

The unprecedented nefarious and inhumane activities orchestrated by the Boko Haram fundamentalist Islamist sect have attracted the forceful response of the Federal Government of Nigeria. This is made possible through the establishment and deployment of the Joint Task Force code-named JTF Operation Restore Order I on 12th June 2011. According to Mohammed (2012:28), the JTF comprises personnel from the Nigerian Armed Forces, Nigeria Police Force...
(NPF), the Department of State Security (DSS), Nigerian Customs Service (NCS), Nigeria Immigration Service (NIS), and the Defence Intelligence Agency (DIA). The force was founded with the mandate of restoring law and order in the North-Eastern parts of Nigeria and Borno State in particular. Prior to the founding and deployment of the JTF, the Federal Government had established a Multi-National Joint Task Force (MNJTF) made up of military personnel from Chad, Niger, and Nigeria. The MNJTF came as a direct response to the problem of cross-border crimes and arms in-flow orchestrated by illegal aliens and often exacerbated by our porous borders. In 2012, the three countries extended the mandate of the MNJTF to cover counter-terrorism operations. The MNJTF co-exists with the JTF in Borno and other North-Eastern States. Similarly, the security situation in Borno State was administered by the state-owned Operation Flush Out prior to the establishment of the JTF. It was however later integrated into the JTF.

As noted earlier, the counter-insurgence operations of the JTF in the Boko Haram infested states have intensified the militant activities of the sect, nay, implicated human rights abuses. By human rights, the paper refers to the benefits and privileges which an individual is entitled. According to Nweke (2004:54), the expression ‘human rights’ can generally be defined as those rights which are inherent in our nature, and without which we cannot live as human beings, and without which no society is viable and able to function in the long run. They are rights that a man is entitled to for the mere reason that he is a human. These rights are inalienable and fundamental to his being and existence; nobody or authority has the right to deny him of such rights. Some of these rights are the right to life, right to dignity of human person, right to personal liberty, right to fair hearing, right to private and family life, right to freedom of expression and the press, right to peaceful assembly and association, etc.

The ignoble disposition of the members of the JTF contradicts the internationally recognised and time-honoured responsibility of the security agencies in the protection and preservation of the rights of the citizenry. The Chapter Four of the 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria and other laws established under it recognize the fundamental rights of the nationals as sacred and inalienable. For instance, Sections 33 and 35 of the Constitution guarantee that every person has the right to life and personal liberty and shall not be arbitrarily deprived of these rights. The Constitution also provides that every citizen is entitled to respect for the dignity of his person, including the right not to be subjected to torture. Similarly, Nigeria is a party to several international human rights treaties. These include the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights which prohibit arbitrary deprivation of the right to life, torture and arbitrary arrest and detention. Others are the UN Convention against Torture and other Cruel, Inhumane and Degrading Treatment or Punishment which requires signatories to investigate and prosecute those who commit torture and compensate those who suffer it; the UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Treatment of Prisoners which outlines the minimum standards for the registration of detainees, detention conditions, visitation rights and external inspection of the detention facilities.

The foregoing provisions notwithstanding, the members of the JTF deployed to the North-East have become infamously enmeshed in an orgy of human rights abuses. The Nigerian security agents have a long record of human rights abuses, including extra-judicial killings of criminal suspects in custody (Amnesty International, 2009; Human Rights Watch, 2005). This is typified in the recurrent incidents of human rights violations credited to the JTF. The force has been implicated in detention-related abuses, extra-judicial killings and torture. Accordingly, the Human Rights Watch (2012:58) reports that:

during raids in communities, often in the aftermath of Boko Haram attacks, members of the security forces have executed men...
in front of their families; arbitrarily arrested or beaten members of the community; burned houses, shops, and cars; stolen money while searching homes; and...raped women. Government security agencies routinely hold suspects incommunicado without charge or trial in secret detention facilities and have subjected detainees to torture or other physical abuse.

The above report has also been corroborated by the National Human Rights Commission (2013) and the Amnesty International (2012).

The reports by these credible human rights organizations are very weighty. At the outset of the uprising in July 2009, the police and soldiers carried out scores of extra-judicial killings of detainees. The most typical case was the extra-judicial execution of the erstwhile sect leader, Mohammed Yusuf, and other suspected key members of the group during the July 2009 uprising. As noted earlier, this practice has exacerbated the attacks of the insurgents on security formations. It has ostensibly justified the sect's claim that they kill security agents in retaliation for the summary execution of Mohammed Yusuf and other members of the sect, alleged police abuses like arbitrary arrest and torture, as well as the prosecution of its members. Consequently, the Human Rights Watch (2012:41) notes that:

Since 2009, government security services —especially police— have been a primary target of Boko Haram. The group has shot and killed police officers on active duty at police stations, roadblocks, government buildings, and churches, and has targeted unarmed off-duty officers in the street, in barracks, and while drinking in bars. Boko Haram has claimed responsibility for bombing police facilities using improvised explosive devices and suicide bombers. The group has also struck at military bases, checkpoints, and vehicles, especially those of the Joint Military Task Force (JTF) in Maiduguri.

Besides extra-judicial execution of suspected Boko Haram members, the JTF has also been implicated in other forms of human rights abuses. During raids into communities, soldiers have set fire to houses, shops, and cars, randomly arrested men from the neighbourhood, and in some cases executed them in front of their shops or houses (Human Rights Watch, 2012:59). One of the consequences of this wanton violation of human rights in the region is the growing resentment in communities. This has made community members more reluctant to provide information that could help curtail the insurgence. Similarly, the alienation of the ordinary people has created more distance between the people and the government. This has fundamentally made the whole situation dicey. It is virtually impossible to stop the insurgence without being friendly to the host community.

Moreover, the JTF has been associated with detention-related abuses. Many suspected members of the sect have been held for months and even years without charge or trial. These detainees are often denied the right to communicate with their family and lawyers. Most of them have had no charges publicly brought against them. Lengthy pre-trial detention remains a serious problem in Nigeria’s criminal justice system. As at the end of 2011, approximately 70 per cent of the 48,000 detainees in Nigeria’s prisons had not been tried— many of them had been held for years without trial (http://www.state.gov/j/drl/rls/hrrpt/humanrightsreport/index.htm?dldid=186229). The authorities’ failure to respect these due process rights has left detainees particularly vulnerable to abuses in police or military custody.
The most recent incidence of human rights violations in the sub-region is exemplified in the counter-insurgence operations of the JTF in Baga town on 16th April, 2013. Baga is a town in Borno State, near Nigeria’s north-eastern border with Lake Chad. The incident started, following the death of military personnel of the JTF who was ingesting some beverages in a local convenience in the Bulabulin Ward in Baga. He was shot dead by a projectile suspected to be a bullet discharged by unknown assailants, presumed to be or associated with the Boko Haram sect. The fallen soldier was identified as Lance Corporal Olomoja. This is one of many acts of provocation with fatal consequences attributed to the sect which apparently inspired or invited a firm response by the military deployed to the town. A reinforcement of soldiers from the MNJTF returned to the town later in the day and, according to the Police Incident Report cited in The National Human Rights Commission (2013:18), the MNJTF started shooting indiscriminately at anybody in sight including domestic animals.

