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- All charts/diagrams which must not exceed 3.5 inches by 5.0 inches should be scanned and fixed into appropriate positions within the text.
- Authors should adopt the MLA referencing style and endnotes should be used instead of footnotes.
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Natural Resources and Border Dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon

Raji Shitu
Tosin Serah Oyekunle
A. M. Letswa
Aishatu A. Haruna

Abstract

This paper examined the nexus between natural resources and the border dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon. The study specifically investigated the causes and consequences of the conflict between the two countries on the socio-economic lives of their citizens. The paper relied on logical evaluation of secondary data generated from the re-analysis of existing literature. Findings from the study indicated that the conflict issue between Nigeria and Cameroon revolves around dispute over the control of the Bakassi peninsula as both countries laid claim to its ownership because of its rich oil deposits and its indispensability as the economic lifeline of the Bakassi indigenes. The conflict over the peninsula has imposed socio-economic hardship, especially on the Nigerians living in the old and new Bakassi Peninsula. The border dispute was largely managed through the adjudication of the International Court of Justice (ICJ), which primarily favoured Cameroon, but which has greatly de-escalated the conflict between the two countries. The study recommended that the socio-economic lives of Nigerians and Cameroonians, who were dislocated by the outcome of the judicial process, should be improved upon with credible re-settlement programme and economic empowerment while both countries should continue to adhere to the judgement of the ICJ to enhance the sustenance of peaceful co-existence currently being enjoyed within the Bakassi peninsula.

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Introduction

Africa is blessed with abundant natural resources, which have overwhelming importance for the survival of human race across the world. While resource like oil is used as exported lubricant for many industries in advanced countries, other resources, including coal and gas are used largely for domestic purposes. Apart from their relevance to human existence, all other living creatures depend on African natural resources for their survival, reproduction, growth and development. Thus, water supports the life system of vegetation, animals and birds while African natural resources have been used to sustain the very complex interaction between living things and non-living things within the continent and beyond. However, because of its richness and its contribution to the survival of human race, there have been intense struggle and scrambling for the control of African resources right from the colonial exploitation up to the post colonial African setting that has witnessed the enthronement of powerful African state and non-state actors to gain improper access to natural resources of other nations and profit from it, which at times lead to border conflict, as witnessed between Niger and Chad and between Morocco and Algeria. Rebel groups in particular have illegally mined African natural resources to prosecute war as witnessed in Sierra Leone and Democratic Republic of Congo when diamond and Colta were illegally mined respectively by rebels to wage war against the government. Apart from rebel incursion, African countries have also continued to struggle over the control of territories that are blessed with rich mineral resources for its exclusive control (Asif and Muneer, 2007). In most cases, several factors are responsible for intense competition for the control of natural resources, especially those resources within the border demarcation among African countries. The causative factors for scrambling for the natural resources of Africa include increased population growth, migration and urbanization that require more resources to satisfy.

The conflict between Nigeria and Cameroon is a good instance of this negative scenario of an interstate conflict over cutthroat competition for natural resources for sustainable development of both countries. Nigeria and Cameroon are neighbouring countries that shares a common border, similar socio-political history and natural resources. In fact, both countries have been using their historical ties to create opportunities that could benefit them, especially from the natural resources that lie within their borders (Asobie, 2003). One of these naturally endowed border areas is the Bakkasi peninsula. The peninsula, which apart from oil wealth, also boasts of heavy fish deposit, became a subject of serious dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon with about 28 lives of Nigerians and Cameroonians lost from

military aggressions and tribal squabbles in the area (Nigeria-Cameroon Boundary Commission,2008). The robust diplomatic relations between the two countries was also strained over issues relating to their 1,600 kilometre Bakassi boundary, which extends from the Lake Chad region to the Bakassi Peninsula. Amongst the issues of contention were the right of ownership over the oil-rich land and sea reserves, and the fate of the local population in the border re-adjustment programmes between the two countries. The interest over the ownership of Bakassi by Nigeria and Cameroon began immediately they both discovered that the peninsula has a huge reserve of crude oil. It was only then that the two countries started making serious claims and counter-claims over the territory. Thus, the dispute is not only a product of redefinition of geographical boundary by the colonial powers but also a product of cutthroat competition for resource allocation and control.

The focus of this paper is to assess the causes and the consequences of the dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon over the Bakassi peninsula, and the implications of the adopted conflict management mechanism of the crisis for the socio-economic development of the Bakassi people.