This reaction resulted in loss of lives and massive destruction of properties. The number of persons killed or injured became the subject of intense dispute. According to the senator representing the zone in the House of Senate, Senator Maina Maaji, up to 228 persons were killed in the encounter (http://www.vanguardngr.com/2013/baga-mayhem-we-are-still-picking-corpses-of-women). There are also conflicting claims about the extent of destruction of property. According to the Senator, up to 4,000 houses were destroyed mostly by fire. Human Rights Watch (2013:1) reports that based on its analysis of geospatial images of the community after the encounter, the destruction covered an area of about 80,000 square metres, with at least 2,275 houses destroyed and another 125 houses severely damaged. Conversely, the Nigeria’s National Space Research and Development Agency (NASRDA), using the same image sets generated by Human Rights Watch as well as images from Nigeria’s own NigeriaSat-2 Satellite concluded that the affected area measured not more than 54,000 square metres, with an active zone of destruction measured at about 11,000 square metres (NASRDA, 2013:3). NASRDA therefore concludes from the image overlay analysis that the affected area cannot logically house 2,400 damaged buildings claimed to be identified in the study by Human Rights Watch. On its part, the Police Incident Report cited in The National Human Rights Commission Report (2013:18) notes that:

At least five wards, namely, Bulabulin, Bayan Tasha, Panpan Gajagaja, Adam Kolo and Bagadaza were completely razed down by the soldiers while properties worth millions of Naira were lost through fire which burnt over thirty (30) vehicles, fifty-seven (57) motorcycles, one hundred bags of beans/maize.

The National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA), in its initial assessment, reports that it had recorded at least 642 internally displaced persons in its facilities (National Human Rights Commission, 2013:19). The competing claims about the incident in Baga have largely focused on the casualty count. Similar rights violations also characterized the counter-insurgence operations of the force in Bama town on 25th April, 2013 (http://www.sunnewsonline.com/new/cover/bama-massacre-army-confirms-47-d-108k-). Table II below shows a tabular representation of the chronological list of some victims of human rights abuses orchestrated by the security agents in their counter-insurgence operations since 2009.

**Table II: Chronology of some Human Rights Abuses by the Security Agents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Place/Event</th>
<th>Victim(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

521
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event Description</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 11, 2009</td>
<td>Boko Haram funeral procession in Maiduguri</td>
<td>Shooting of 17 suspected members of Boko Haram over their refusal to use motorcycle crash helmet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between July 28 and August 1, 2009</td>
<td>Borno, Bauchi, Kano and Yobe States</td>
<td>Extra-judicial execution of the sect’s leader, Mohammed Yusuf and 24 other suspected members of the sect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 31, 2009</td>
<td>His farm settlement outside Maiduguri</td>
<td>Execution of Buji Foi, a former commissioner in Borno State over alleged sponsorship of the sect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 31, 2009</td>
<td>The Borno State Police Command</td>
<td>Execution of Baba Fugu Mohammed, the 72-year old father-in-law of Mohammed Yusuf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January 26, 2012</td>
<td>Raiding of the Gidan-Yashi neighbourhood of Maiduguri</td>
<td>Execution of 3 brothers—Dala, Mallam Tijani and Mallam Mohammed Mustapher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 9, 2012</td>
<td>Kano</td>
<td>Soldiers gunned down Ali Sadiq, a graduate of Bayero University who got married 5 days before the incident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 13, 2012</td>
<td>Pre-dawn raid of Dorayi neighbourhood in the city of Kano</td>
<td>Soldiers went from house to house, broke down doors, ransacked homes, and in some cases, stole money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>March 28, 2012</td>
<td>Disobedienc to court order</td>
<td>Mallam Aliyu Tasheku, a suspected Boko Haram member who was granted bail by the court but the police defied the order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 16, 2013</td>
<td>The Baga Massacre</td>
<td>There are conflicting reports from Sen. Maina, Human Rights Watch, National Human Rights Commission, NASRDA, and NEMA. But generally over 200 people died, 642 persons were internally displaced, while 2,000 houses, 62 motor vehicles and 486 motorcycles were destroyed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>April 25, 2013</td>
<td>The Bama Massacre</td>
<td>17 persons killed, over 200 houses and shopping malls burnt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ Fieldwork

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

The Boko Haram insurgency and the consequent counter-insurgence operations of the JTF have vitiated the enjoyment of human rights in the region. The insurrection of the nefarious sect constitutes grave human rights violations, nay, crimes against humanity. However, more worrisome are the counter-insurgence operations of the JTF deployed to the affected states.
These operations have been accompanied by serious human rights abuses. The undue attention paid to the activities of the JTF is essentially because one person’s atrocity does not excuse another’s. As a special component of the Nigerian security apparatus, the JTF is expected to be on the vanguard of protecting and promoting human rights in the country. Conversely, the paper finds that the Force has not only deviated from its Rules of Engagement but rather become a byword for the infractions of the fundamental rights of nationals. The counter-attacks of the force have culminated in the escalation of the insurgence. Despite a continuous and brutal government crackdown aimed at the insurgents, civilian casualties and arrests that have further bolstered the insurgence have not abated. Similarly, the extra-judicial killings, arbitrary arrests and detentions, torture, burning down of houses, shops, cars, and even rape, etc. during raids have engendered mutual suspicion and distrust between the JTF and the affected communities. This growing animosity has widened the gap between the force and the communities. It has also made the people more reluctant to provide relevant information that could facilitate the apprehension of the sect members.

Arising from the above findings therefore, the following recommendations are proffered:
In the first place, the government should take urgent measures to address factors that have fuelled the insurgence in Nigeria. Particular attention should be paid to the socio-political and economic architecture which have been perennially neglected by successive administrations in the country. Public resources must be transparently committed to the alleviation of poverty, hunger as well as prevention of other forms of socio-economic and political exclusions in the country. Concerted efforts should therefore be made to reconcile the paradox of poverty in plenty. In a nutshell, the fundamental tenets of good governance that had been hitherto neglected should be imbibed. The relevant institutions within the polity should formulate and effectively implement populist policies that are capable of addressing the general wellbeing and security of the nationals. Any solution that fails to address the underlying primal casus belli in the region and the polity generally will be superficial or cosmetic.

However, in the short-run, the following measures should be implemented in order to at least reduce the recurrent cases of rights violations arising from the counter-insurgence operations of the JTF in the terrorism-infested states.

❖ The government should conduct prompt and thorough investigations into allegations of serious crimes committed by government security personnel in violation of the provisions of the Nigerian Constitution and international human rights treaties. These include arbitrary detention, use of torture, enforced disappearances, deaths in custody, extra-judicial killings, physical abuse, stealing of property, and burning of homes, shops and vehicles. The relevant authorities must prosecute without delay and in accordance with international fair trial standards all security personnel implicated in any of the abuses.

❖ The National Assembly should enact legislation that criminalizes torture under domestic law according to international standards, including the Convention against Torture.

❖ The government should protect the due process rights of all the detainees. This could be achieved by compiling and making available to those who need it, including detention centre inspectors and family members, a list of detention facilities and detainees in custody.

❖ Detained suspects should be promptly brought to a public civil court and ensure that they are either charged with a recognizable crime or released.
The government should immediately order security forces to stop all harassment, abuse of citizens and the destruction of property, in line with domestic law and international human rights standards.

Although the Nigerian government has a responsibility to protect its citizens from violence, it also has to respect the provisions of Chapter IV of the 1999 Constitution and other international human rights treaties. It is therefore incumbent on the government to respect the laws especially those that deal with the use of force by its security forces, treatment of detainees, prohibition of torture, and the obligation to hold speedy and open trials.

Lastly, the government should remain undaunted in exploring all possible ways of dialoguing with the sect. This is essential because conflicts are hardly resolved at the battle field but at the negotiation table. In this regard, the 36-man Presidential Committee on Dialogue and Peaceful Resolution of Security Challenges in the North led by the Minister for Special Duties, Alhaji Kabiru Turaki, should be encouraged and supported to work with genuine Boko Haram members who are willing to renounce militancy.

References


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Abstract

Since the inauguration of the Nigerian federal legislature in 2007, conflicts between the Senate and the House of Representatives have been on the increase. But they are seen as a necessary precondition of the learning democratic process of the time. This paper argues that partisan conflict and bickering within the legislature can occur not only when two or more political parties control the two chambers but even when one party does. This is defined by the pursuit of private interests. In spite of the strategic importance of the legislature, adequate and relevant explanation to the conflicts within the two chambers seems not to have been scientifically given. Political analysts and academics rarely focus attention on scientific explanation of the conflicts. The article examines the theoretical insight and argues that the Nigerian state shows a unique form of underdevelopment, dependence, and authoritarianism. Because of these situations, the state becomes means of production for those who controls it and intra-legislative relation becomes conflictive in nature.

Key words: Legislature, Private Interest, Personal Ego, Senate, House of Representatives

1. Introduction

The third wave of democratization for political reform that spread across Africa and other parts of the world in the late 1980s and the mid-1990s culminated in the restoration of electoral pluralism in most of the countries of the continent including Nigeria in May 1999. This development led to the adoption of constitutional frameworks that guaranteed an important role in governance to the legislative arm of government. The particular form, content and scope which legislative power and mandate took differed from country to country. The structuring of its intra-legislative relations also differs. It is broadly shared that the legislature is the embodiment of the sovereignty of the people. In a democracy, the power of the people is exercised and expressed by the legislature. In this role, it was expected not only to make laws for the welfare of the generality of the populace but also to serve both as a democratically-empowered agency of restraint on the executive arm of government and a forum for the mobilization of popular participation in the broad governmental process. Representative legislative Houses at the federal and state levels of government in Nigeria were established by the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria after a long period of military rule.
The legislature is the heart of any democratic government across the world. In most advanced democracies, the legislature is believed to be the closest organ of government to the people. However, this historic role played by the legislature has not attracted much attention, unlike the executive and the judiciary especially in the developing countries like Nigeria. This development according to Boyton and Kim (1975) ‘may be attributed to the nature of legislative office that is neither the owner of the purse or the sword’. They further argued that legislatures have been key institutions in the development of the west for the past two hundred years. These are very considerable when compared with our knowledge of legislatures in other parts of the world. There seems to be little literature on legislature as an organ of government, legislative behavior and legislative conflicts within the legislature itself in Nigeria.

Compared with the advanced Western democracies, literature on Nigerian legislature is not as rich as those of the western world. Many reasons accounted for this. First, most of the available historical accounts of the role of colonial legislatures were actual documentation of the British. Second, most writings of Nigerian scholars focused their attention on the development of the Nigerian state and what it offers. Less attention was paid to the documentation of the actual performances and conflicts therein. In spite of the strategic importance of the legislature, adequate and scientific explanations to the conflicts within the two chambers in Nigeria. Political analysts and academics rarely focus attention on scientific explanation of the conflicts between the Senate and the House of Representatives in Nigeria.

The rationale for the establishment of bicameral legislature in Nigeria was based on issues of ethnic suspicion, fear of political and economic domination at federal and state levels and uneven access to wealth among others. Consequently, the National Assembly was created with the wisdom of the great compromise. Sections of 48, 49 and 58 of the 1999 Constitution demonstrate this compromise. The compromised arrangement that put the National Assembly in place in 1999 envisaged an assembly with diverse interest and views which make conflict and disagreement inevitable. Undoubtedly, these conflicts were expected to arise in the process of legislation that concerns the welfare of Nigerians. This has not been so.

The strategic location of the legislature ensures its responsibilities for political representation of members’ constituencies with respect to their disparate interests, the way it is expected to perform other legislative functions, including law making, oversight functions on the executive to ensure responsible and accountable governance, reformulation of the laws on administrative action with discretion to ensure adequate enforcement of rules, and to provide for a national integrity system by strengthening existing institutions committed to waging war against corruption. The 1999 constitution employed the principle of separation of powers as a cardinal feature for the operation of both constitutional democracy and presidentialism in the country. In fact, section 4 (1) of the 1999 constitution states ”the legislative powers of the Federal Republic of Nigeria shall be vested in a National Assembly for the federation which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives”. Section 4(2) also states that the National Assembly shall have power to make laws for the peace, order and good government of the Federation or any part thereof with respect to any matter included in the Exclusive Legislative List set out in Part 1 of the Second Schedule to this constitution.

However, the operation of the legislature has been characterized by conflicts, confrontations, and deadlocks between the Senate and the House of Representatives especially between 2007 and 2011. This is because different cadres of political men demonstrate their involvement in politics in different methods and ways. Their modes of participation are likely to vary according to the socio-psychological factors which help to define them and the nature of the political system as well as the history of political socialization and culture that they go through. Prevalent explanations see the conflicts between the Houses as the unavoidable teething problems of a nascent democracy. Conflict between the Senate and
the House are not merely the result of the learning process of the new democratic process. It is assumed that legislators will realize the co-ordinate characters of the Senate and the House of Representative powers and, therefore, the desideration of cooperative work. There are other reasons advanced that sound rhetoric favouring one chamber or the other and this has accumulated in both the popular press and the writings of political scientists. Much of this rhetoric revolves around the legitimacy of disagreement between the Senate and House of Representatives. In many publications by scholars, there are opinions that the platform of a party winning the majority in each chamber usually breeds disagreement and conflict between the two chambers. Usually, if the same party wins a majority in legislature, the gap between the chambers output is often held to reflect the extent of disagreement between the members. It is expected that conflicts will be common between the two chambers when different parties are in the majority in both chambers. In this case, issues are usually seen from different views and perspectives.

Increasingly this explanation is deemed to be an optimist’s dream. Political Scientists argue that conflicts will be common between the two chambers when different parties are in the majority in both chambers. In this case, issues are usually seen from different views and perspectives and neither party is willing to abandon its position. Usually, conflicts and disagreements are based on policy disagreements. Conflicts based on different positions on bills and policies are not, therefore, new but in the Nigerian case they are not based on issues and policies.