Conceptual Clarifications

Bannon and Collier (2003) define natural resources as materials that occur naturally with minimum human efforts, which are useful to human beings. Such resources include water, air, land, forests, fish and wildlife, topsoil, and minerals. The resources are classified as renewable or non-renewable assets. In most cases, renewable resources such as cropland, forests, and water can be replenished over time by natural processes and when not over-used are indefinitely sustainable. Non-renewable resources such as diamonds, minerals, and oil are found in finite quantities, and their value increases as supplies dwindle.

Because the concept of natural resources is broad, the categorizations and definitions of natural resources can vary among disciplines. Other category of natural resources include strategic raw materials, sources of energy, shared water resources, and food; and biological resources, energy resources, food resources, land resources, mineral resources, soil resources, and water resources.

According to Bekker (2013), natural resources are an integral part of the society as sources of income generation. Developing countries tend to be more dependent on natural resources as their primary source of income, and many individuals depend on these resources for their livelihood. It is estimated that half of the world's population remains directly tied to local

natural resources; many rural communities depend upon, land minerals, and timber as their main sources of income.

A developing country's ability to modernize economically is often dependent on access to natural resources. For instance, water is essential for both the agriculture and manufacturing sector as lack of clean water for the labour force can drastically inhibit a country's economic growth. Some natural resources play a central role in the well-being of the local community by contributing to their socio-economic development. Natural resources, both renewable and non-renewable, that are controlled by the state (which is the case in most developing countries) are used as exports by the government to obtain foreign exchange earnings and power. Developed countries have established an industrial infrastructure that relies heavily on imports of natural resources, and mineral-rich countries are positioned to supply that demand. Many of these resources have great value in the global market, which allows the developing countries in possession of the resources to be active participants in the international economic system. The best example of developing countries organizing to control their own fate through natural resources are members of the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), which works to protect the interests of oil-producing countries while maintaining stable oil prices and reducing the potential for conflict (Blake, 2008). Resources such as land, water, and timber (forests) usually have historical and cultural significance, serving as the home of ancient civilizations, historical artefacts, and cultural practices. These resources are part of the identity of a community or people, in which such people hold a powerful sense of attachment to having invested their labour and sweat from one generation to the other.

Brochman and Hensel (2009) refers to border or boundary dispute as territorial claims over demarcation of a territorial boundary between two bordering states or a land area between their borders of questionable ownership while Borzole (2004) agreed that Border disputes may be territorial or boundary claim existing between a state and the neighbour based on the challenge of territorial allocation requiring adjustment and arising from historical, geographical, ethnic or cultural, economic, military or strategic reasons. Colgan (2010) notes that the weak elites in the African State engages in border conflicts to minimise external threats to their rule while Colgan (2013) asserts that 'Border disputes are a common feature of African politics due to their arbitrary partitioning by the colonial masters without recourse to the peoples' cultural affiliations', though each region manages its conflict in different ways.

Three processes identified for drawing boundary lines according to the author are allocation (political division of a territory), delimitation (selection of a specific boundary site for data purposes) and demarcation (marking of the boundary on the ground through placement of pillars and beacons, fences and cutting of vista across the forest). Eboh (2015) considered the characteristics of borderland and African borderlands and concluded that border consists of location, which represents the distance of the border to the political capital of the country and how Government machineries function in relation to borderland areas and her population. The border also has interactive patterns of interstates relations across border issues and interactions among neighbouring population in the borderlands despite the partial or full existing restrictions of certain categories of people to cross the border. Potential conflicts and fighting over territorial boundaries over the strategic importance to the borderland is another characteristic of the border. An overwhelming presence of security organizations citizens' loyalty or disloyalty to his country and exercise of sovereign rights are equally important characteristic of the border. A border also has transnational features with respect to its roles as territorial, cultural and economic zones for regional integration, stability or conflicts).

Boundary politics therefore brings to fore, the utility and definition of conflict (dispute and crises) as a contradiction arising from perceptions, behaviours, phenomena and tendencies.

Review of Related Literature

Natural resources have been fuelling conflicts within and between African countries. Such conflict situations typically take the form of territorial disputes over the possession of oil-laden border areas, factional struggles among the leaders of oil rich countries, and major inter-state wars over the control of vital oil and mineral zones (Klare, 2014). The dispute over the Bakassi Peninsular between Nigeria and Cameroon is not only the product of redefinition of boundary by the colonial powers but more of a product of resource allocation and clash of tradition and modernity in which the pre-colonial history of the ancient kingdom of Calabar haunted the postcolonial reality of contemporary Nigeria and Cameroon (Ethim,2011).