The 1999, 2003, and 2007 general elections made the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) pivotal in the National Assembly. The National Assembly is not divided by electoral results. Nigerians expected that acting upon their strengthened bargaining position in the National Assembly, that rancorous and conflictive relationships could be reduced to its barest minimum. It was assumed that a party with a majority in the two chambers of the legislature and controls the executive will then be able to carry out its platforms. This has not been the case.

However, in a country such as Nigeria where economic development is at the lowest level, the motivating factor has always been private interest, personal ego and sectional interest as the driving force of politics and of the feuds between the two chambers. Within two years of the present civilian administration, two Senate Presidents have been impeached, one Speaker of the House of Representatives have been disgraced out of office, his successor has come close to impeachment at least twice and there have been financial scandals/probes in both the Senate and the House of Representatives. Many legislators see the proverbial “hand of Esau and voice of Jacob” in these events. Consequently, many allegations have been made. Accusing fingers have been pointed at the former President Obasanjo for bribing some legislators to destabilize the National Assembly.

An examination of intra-legislative conflict between the two chambers between 1999 and 2009 reveals that despite the Peoples Democratic Party (PDP) controlling the majority seats in the two legislative bodies, the overall level of conflicts has been on the increase. Recent examples include the reception programmes planned for the President of Finland, Tarja Kaarina Halonen, who was to visit the National Assembly as part of her engagements in Nigeria, the passage of 2008 Appropriation and the bickering between the two chambers over which of them will host the joint sitting for the 2010 budget.

This paper, therefore, aims to critically evaluate how the pursuit of private interest and massaging of personal ego of members of the two chambers reinforce the conflictive and rancorous relationships within the National Assembly. This strand of analysis is central in framing our problematique of the conflict between the two chambers. In reality, intra-legislative conflicts are not as a result of a different party controlling the two legislative arms, learning process and on the issue of principle and dedication to
good legislation by standing on both sides of public interest, but, however, reflect a great deal of pursuit of private and selfish interests. Secondly using primary data collected through structured questionnaire, semi-structured interview and relevant documents (such as newspapers, magazines, etc), the paper tends to answer the question—Does the intra-legislative conflictive relations between the Senate and the House of Representatives be traced to pursuit of private interests and massaging of personal ego?

2. The National Assembly in the Fourth Republic

Since the return to democratic governance in Nigeria in 1999, intra-legislative relations at the federal level have witnessed three phases:


2. The conservative phase (2003-2007)

3. The ego-centric phase (2007-date)

The first phase witnessed immense internal unity which helped it to ward off executive interferences in the running of their affairs. They were vibrant and radical right thinking members who understand their mission there. Although executive-legislative relations were conflictive in nature and character, relations between the Senate and House of Representatives were cordial. In this phase, the federal legislature was saddled with the task of maintaining internal cohesion and stability in warding off the presidential interference in the election and appointment of principal officers of the assembly and being a check on the excesses of the executive. During this phase, two Senate Presidents were impeached; one Speaker of House of Representative was also disgraced out of office. The first Senate President, Evan Enwerem was removed from office because he was alleged to be President Obasanjo’s stooge, sponsored and planted by him. The Speaker of the House of Representatives was removed based on certificate racketeering and was equally accused of being sponsored by the President.

The second phase is what we called conservative phase or what we may call ‘rubber stamp’ legislature, in which the President because of his previous experience with the National Assembly carefully ensured that the majority of the radical members were not reelected into the federal legislature. The fraudulent elections of 2003 made that mission possible for the President. It was constituted by members of “Say Yea, the Eyes have it” or what may be called “yes members” except of course the tenure elongation saga which they overwhelmingly rejected due to serious internal and international pressure. This phase lacked the vibrancy of the first phase as it ceased to be a check or watch dog on the excesses of the executive.

The third phase has the majority of the second phase as members of the federal legislature as well as few new members. Ever since its inception in 2007, its goals have been to pursue parochial private interests of members of each chamber. From 2007 to date, internal conflicts and rancorous relations become the decisive factor in the federal legislature. Essentially, their focus has moved from a watchdog role to self-aggrandizers who seek nothing but private interest perpetuated by the quest for money and wealth.

3. A Methodological Note

This study was designed to employ multiple data gathering strategies, both primary and secondary. First, it is based on desk review involving examination of important literature on the subject. Secondly, a comprehensive questionnaire and interview section was designed to enable respondents of both federal and state legislators to freely express their opinions on the intra-legislative conflicts in
Nigeria. A sample size of 400 respondents was projected for the study to be drawn from federal and state legislators, lawyers and members of civil society organizations. Only 210 were returned and used for our analysis for measuring the relationship between private interest and intra-legislative conflict in Nigeria. We did this to test our hypothesis based on the claim that the pursuit of private interest and personal ego increases conflicts between the Senate and the House of Representatives. The selection of these respondents was purposive. In terms of distribution, the six geo-political zones were used, Port Harcourt, Enugu, Lagos, Kaduna, Markurdi, Yola and Abuja. These reflect state capitals in the geo-political zones of the country. Finally, purposive samples of respondents concerning the objectives were taken.

Responses from the questionnaire were coded and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive analysis--- frequencies cross tabulations and chi-square results were generated with SPSS for the study.

THEORIZING INTRA-LEGISLATIVE CONFLICTS IN NIGERIA

One basic concept of modern democracy is derived from the theory of separation of powers as propounded by Baron Montesquieu. This theory has been assumed to be the cornerstone principle of democracy in the last three centuries. In 1748, Montesquieu published the *Spirit of Laws* (Esprit de Lois) in which he reformulated an ancient idea in political theory. In Book XI of the Spirit of Laws, Montesquieu ascribed liberty in England to the separation of legislative, executive, and judicial powers, and to the balancing of these powers against each other.3 In medieval European constitution making, the idea of division of powers came to be a counterforce against the divine sovereign powers claimed by monarchs. And in England, the long struggle between the crown and both parliaments and courts of common law, which climaxed in the Glorious Revolution of 1688, underscored the importance of separation of powers and checks and balances.

The genius of Montesquieu lay in reformulating an idea connoting a political balancing of economic and social interests into a system of legal checks and balances between parts of a constitution. Montesquieu conceptualizes a system of government in which each traditional arm of government (i.e. executive, legislative, and judiciary) maintains clear and distinguished functions of its own as allotted to it by the constitution with checks and balances from the other two arms. American federalists later adopted the propositions of Montesquieu especially Madison, as the organizing framework of the American constitution. The constant aim is to divide and arrange the branches of government in such a way that each may be a check on the other to check tyranny and conflict between the arms of government. Although the idea to separate and co-ordinate the power of the three arms of government has been a major principle of liberal democratic constitution making for many years, political scientists, often neglect its organic connection to competitive capitalism. Consequently, there is no attempt to theorize its general and fundamental basis especially the relations between the two chambers of the legislature.

Therefore, a fundamental understanding of separation of powers especially within the legislature and the changes it has undergone in specific countries lies in the character of capitalistic production and the capitalist state. Being a market oriented commodity driven system, the capitalist society invariably evolves a legislative force seemingly standing above society and appearing as the guarantor of the collective interests of the people. In the West, separation of powers was particularly important at the phase of competitive capitalism for it served to balance conflicting interests of fractions of the ruling class, for instance, the estates in medieval Europe. Because these interests were usually inscribed in the arms of government, the liberal state which corresponds to competitive capitalism, appears as non-arbitrary, impartial and therefore capable of guaranteeing both the interests of the dominant and dominated classes and factions.
From the preceding analysis, two critical points have to be made about intra-legislative conflicts from competitive capitalism and the liberal state. First, the political function of the state, which consists of exercise of legitimate violence and the reproduction/inculcation of the dominant ideology, takes precedence over its economic function. Indeed, the liberal states rarely intervened directly in the market. Second, the legislature, which symbolizes popular power, tends to be dominant over the executive and administration. This dominance arose because parliament as the sanctuary of law and legislative power incarnated general norms whose universal and formal character constituted the essential features of modern law. However, the legislature has become a declining and fragmented body trying with little success to cope with the expansive and over dangerous power of a stronger institution, the executive.

The Nigerian state as well as its ruling class which emerged at the phase of monopoly capitalism, as a periphery variant of it, has also been shaped by it, and this class focused attention exclusively at the level of superstructure and were nowhere controlling the system of production on which politics has been anchored as in the advanced capitalist states. What followed was that the class resorted to the use of state power to secure their economic base and built an economic empire for itself. The state, therefore, becomes an instrument for the achievement of personal interests. Since every member of the National Assembly uses the state power for that purpose, conflicts become inevitable and the intra-legislative conflict in Nigeria can be located in this context. Because the state power has assumed a major means for capital accumulation, the ruling class while pursuing its private economic interests so often do clash with one another, the implication being multiplication of conflicts in the process of pursuing these private interests with total disregard to the public/national interests. The state tends to be all-powerful. Since this state is all-powerful and there are few safeguards on how its tremendous power is to be used in a moderate and civil manner, groups and individuals such as the members of the legislature take a great deal in controlling it. In the circumstance, competition among these various groups of people to control its power is cut-throat in nature and there is unprecedented primacy of politics since to be excluded from this power is utter ruin and to be included is lasting prosperity.

Fig. I: A Theory of Private Interest and Legislative Conflicts

4. The Role of Private Interest and Personal Ego in Federal Intra-Legislative Conflict in Nigeria
Since the return of democracy in Nigeria in 1999, four legislative Assemblies have been elected at both the national and sub-national levels: these were in 1999-2003, 2003-2007, 2007-2011 and 2011-2015 respectively. The members of the National Assembly were elected to make laws for the smooth running of the country including legislating for peace, order and good governance of the federation.

However, the leadership of the National Assembly often demonstrates propensity for conflicts between the two legislative chambers. This is because the role of the state in Nigeria is becoming increasingly obvious as a means for the achievement of private interest and personal ego. The condition of the country’s underdevelopment means that political or state power offers opportunities for public officeholders to rise above the general poverty and squalor that pervades the entire Nigerian society. Perhaps, political power has served the private interest of the members of the National Assembly and has been used to foster private interest for the benefits of their families, friends and praise singers. State power is probably the easiest means for which one enriches oneself for whoever has acquired it.

Besides, the state has become a means of production for those who have acquired it and have control over its resources. State power becomes parcelled out and personal interests become deflected as collective interest. This primacy of politics becomes even worse as economic resources reduce or become more concentrated in few hands, usually as result of neo-liberal economic policies at home, and a global economy in which the periphery is profoundly disadvantaged. As this happens, the social base of the peripheral capitalist state becomes even narrower, further intensifying the primacy of politics and disrespect for moderating rules. The state remains a state of private and sectional interests rather than a representative of the collective interests of the people. The state exists as prebends parcelled out to various private and sectional interests. Consequently, politics becomes fiercely prebendal as private and sectional interests engage themselves in fatal contest for increasing and defending their share of the powers of the state and the enormous economic advantages therefrom. In fact the Nigerian state presents the following characteristics namely: absolutism, arbitrariness, absence of moderating rules, low legitimacy and lack of unity of powers. This process has dominated the present conflict between the Senate and House of Representatives. The relations between the two legislative bodies are therefore, essentially relations of conflict based on competitive materialistic interest and personal ego.

In understanding what private interest denotes, it is important to begin with the understanding of the meaning of public interest or national interest. This will help us in conceptualizing private interest. Simply put public interest refers to the common well-being or general welfare. It covers the whole range of subjects from sovereignty, unity and security of state to communal amity, economic stability, and the standard of decency and morality. In a nutshell, public interest involves sovereignty, welfare, unity, faith, peace, and progress. This is central to policy debates, politics, democracy and the nature of government itself. In other words, public interests include factors such as ensuring the efficient and effective running of public services and an interest in ensuring the administration of justice. In this sense the public is a group of non-specific persons (Nigerians outside the government). They are persons that share an interest as they consider themselves as potential members of a non-specific group, abstracting from their particular position and private interest. This is related to Rousseau’s concept of the General Will. Thus the contrasting view of public interest is private interest. What is not public interest is private interest and private interest is motivated by a narrow and parochial concept of self-interest: wealth, fame and power. If there is conflict between the public and private interest amongst government decision-makers, the public interest suffers. A country where public interest is dominant, both leaders and the citizenry work towards achieving the public interest which is their common objective. But when leaders pursue private interest, resources earmarked for public interest are diverted to private use. The pursuit of private interest by the members of the National Assembly makes intra-legislative conflict inevitable, and this is why corruption is endemic in Nigeria.
What follows this is personal ego which has become the moving force for the actions of the members of the House of Representatives and the Senate. The word, ego is taken directly from Latin where it is the normative of the first person singular personal pronoun and is translated as “I myself” to express emphasis. Ego in philosophical terms means one’s self. It is used to mean a sense of self. It is an inflated feeling of pride superior to others and this feeling has taken control and crossed the line into arrogance, obnoxiousness and overactive need to be recognized and to be in charge in the business of the two houses in the process of law making in Nigeria. The ego becomes the driving force for the members of two chambers for primitive accumulation which is devoid of morality while satisfying their material quest.

To be sure, a Nigerian Senator earns more than the American President, Barrack Obama. The president of the United States earns an annual salary of $400,000 (N64.156m), including a $50,000 expense allowance making the president the highest paid public servant in the US. The $400,000 includes everything and $350,000 out of which is taxable. In the same manner, while the minimum wage is $1,257 (N191, 667), a US lawmaker earns $15,080 (N2.3m) per month. In the United Kingdom, a lawmaker earns $8,686 (N1.3m) monthly while the gross national minimum wage is $1883 (N283, 333) per month. In 2011, Nigerian Senate President earns N560m ($3.7m) per annum. The Speaker of House of Representatives earns N225m ($1.51m) per annum, while national minimum wage in Nigeria is N7, 500. Other Senators earn N225m ($1.5m) per annum excluding other monthly allowances such as housing, vehicle maintenance, entertainment, utility, wardrobe, personal assistance, domestic staff, recess allowance and newspaper allowance for members of the two chambers.