Fearon (2005) had examined the issue of identity and power play in Bakassi, which according to them, had constituted serious impediments in managing the border question, from the level of the community to the state and external levels. For instance, they argue that ethno-cultural forces unleashed by the political liberalization process have always accentuated the struggle to control resources. Drehl and Goertz (2008) explained that

Shell, Mobil and Gulf prospected and discovered oil for Cameroon in the maritime region with Nigeria in 1967. Flint (2008) also explained that this discovery increased the stakes over the hitherto ill-defined maritime border. Leaders of both sides saw the need to hasten the settlement of festering border disagreements, which started modestly between villagers on both sides of the land border. This inspired some concerted efforts in the 1970s (after the Nigerian Civil War that had interrupted an earlier attempt in 1966) to better define the border. But with the new knowledge of petroleum within the maritime zone, political leaders have for economic as well as political reasons, laid claims to territories in this zone aimed at pre-empting the result of further discoveries to fall within their respective spheres. The existence of such mineral wealth has been a recipe for conflicts elsewhere in the continent and the rest of the world and this region would seem to fit neatly in the global trend. Such vital mineral deposits also increase the strategic value of territories under dispute as their proceeds by developing countries that usually depend on importation to satisfy their defence needs.

Gleic (2009) opined that Cameroon needed this Peninsula for the survival of her citizens. The author argues further that “While the Peninsula itself is a swampy land and generally being considered to be of little value, its ownership has important implications for fishing and oil rights offshore” Hardin (2005) At first the Bakassi Peninsula seems to be of less important for both countries because the region was initially considered as a swampy land, with negligible resources that could bring income into the country and again inhabited by poor fishermen who had nothing to offer to the government. Homer-Dixon (2011) contends that the Nigeria-Cameroon dispute over the oil-rich Bakassi was a carryover effect of the unhealthy relationship between Nigeria and France resulting from the overwhelming influence of France in the sub-region. He observes that Nigeria got her independence in 1960 and became a Republic in 1963 with sovereign authority over her international relations with the world at large. Nigeria, at infancy, was engaged in a civil war with the secessionist Biafra between 1967 and 1970, in which France supported the secessionists. He further infers that at the end of the war after 30 months, border skirmishes erupted between the Cameroon gendarmes and Nigeria villages in the Bakassi area with active support of France for Cameroon.

Akamode (2000) emphasized on the paradox of the Peninsular when he maintained that the Peninsula is a community that subsists in the midst of plenty-plenty of fish and oil deposit but is ravaged by poverty. He further traced the dispute in the oil rich area between Nigeria and Cameroon from 1993, leading to loss of lives from military aggressions that have

been mostly instigated by Cameroon. It is however pertinent to note that the Nigeria-Cameroon crisis over Bakassi was the climax of a long-drawn battle over territorial assets, supremacy and relevance between Nigeria and Cameroon.

Considering the factors that were responsible for the border dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon, Humphreys, (2005) contends that the diplomatic row between Nigeria and Cameroon over Bakassi was needless because the environment has been very beneficial to both countries. His argument centres on the fact that though the population of Bakassi is overwhelmingly Nigerians as Bakassi local government functions as part of Cross River State of Nigeria, the area has been beneficial to the government and individual citizens of both countries. In the Northern sections of Nigeria and Cameroon, grazing lands are jointly used by citizens of both countries. For instance, around Adamawa and Mandara Hills, grazers gain from this cooperation, and the government of both countries equally derive revenue from tax. The fishermen from both sides jointly use the local rivers for fishing and other domestic purposes. The trend of cordial Nigeria-Cameroon Relationship underwent some changes in the middle 1960s. It was characterised by disharmony and inherently conflict prone. This was partly due to the influence exerted by France and the leadership role of Nigeria in the sub-region; although, the rulers of these respective countries in the sub-region often attempted to portray an impression of cordiality in their official relationship. On a serious note, Nigeria relations with Cameroon from 1970-1980 have been characterised by mutual suspicion, distrust and alienation. The situation of rivalry and disharmony had perhaps been more pronounced in Nigeria-Cameroon border more than any others. This was not unconnected with some actions and decisions taken by Nigerian government which Cameroon regarded as out of place. Cameroon accused Nigerian government on the following grounds that Nigeria used her influence through Lake Chad Basin Commission to get Niger and Chad on her side.

As Huth (2008) noted, development wise, both Cameroon and Nigeria had not carried out any reasonable development in the area in terms of communication networks, health and education as to claim ownership. Despite the wealth of the region however, it is grossly underdeveloped and most of the people are poor and live in abject poverty. Secondly, Nigerian fishermen have been fishing on the Cameroon side of the Lake to the detriment of the Cameroonians, that Nigerian fishing boats plunder their waters with the support of Nigerian Navy using Cameroon as a dumping ground for the sale of fish by Nigerians without mutual considerations for

the Cameroonians. On the boundary issue, the Cameroonians regarded Nigeria as carving out an expansionist policy to grab more land from small and weak Cameroon as a nation. In fact, the Cameroonian authority is of the opinion that Nigerian government masterminded the result of the referendum in 1959 in the former Northern section of the British controlled Cameroon, by sending thousands of Nigerians to vote against the idea of uniting the Northern section with Cameroon. Furthermore, the Cameroonian authority regarded Nigerian claim to the ownership of Bakassi Peninsula as an attempt by the Nigerian government to grab more territories from Cameroon. This according to the Cameroonians was regarded as unacceptable and would not be allowed to take place. Hence they were prepared to use all diplomatic means available to block what they regarded as Nigeria's territorial expansionist policy.

An appraisal of the related literature clearly indicated that a lot of researches actually exist with respect to scholars that have attempted to interrogate the causes of the rivalry between the two countries over the Bakassi Peninsula. The researches also studied the national interest of the two countries. Considering the role of resources in inters – state relations, the study looks at how diplomacy has been employed to manage the dispute that exists between these two countries over the Bakassi Peninsular.

Theoretical Framework

This research is situated within the Territorial Theory of co-operation and Realist theory of international engagements. Joseph (1990), describe international cooperation as the voluntary adjustment by states of their policies so that they manage their differences and reach some mutually beneficial outcomes. According to him, the concept of international cooperation comprises of a number of elements: First, cooperation involves efforts by states to work together voluntarily. Second, it involves the specification by states of some common or at least compatible ends, to which they devote their combined efforts. Third, cooperation signifies not a one-time interaction but rather a longer-term engagement by the states. David Mitrany (1888-1977), as quoted by Joseph (1990), in his view posits that there are technical issues that could be resolved only by cooperative action across state boundaries. The theorist also sees cooperation as “a subject of manifest importance for anyone concerned about the prospects for world peace and order”. This theory was viewed differently by two different schools of thought: realists and liberal institutionalisms, but for the purposes of our study, the view of the latter appears more suitable and will be employed.

Liberal institutionalisms are of the view that in spite of the decentralized nature of the international system, the willingness of states to cooperate and work together has been encouraged, particularly with the assistance of international institutions and organizations, which help states to achieve their security goals, resolve and overcome their obstacles. They also concede that aside security issues which is one of the reasons why states need to cooperate, the grow networks of trade, monetary, capital and technology flows among states are also factors that necessitated cooperation among the states. The Liberal institutionalisms again argues that the 'low politics' in the international political economy and especially the success and failure of co-operative efforts among these states are also important domains of international action. According to Homby (2000) cooperation is a set of relationships that are not based on coercion that are legitimized by mutual consent of members. The author as well shows the need for states to cooperate among themselves in order to face problems which solutions are beyond their individual capacity. Such problems includes functional sector like trade policy in which the need for cooperative behaviour is believed to exist, environment, telecommunications, migration, health, investment, monetary policy and airline safety. The mutual gains from cooperative behaviour in such areas are held to outweigh the benefits from acting alone. As quoted by David Mitrany, "the more successful cooperation was in one functional setting, the greater would be the incentive for collaboration in other fields. Within the realist theory of international relation as champion by Hans Morgenthau, rather than wish conflict and war away within the international system, countries should rather see war as an acute reality that must be prepared for because of the cutthroat competitive nature of the international system over scarce global resources and the power to control it amongst nations. Since nations do not have access to these important resources equally and equitably because of its scarcity they often compete for it because of their selfish interest, leading to war sometimes, especially when the stronger country attempt to forcefully annex the resources of the weaker ones. All nations have thus, learnt to garner superior military power to curtail real or threat of domination by other countries in the international system.

The relevance of the two theories to the study is that the cooperative theory provide the cooperative basis upon which the relationship between Nigeria and Cameroon is based within the contemporary international relations, which demand the need for cooperation in order to enhance their securities, eliminate trade barriers between them, promote each other's economic well-being, as well as replace mutual suspicions with growing

trust. However, the two countries also rely on their military strength to curtail real aggression from the neighbouring countries that tends to undermine their territorial sovereignty. It is against this background that the theory of cooperation and realism are chosen to form the theoretical base of the work.