### Additional Monthly Allowance for National Assembly Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Senate</th>
<th>Reps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Housing Allowance</td>
<td>N4.96m</td>
<td>N3.96m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle Maintenance</td>
<td>N1.86m</td>
<td>N1.485m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>N0.74m</td>
<td>N0.594m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utility</td>
<td>N0.74m</td>
<td>N0.594m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wardrobe</td>
<td>N0.62m</td>
<td>N0.494m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Assistance</td>
<td>N0.62m</td>
<td>N1.485m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic Staff</td>
<td>N1.86m</td>
<td>N1.485m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recess Allowance</td>
<td>N0.25m</td>
<td>N0.198m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>N0.37m</td>
<td>N0.297m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>N12.02m</td>
<td>N9.603m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** BusinessDay, 21 June, 2010:1

In 2011 each member of the Senate earned N2.48m every month while his counterpart in the House of Representatives earned N1.98m per month. In the same year the lawmakers sought to increase
their allowances by hundred percent. Consequently, a Nigerian Senator now takes the following as salary and allowances:

- Basic Salary: (BS) N2, 484,245.50
- Hardship Allowance: 50% of basic salary N1, 242,122.75
- Constituency Allowance: 200% of BS N4, 968,509.00
- Furniture Allowance: 300% of BS N7, 452,736.50
- Newspaper Allowance: 50% of BS N1, 242,122.75
- Wardrobe Allowance: 25% N621, 061.37
- Recess Allowance: 10% N248, 424.55
- Accommodation: 200% N4, 968,509.00
- Utilities: 30% N828, 081.83
- Domestic Staff: 35% N863, 184.12
- Entertainment: 30% N828, 081.83
- Personal Assistance: 25% N621, 061.37
- Vehicle Maintenance Allowance: 75% N1, 863,184.12
- Leave Allowance: 10% N248, 424.55
- Severance Gratuity: 300% N7, 452,736.50
- Motor Vehicle Allowance: 400% N9, 936,982.00
- Total per month N29, 479,749.00 by 109 Senators.

The National Assembly has been by the foregoing an Assembly for looting. There is serious doubt whether these have been slashed by 20% as requested by the late President, Umaru Yar’Adua.

Comparatively, the US Senate Leader earns $193,400 per annum as salary. His counterpart in the House of Representatives earns $208,100 as salaries and allowances. In the UK, the Leader of Lords earns $136.031 per annum and the Speaker of House of Commons earns $136.031 per annum. Currently, the Senate President in Nigeria earns N250m quarterly or N83.33m per month. Senate Deputy President gets N150m per quarter or N50m a month. What this means is that a federal legislator in Nigeria is paid more than double what a member of British legislator earns at least 8 times as much as an American legislator earns per annum and more than 3 times the American President. This jumbo pay has not been translated into quality legislations that touch the lives of Nigerians positively. Rather the conflicts between the two branches of the legislature have led to the decline of passage of bills especially under the period in review.

Table 1: National Assembly and Bills Passed
Has the conflictive relations between the Senate and House of Representatives led to a decline in the number of legislations passed?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>no response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>90.5</td>
<td>91.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Data from fieldwork

From Table one above, it is the general opinion of our respondents that such conflicts between the two chambers do not encourage passage of bills for the benefit of many Nigerians. In fact, coming against the backdrop of reports that only 16 bills were passed, including the statutory yearly budget since June 2007 when the sixth session was inaugurated the view that the National Assembly has not lived up to the expectation of Nigerians is pervading. Out of 210 respondents, 190 representing 90.5% was of the view that conflicts between the two chambers led to the decline in the passage of bills. Only 11 of the bills have received presidential assent.

Table 2 below shows that pursuit of private interest is rife and pervasive among members of the National legislature.

Table 2: Conflict between the Senate and the House

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you think that the conflict between the Senate and House of Representatives on the chairmanship of Joint Committee on the review of the 1999 constitution is predicted on?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>no response</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>national interest</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>private interest</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>94.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>public interest</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>party interest</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>99.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ego problem.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>99.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supremacy/power tussle.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Do you think that the conflict between the Senate and House of Representatives on the chairmanship of Joint Committee on the review of the 1999 constitution is predicted on?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
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<td>.5</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Data from fieldwork

Out of 210 respondents 189 representing 90% was of the opinion that the conflict between the two houses is predicated on the pursuit of private interests. A country where private interest is dominant, both the leaders and the citizens rarely work towards achieving the national interest which supposed to be their common goal. For national interest to be achieved, the leaders have to play vital roles, especially being selfless, since they are the ones that enact laws with which the country is governed. In this kind of country, where leaders pursue private interest, nothing works since their concern is what they can grab from the system. This encourages endemic corruption and ineptitude since money budgeted for development will be diverted to private bank accounts.

Currently, the global capitalism is cumulatively making the situation worse. It has done this by creating two competing legislative chambers. They view their positions from purely private, sectional and partisan considerations. The dominant philosophy of the members of the National Assembly is oriented towards acquiring, grabbing and accumulating wealth thereby creating antagonistic relationship between each other. Thus, government in Nigeria, whatever their outward forms, is merely a reflection of underlying economic forces, primarily the pattern of ownership of the “Nigerian State”. The constitution of 1999 for both theoretical and practical reasons anticipates a legislature that largely shared powers but sometimes exclusive. However, the calculation of the House members is that the Senate is playing a game of economic exclusion, hence the face-off between the two Houses. The bribery scandals rocking the National Assembly bear testimony to this fact of over-bearing private interests as the driving force of the feuds between them. The legislature which is supposed to be embodiment of universal reason and collective will of the people-nation is increasingly becoming an assembly of corruption.

Currently, Nigeria Senate President earns 560million Naira ($3.7m) per annum. The Speaker of House of Representatives earns 225million Naira ($1.5) per annum as salary. However, the US Senate Leader earns $193,400 per annum as salary. His counterpart in the House of Representatives
earns $208,100 per annum as salaries and allowances. In the UK, the leader of the House of Lords earns $136,031 per annum and the Speaker of the House of Commons earns $136,031 per annum. In Nigeria, other members of the Senate earn 225 millions ($1.5m) each per annum. In US Senators earn $174,000 each per annum, and in the UK each Member of the Parliament earns $94,558 per annum. Currently in Nigeria, each member of the Senate earns 2.48 million Naira every month and the members of the House of Representatives earn 1.98 million Naira each per annum. In US Senators earn $174,000 each per annum, and in the UK each Member of the Parliament earns $94,558 per annum. Currently in Nigeria, each member of the Senate earns 2.48 million Naira every month and the members of the House of Representatives earn 1.98 million Naira each per annum. Recently the Law Makers have sought to increase their allowances and salaries by 100 percent. This explains why the rancorous relationship between the two chambers has been enormous. Recently, the Governor of Central Bank of Nigeria, Mallam Lamido Sanusi stated that 25% of the federal spending was being consumed by the National Assembly. The federal government overhead for 2010 was 536.2 billion Naira while National Assembly overhead was 136,259,768,102 which are exactly 25.41% of the federal government. The following evidence bears testimony to the claims that the intra-legislative conflicts in Nigeria are based on personal interest and massaging of personal ego by members of the two chambers.