Bakassi Peninsula and Border Dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon

Geographically, the Bakassi Peninsular is bounded to the East by Rio-de-Rey, to the North-West by Akpayafe, to the West by estuary of Cross River and to the South by the Atlantic Ocean (Atlas Map of Africa, 2010). The region is an extension of old Calabar territory in terms of language, culture and ancestral affinity. It covers about 1,000 square kilometres or 400 square miles. Located around the forest zone of South Eastern Nigeria, the Bakassi Weather is wet with an annual rainfall of about 2800mm. The peninsular has about 47 villages with a population of about 600,000 (Atlas Map of Africa, 2010). The primary occupation of the people of Bakassi is fishing and it is inhabited by the Efiks from Cross River State, the Ibibios, Annags, Orons and Andionis from Akwa-Ibom state as well as the Ijaws and Itshekiri from Rivers, Bayelsa and Delta States of Nigeria. Apart from crude oil, the presence of the deep Sea is documented to be very rich in living creatures such as fish, shrimps, prawns and lobsters. The Sea was acknowledged to have the largest concentration of shrimps and fishes in the world.

The Bakassi Peninsula serves as one of the global economic life wire as many European and Asian Countries, especially Japanese have industrial vessels which catches fish in the area. The Peninsula, before it became a subject of dispute was carved out as part of Nigeria by the British European power. Article 1 of the treaty between the Kings and Chiefs of Old Calabar and Britain signed on Sept. 10, 1884 attests to this fact. In the agreement, the British Government agreed to protect all the territories controlled by the Obong of Calabar, one of which was the Bakassi territories including the peninsular.

The conflict between Nigeria and Cameroon over the oil-rich Bakassi Peninsula, and the dispute over their 1,600 kilometre long border area that extends from Lake Chad to the Gulf of Guinea, has its origin from the colonial partitioning of Africa. For their selfish economic, political and strategic calculations, the imperialist capitalist powers, which include Britain, Germany, France, Belgium, Portugal, Spain, amongst others, partitioned and divided African territories and its peoples among themselves without

the much consideration to the language, social and cultural affinities of Africans in the 19th century (Gumne, 2006). In many instances, the same ethnic nationality along its resources found itself divided into two or more colonial territories and ruled by different colonial masters. In 1884, Britain signed a treaty of protection with indigenous rulers that gave Britain control over the Peninsula. Subsequently, the area was included in German colony as a result of the 1913 agreement between Germany and Britain for the former to administer the area as her trustee colony. Cameroon had during the colonial times had its western part administered within Nigeria by Britain, which had made most of that part Anglocized, Nigerianized and the lands settled by Nigerian groups. This had led to flashes of attacks on Nigerian communities in the 1970s and 1980s by Cameroonian gendarmes, which had culminated in attempt in 1982 by the Shehu Shagari administration to contemplate an invasion of Cameroon as a counter-measure and way of showing the Nigerian superiority over her obstinate neighbour. However, the Government did not retaliate Cameroonian attack because of the latter's support for Nigeria during the civil war in deference to France, her colonial master's stance against corporate existence of Nigeria.

However, the renew interest of Nigeria and Cameroun over the ownership of Bakassi peninsular began immediately it was discovered that the peninsular has an overwhelming reserves of crude oil, and it is also a strategic location in the Atlantic Ocean as a fertile fishing ground (Homer-Dixon,2011). It was only then that the two countries started making serious claims and counter-claims over the ownership of the territory. Nigeria claimed that the peninsular is the ancestral land of the indigenous Efik speaking Bakkassi people from Cross River State of Nigeria. The country claimed further that from the end of the First World War to the independence of Cameroon in 1960, the Bakkassi Peninsular and the present day South Western Cameroon were administered by Britain as part of Nigeria. Cameroon claims over the territories was based on a written document in which the then Nigeria Head of State, General Yakubu Gowon ceded the Bakkassi peninsular to Cameroun as an inducement for the support of the country for Nigeria during her civil war with the defunct Republic of Biafra, and to also reduce the territorial influence of the geographical entity of the then Biafra republic by ceding part of it to foreign territory. The Nigeria counter claim over ceding arrangement was that, The Nigerian senate which has the constitutional mandate to rectify the document that ceded part of Nigerian territory to another country was not in session then and that whatever agreement Gowon had with Cameroun on the issue of Bakkassi was illegal and of no effect. Among other conflict generation

between Nigeria and Cameroon over the Bakassi peninsular are disagreement over the socio-economic rights of the people on the land and the control of the oil-rich land and sea reserves, as well as the fate of the territorial identity of the local populations within the peninsular. For example, as Lake Chad dried up due to desertification, local populations relying on the Lake for their livelihood have followed the receding waters, further blurring the boundary lines. Tensions between the two countries escalated into a military confrontation in 1993 with the deployment of Nigerian military to the 1,000 square-kilometre Bakassi Peninsular. The Peninsular is strategically important to Nigeria because the area constitutes an external environment for the defence of the country. From Nigeria's experience during the civil war of 1967-1970, it was clearly revealed that the country's political stability could be undermined by foreign enemy who could use the place as a base to destabilise the country. The proximity of Bakassi to Nigeria made it mandatory for the Federal government to want to retain it from possible manipulation by her enemy.

The Conflict Management Mechanism on the Nigeria-Cameroon Dispute over the Bakassi Peninsular

The conflict management mechanism of the dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon over the Bakassi peninsular was situated within adjudicative conflict management mechanism. In 1994, Cameroon sued Nigeria at the International Court of Justice (ICJ) in Hague over the disputed Bakassi peninsular. Cameroon asked the International Court of Justice (ICJ), also known as the World Court, to settle the dispute over its boundary with Nigeria, especially on the question of sovereignty over the Bakassi Peninsula, and over the Lake Chad islands, and to specify the course of the land and maritime boundary between the two countries (ICJ Reports, 2002). On the 10 October 2002, the ICJ, citing agreements between the United Kingdom and Germany in the early 20th century, issued its irrevocable judgment on the entire land and maritime boundary between Cameroon and Nigeria

After eight years of adjudication, the Court delivered its judgment on the merits of the case on 10th October 2002, deciding, in part, that sovereignty over the Bakassi Peninsular and the disputed area in the Lake Chad region lies with Cameroon. The court rulings confirmed sovereignty over portions of the territory in question to Cameroon and delineated the border. Nigeria also made certain land gains according to the ruling as one Cameroonian village, Dambore was ceded to her. While Cameroon was overwhelmed with satisfaction by the ruling, there were negative reactions to the ruling by different segments in Nigeria. The Cross River State Youth

Assembly (CRSYA) rejected the judgment in its entirety because it lacked the consent and approval of the indigenous Bakassi people who are Nigerians. The youth also argued that the handing-over of the ancestral land of Bakassi people to a foreign country did not follow due process because it lacked the ratification of the Nigerian National Assembly before the implementation of the ICJ judgement by the presidency. They posited further that the ceding of Bakassi Peninsula was done without a referendum of the Bakassi people and that Nigerians cannot have their ancestral home transferred to a foreign land in obedience to a politicized world court judgment. The CRSYA vow that Bakassi remains and will always remain part and parcel of Cross River State of Nigeria and not to be transferred to the Republic of Cameroun because the inhabitants have no ancestral, historical, archaeological and political links or ties with the foreign country. The Nigeria Bar Association (2008) admonished Nigeria over the Bakassi dispute by contending that as democrats, Nigerian leaders should learn to respect legal processes. As argued by the legal professional body, even if the government is rejecting the ICJ judgment, legal processes should be followed to protect the country's esteemed position as a leading nation in world politics.

The Nigeria Senate also reacted to the ICJ judgement as it rejected the transfer, since the Green Tree Agreement ceding the area to Cameroon was contrary to Section 12(1) of the 1999 which stated in relation to the withdrawal or implementation of treaties with foreign countries that:

- (1) No treaty between the Federation and any other country shall have the force of law to the extent to which any such treaty has been enacted into law by the National Assembly.
- (2) The National Assembly may make laws for the Federation or any part thereof with respect to matters not included in the he Exclusive Legislative List for the purpose of implementing a treaty.
- (3) A bill for an Act of the National Assembly passed pursuant to the provisions of subsection (2) of this section shall not be presented to the President for assent, and shall not be enacted unless it is ratified by a majority of all the House of Assembly in the Federation.

Regardless of the position of the National Assembly, the Bakassi territory was formally transferred to Cameroon on 14 August 2008. The Bakassi leaders threatened to seek independence if Nigeria renounced sovereignty over the Bakassi peninsula. This secession was announced on 9 July 2006, with the proposed declaration of the "Democratic Republic of Bakassi". The decision was made by groups of militants in Southern

Cameroon; under the aegis of Southern Cameroons Peoples Organisation (SCAPO), Bakassi Movement for Self-Determination (BAMOSD), and the Movement for the Emancipation of the Niger Delta (MEND). At an independence ceremony called by the Bakassi Self Determination Movement (BSDM) prior to the official handing-over ceremony of the Bakassi peninsula to Cameroon, residents waved the territory's new blue-and-white-striped flag at Ekpot Abia, which was part of the land handed over by Nigeria to Cameroon in August 2006. Nigeria began to withdraw its forces, comprising some 3,000 troops, beginning 1 August 2006, and a ceremony on 14 August marked the formal handover of the Northern part of the Bakassi Peninsula. The remainder stayed under Nigerian civil authority for two more years.