The walk-out from Minna Retreat

The current feud between the Senate and the House of Representatives stems from the above analysis. The walk-out of the House of Representative members from the retreat of the Joint Committee on Constitutions Review in protest against the Deputy Speaker of being designated as Deputy Chairman, and not as co-chairman of the committee suggests that personal overrides national interest. The walk-out suggests that it is beyond co-piloting the affairs of the committee on review of the 1999 constitution. Otherwise, it is hard to believe that the House of Representatives can trivialize a matter of great national importance and deep concern to the country. It is difficult to see how proceedings at a meeting can be effectively directed by two persons as co-chairman with equal powers of control. There just cannot be two captains in one ship. The impression created by the wrangling over a matter that should not be the subject of controversy warranting a walk-out is that the House members of the Joint Committee are more interested in the perquisites of a co-chairman – allowance, jeeps, luxury hotel suite and such other privilege befitting the dignity of a co-chairman of the committee – than in delivering to the Nigerians a reformed constitution better suited to their needs for good governance. Because of the difficulty mentioned above, the progress and success of a constitution review exercise is more likely to be impeded than facilitated if meetings of the committee are presided over by two persons as co-chairman.

Table 3: Which Chamber should be blamed for Generating Conflicts?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chamber</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House of Representatives</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>80.5</td>
<td>99.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The general consensus is that the House of Representative should be blamed for generating conflict and strained relationships between the Senate and itself unnecessarily. 169 respondents representing 80.5% was of the opinion that the House should be blamed. The argument the House advanced in scuttling the inauguration in the co-chairmanship of the committee was neither constitutional nor canvassed and approved as part of the programmes of the constitution review committee. The unwarranted competition and struggle for personal allowance and other economic interests hinders the legislature from legislating for people’s welfare. This is a clear case of greed, selfishness, and indifference to the yawning and expectations of Nigerians who had hoped so much on the National Assembly and the executive arm to turn around the Nigeria economy. Rather, they are enmeshed in the battle of ego and personal interest.

The issue of co-chairmanship, therefore, appears odd because there is always, in a meeting or and associations, a chairman. Furthermore, the assistant is known by different names; deputy chairman, vice chairman and alternate chairman. The meaning of deputy, vice or alternate is that when that chairman is absent, one of these other three names act as chairman unless he is absent from the meeting. And section 53(2) of the 1999 Nigerian constitution clearly defines the spheres of power and position of the joint legislative committee and of personality disputes among the leaders of the National Assembly. Ego problems associated with acquisitive instincts explain the fact that there is no substance in the issue of who is chairman of the Joint Constitution Review Committee.

The reason why the House of Representatives want to ensure that the title “co-chairman” is employed is to make sure that the chairman takes no decision without consulting the co-chairman. However, the chairman never takes any decisions. The committee does. This is because in parliamentary meetings, there is no situation where one person takes a decision. Issues in the National Assembly are decided by vote, not by chairman. As chairman of a Joint Constitutional Programmes, the chairman is a presiding officer. He sits down and arranges who talks next and puts the issue to vote. It is therefore an aberration to talk of co-chairman by the House of Representatives because decisions in the legislative houses are taken by a majority. Well, it seems that the members of the House see the position of a chairman as an executive position, but it is not an executive position. They are presiding positions to bring order into the decision-making process. Therefore, the concept of co-chairman is alien to legislative vocabulary and the issue under contention should not have arisen in the first place. The issue of co-chairman does not exist in the parliamentary dictionary, not even in the English lexicon.

The Bickering Between the two Chambers of the National Assembly over which of them will host the joint sitting for the 2010 budget presentation

The conflict between the two chambers of the National Assembly in November, 2009, again seems to be infantile and diversionary. This time it was over which of them will host the joint sitting for the president’s budget presentation for 2010. The Senate argues that a joint session of both chambers to receive the presidential address on annual budgets is unconstitutional.

The Senate wanted the presentation to be done in its chamber while the House of Representatives argues that the tradition of budget presentation by the President is usually done in the chambers of House of Representatives. This has always been the convention to receive the budget in the House of Representatives. It is larger and the Senate President presides. Usually after the presentation of the budget by the President, the speaker gives a vote of thanks. This seems to be the tradition with countries operating bicaeralism.
The mundane supremacy fight between the Senate and the House of Representatives does not show that the legislators appreciate their role, which is to make laws for the betterment of the country. Nigerian Federal lawmakers are perhaps the best paid in the world, yet they are turning out to be the least productive. The presentation was postponed owing to this face-off between the two chambers over the choice of venue to receive the president.

The Senate wanted the budget to be presented in the Red chamber of the Senate chamber, but this was opposed by the House of Representatives. The House insisted that it would not attend the session as parliamentary convention since 1999 to date dictated that the budget is presented to lawmakers in the House of Representatives, which has a larger chamber because it has 360 members. There are only 109 senators. The Senate’s argument is that the venue is not stipulated anywhere in the 1999 constitution. I think there is noting constitutional about the venue of a joint session. It is not contained in any of the study rules, neither is it in the constitution. The idea of presenting the budget in a joint session is not even in the constitution.

What is in the constitution in sections 81(1) is that the President shall cause to be laid before the two chambers of the National Assembly a copy of the estimate of the appropriative bill for the following year. The Senate argues that there is no prescription in the constitution for a joint sitting. Section 53 of the 1999 constitution specifies who the chairman is when there is a joint sitting between the two chambers and the chairman has the prerogative to decide who performs what functions when that situation arises. It is not for anybody to dictate who gives vote of thanks. That is a normal procedural issue in the course of a joint session.

Since the inauguration of the sixth National Assembly over two years ago, the frosty relationship that has existed between the two chambers and their leaders has imparted most negatively on the quality of the enacted laws. It has stymied both the constitution review process and the Electoral Act amendment.

**Presentation of 2010 Budget to the National Assembly by President Yar’Adua**

Section 81(1) of the 1999 constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria simply states that:

> The President shall cause to be prepared and laid before each House of the National Assembly, anytime, in each financial year, estimates of the revenue and expenditure of the federation of next financial year.\(^{14}\)

In compliance with this provision of the constitution, the President had on November 3, 2009, written to the National Assembly craving their indulgence to grant him “the slot of 11:00 am on November 19 to formally address the joint session of the National Assembly on Budget 2010”.\(^{15}\) The idea behind the early presentation of the Appropriation Bill is for the lawmakers who hold the approval power to expenditure to have enough time to go through the process of appropriation so that the executive arm of government can also execute the budget early enough in the following year.

Since 2007, the Senate and House of Representatives have only agreed on money bills, specifically Appropriation Bills. The House has 28 bills awaiting concurrence with the Senate while the Senate has 12 bills waiting for its concurrence. The reasons for approving appropriation bills are obvious and important. To be sure, it tends to support the personal and group pursuit of the legislators. For example in the 2010 appropriation bill the National Assembly plans to spend for themselves ₦1.1 billion...
on meals and refreshments. They also planned to spend ₦15.1 billion on honorarium and sitting allowances. In 2009 appropriation budget, the National Assembly was allocated ₦59.8 million for refreshment and meals. To clear rats and mosquitoes from the House of Representatives section of the National Assembly complex ₦100 million was voted. We can now see why before 2007 and since 2007 the Senate and House of Representatives have agreed on money bills, especially Appropriation Bills. This current scenario paints a picture that even the appropriation bills will soon be affected.