On 22 November 2007, the Nigerian Senate passed a resolution declaring that the withdrawal from the Bakassi Peninsula was illegal. The government took no action, and handed the final parts of Bakassi over to Cameroon on 14 August 2008 as planned, but a Federal High Court had stated this should be delayed until all accommodations for resettled Bakassians had been settled; the government did not heed this court order, and set the necessary mechanisms into motion to override it. Fishermen displaced from Bakassi had been settled in a landlocked area called New Bakassi, which they claimed is already inhabited and not suitable for fishermen like them but only for farmers.

The Cameroon-Nigeria Mixed Commission and the Implementation of the ICJ Judgement

Earlier, before the ICJ judgment, the then Secretary-General of the UN, Kofi Anan invited Presidents Paul Biya of Cameroon and Olusegun Obasanjo of Nigeria to a meeting on the 5th September 2002 in Paris (Asif,2007). The two Presidents agreed to respect and implement the anticipated ICJ decision, and to establish an implementation mechanism. They also agreed on the need for confidence building measures to further restore the cordial relationship between the two countries, including the eventual demilitarisation of the Peninsular, with the possibility of international observers to monitor the withdrawal of all troops with the support of the United Nations. After the ICJ judgment, the Secretary-General facilitated a further meeting between both Presidents in Geneva on 15 November 2002. In a joint communiqué, the two leaders agreed to ask the Secretary-General to establish a Mixed Commission of Cameroon, Nigeria, and the United Nations, to consider ways of following up on the ICJ ruling and moving the process forward. The Secretary-General designated his Special

Representative for West Africa, Mr. Ahmedou Ould-Abdallah, as Chairman of the Cameroon-Nigeria Mixed Commission. Apart from its Chairman, the Commission composed of the Delegation of Cameroon, led by Mr. Amadou Ali, Senior Minister in charge of Justice, and the Delegation of Nigeria, led by Prince Bola Ajibola, former Minister of Justice. The Mixed Commission was established as a conflict preventive diplomacy and a new model for peaceful settlement of conflicts between states within the international system (Anan, 2003). The Mixed Commission's mandate covers the following areas:

- i - To demarcate the land boundary between the two countries;
- ii - The withdrawal of civil administration, military and police forces and transfer of authority in relevant areas along the boundary;
- iii - The eventual demilitarisation of the Bakassi Peninsula;
- iv - To protect the socio-economic rights of the affected populations in both countries by giving those evacuating the peninsular new home and land for their occupation
- v - The development of projects to promote joint economic ventures and cross- border cooperation; and
- vi - The reactivation of the Lake Chad Basin Commission. In pursuit of its mandates, the Mixed Commission has established the following subsidiary organs, with experts from the two parties and the United Nations:
 - A sub-commission responsible for demarcation of the land boundary between the two countries.
 - A sub-commission on the affected populations with a mandate to assess the situation of these populations and to consider effective ways to ensure protection of their rights.
- iii - A Working Group on the withdrawal of civil administration and military and police forces and the transfer of authority in the Lake Chad area to the Lake Chad Commission, which completed its work in January 2004.
- iv - The establishment of a Working Group on the demarcation of maritime boundary.
- v - The composition of a Working Group on the withdrawal and transfer of Authority in both the Land Boundary and the Bakassi Peninsular to its owner based on the judgement of the ICJ.

To facilitate the activities of the Mixed Commission, the United Nations established a support team based in Dakar. In addition to technical and logistical assistance, the UN team also provided substantive support to the

Mixed Commission and to the two sub-commissions and the Working Group.

The Achievements of the Cameroon-Nigeria Mixed Commission

The Cameroon-Nigeria Mixed Commission has made significant progress since its inception, including the approval of a work programme on the demarcation of the land boundary between the two countries on the 5th October, 2003 (Bolaji, 2011). There was the withdrawal of civil administration, military and police forces and transfer of authority in the Lake Chad area by Nigeria, which was completed on the 18th December 2003. The process took place in phases with some 33 villages surrounding Naga'a, Tchika, Doron Liman, and Darack handed over to Cameroon, and Damboré to Nigeria. The mixed commission Chairman, Ould-Abdallah presided over the ceremony of the formal hand over in Tchika and Damboré, and the heads of the Cameroonian and Nigerian delegations participated. The Mixed Commission also deployed observer personnel to the Lake Chad area for one year to make regular reports on the extent of the implementation of the hand over programme. To strengthen confidence between the parties, the Mixed Commission has also embarked on joint projects to promote cross-border cooperation and joint economic ventures to benefit the population in the area. These included the reactivation of the Lake Chad Basin Commission, which was formed in 1964 among neighbouring countries, and upgrading, with the assistance of the African Development Bank, the Moutenguene-Abakaliki road linking the two countries.