Personal desire of members of the House of Representatives has blindfolded them so that they desire to be placed on the same rung with Senators on the legislative leader. But they do not appreciate the fact that their colleagues in the Senate are ranked higher even on the protocol order. As the constitution places the Senate President as the chairman of any joint sitting so does it move him or the Senate President as chairman of the National Assembly. The Senate President is the chairman of National Assembly and in any joint sitting of the National Assembly where the Senate President is physically present, he presides. This is an age-long norm and conventions that have come to be accepted globally. Where the budget is presented is no way fundamental to the operations of the legislature. It is not even a constitutional matter.

Because of personal interest and ego, little issues of no importance are trivialized to make it important. President Yar’Adua then had to present 2010 budget by proxy, in separate sessions of the two Houses; thus aborting a 10-year-old tradition and convention of the presidential presentation of the budget to a joint session of the National Assembly. It was in the midst of this instability and bickering that the executive initial ₦4.1 trillion proposition was padded by yet another ₦529 billion by the National Assembly which in the normal political process and going by the doctrine of separation of powers, ought to be limited to lawmaking. By this, Executive appropriates, while the National Assembly legislates.

However, over the years especially from 1999, the legislature has brazenly introduced concepts such as constituency projects, legislative offices and other amorphous terms to inject projects and consolidate their interests in the various appropriations with intent to muscle the executive into ceding part of its powers to it. It was based on the foregoing that the Acting President initially objected to the signing of 2010 budget before reversing himself.

In the 2010 the National Assembly was allocated a total of ₦127.7 billion out of which the House of Representatives will spend more than 22 billion on local and international travels. Senators on the other hand will spend about ₦6 billion for the same purpose. The legislators however added another hefty allocation captured under the sub-head; “Programmed Activities”. Under this sub-head, the Senate got an allocation of ₦9 billion while the House or Representatives was allocated the sum of ₦3.2 billion.

Table 4:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The conflict between the senate and House of Representatives on the Joint sitting for presentation of 2010 Budget was based on?</th>
<th>no response</th>
<th>Personal ego</th>
<th>Arrogance</th>
<th>Constitutional ambiguity</th>
<th>Lack of understanding of their constitutional role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The conflict between the senate and</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In this case, the above analysis output of the proposition that the conflict between the Senate and House of Representatives on the Joint sitting for presentation of 2010 Budget was based on either of the following, personal ego; arrogance; constitutional ambiguity; and lack of understanding of their constitutional role; clearly show that the significance value is so low that it is displayed as .000, which means that it would appear that the two variables (that is the question and the responses) are, indeed, related. The significance value (two-sided Asymptotic Significance) has the information we are looking for in the sense that the lower the significance value, the less likely it is that the two variables are independent (unrelated).

The Passage of 2008 Appropriation Bill

Another area of conflict between the Senate and the House of Representatives was the passage of the 2008 Appropriation Bill as submitted by the President in 2007. The National Assembly had pledged a commitment at its inauguration in 2007, to make sure National budgets were always passed on time to make for easier implementation by the executive. It was a commitment that the Senate and the House of Representatives as well as the executive pledged and made it a contract. They recognized the damage delays in the passage of appropriation bills had caused governments in the past, the poor public image it has heated for the National Assembly and the absence of dividends of good governance that Nigerians were denied of. Since the inception of the sixth session in 2007, only 16 bills have been passed by the National Assembly. These included yearly budgets. Only 11 of the bills have received Presidential assent.

After the presentation of 2008 budget proposals by President Umaru Yar’Adua in September 11, 2007, the Speaker of House of Representatives pledged the House commitment to a speedy passage of the budget, declaring that it was only under such circumstance that governance could be meaningful to the people. The Senate on its part equally expressed such sentiments when on November 18, 2007 the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>House of Representatives on the Joint sitting for presentation of 2010 Budget was based on?</th>
<th>132</th>
<th>17</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Chi-Square Tests**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>67.604a</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>60.585</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>61.373</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>210</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.27.
Senate said it would not relent on working for the earliest passage of the budget. This commitment was to ensure that the appropriation bill becomes operational by January, 2008.

Incidentally, days into the 2008 financial year, the budget was yet to be passed. It seems that the two legislative chambers have appeared to have forgotten all they pledge, relegating all that concerned the budget to the background, as they quarreled over matters of constitution review. Each house blamed the other for delaying the passage of the budget. The Senate on its part had come out in unmistakable terms to accuse the House of Representatives of Scuttling the early passage of the budget. They blamed the House for stalling development and progress of the country.

5. CONCLUSION

The underdevelopment of Nigeria and the conflictive relationship between the Senate and the House of Representatives are anchored on the problem of private interest and self-serving leaders who are in public institutions to satisfy their private aggrandizement and self glorification. Essentially, Nigerian politicians seek public offices only for personal interest rather than improved services to the Nigerian nation. That the legislators’ actions have affected and paralyzed government activities cannot be over emphasized. It has in particular jeopardized actions on the most pressing assignment of the Joint Committee on Constitution Review as a result of power tussle among the presiding officers of the National Assembly.

The current face-off over who is superior between the two chambers of the National Assembly, the Senate and House of Representatives, is a misplacement of priority by those elected to represent and serve the people of Nigeria. The squabble over obvious trivial matters explains the nature and characters of the member of the National Assembly in particular and the governing class in general. Their engagement is absurd, sublime and ridiculous squabble shows they have nothing to offer the nation. This has questioned the legislator’s sense of responsibility and patriotism because of legal and moral arguments being espoused by both the Senate and the House.

Democratic government, are made by people. Their forms are influenced greatly by impersonal economic, social, cultural and political factors. For democracy to succeed in Nigeria, people operating organs of government must create enduring institutions and norms, adopt procedure and institute policies that will command the support of the citizens. One digressing influence is the fact that the members of the Nigerian ruling class do not control the productive forces of society and as such are not productive. The Nigerian state and its governing class lack an economic base for effective governance. They are parasite and depend on the state power for private capital accumulation. And because they are parasitic in nature, there is very serious struggle and competition for the control of the state power and those who have acquired it now use it for personal goals.

The struggle and competition for the acquisition of the state power and private capital accumulation translates to the struggle and conflictive relationships between the Senate and the House of Representatives in Nigeria. This is because state power has remained attractive since it solely provides quick economic rewards for those who have acquired state power. Thus, transformative legislature is gradually eluding Nigerian legislative House. To be sure, they have become unable to act as independent initiators of policies and to reconcile as well as channel societal demands and conflicts. It has equally made socio-economic and political reformation anchored on justice, equity and accountability impossible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
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NOTES

7. Ibid.
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid.
19. Ibid.

REFERENCES