A draft Protocol for the protection of the rights of the affected population was submitted at the sixteenth meeting of the mixed commission in Yaounde in April 2008. Earlier, at its meeting in Abuja on 29-30 October 2003, the Mixed Commission reaffirmed its commitment to guarantee the rights of all people affected by the Court's decision, both Cameroonian and Nigerian. In this context, the Sub-commission on the affected populations visited the Lake Chad, the affected areas in the Land Boundary (November 2003, January-February 2004) and the Bakassi Peninsula in February 2004. The Demarcation Sub-commission also joined the Sub-Commission on Affected Populations during the field visit of the Land Boundary and the Bakassi Peninsula in February 2009 for the verification of the actual implementation of the ICJ judgement by the two countries. The invitation for the Expression of Interest contained in the first contract for the Demarcation (satellite imagery for mapping) has been posted on the UN website since 2009.

In order to facilitate peaceful implementation of the ICJ's judgment to a logical conclusion, a budget of about \$12 million for the demarcation is involved. Cameroon and Nigeria have each contributed \$3 million to the UN Trust Fund for the initial financing of the project; the European Commission has granted 400,000 Euro for the demarcation programme while the United Kingdom has offered a contribution of one million pounds sterling for the project. (UNDP Report, 2010).

From 5 to 13 March 2009, a tripartite delegation from Cameroon, Nigeria, and the United Nations visited many cities including Paris, Brussels, Washington and New York to mobilise further diplomatic and financial support for the border demarcation.

Effect of the Border Dispute between Nigeria and Cameroon on the Socio-Economic development of the Bakassi Indigenes

The socio-economic and cultural effects of resettlement on the Bakassi people are unavoidably high. Farming, which has been the mainstay of the Bakassi people, was destroyed. Consequently, most small and medium families are adversely affected and impoverished in their new place of abode called the "New Bakassi" because domestic economic activities were disrupted and their occupations lost. The cordial ethnic, tribal and religious relations and unity among the people were lost between those Bakassi indigenes that chose to remain in Cameroon and those who chose to relocate to Nigeria. Individual dignity was virtually lost because of lack of privacy necessitated by inadequate accommodation for affected persons, many of who were force to bath in the open very early in the morning. Families were rooted out of their traditional and ancestral domain, cultural practice and ways of life in the old Bakassi. The situation at the resettlement site in Ekpiri Ikang, Cross River State perhaps explains more and elicits urgent attention of all the stakeholders to address the humanitarian crisis that have engulfed the relocated Bakassi people. Umahi (2012) captures the plights of the affected Bakassi people when he noted that the harsh reality of the handover of Bakassi to Cameroun is striking as several thousands of indigenes of the area were driven forcefully out of their ancestral lands. As it said, north or south, east or west, home is the best. But for the Bakassi people, there is no longer a place to call home. It was indeed, a precarious situation (Daily Sun, October 3, 2011: 24)

The forceful relocation also affected the socio-cultural affinity of the Bakassi indigenes with their natural environment, before the resettlement, the people of Bakassi worshipped "Akwa Abasi Ibom", the Almighty God in their tradition in the old Bakassi. They were rich in cultural heritage as

seen in their mode of dressing, bead making, masquerades, traditional wrestling, among others. The masquerades in Bakassi were similar to that of the Efiks of Calabar, which ranges from Nnabo, Agaba, Edem Obon, Ekiri Akata, among others. Most of these masquerades entertain people during festival periods, marriages/wedding ceremonies and burials. However, the relocation has had negative consequences on this cultural heritage of the Bakassi people and has created a problem of mixed culture and religion with their new settlements (Hensel, 2008). Within the economic domain, while in the old Bakassi, the people had obviously lived not as beggars, which the relocation has disposed them to, but as people who worked hard to meet their various economic needs. Their lands are rich in oil and maritime resources such as fishes and shrimps, which the people depended on for their livelihood. The relocation of the Bakassi people to strange lands has however had negative effects on their means of livelihood and depleted their economic wellbeing. Similarly, the relocation of Bakassi people meant that Nigerians who had lived in Bakassi all their lives had to face the sad reality of having to evacuate a region that is part and parcel of them immediately. Most people living in that area have business located there and so, leaving the area meant detaching them from their sources of income.

Moreover, all the infrastructural facilities, including hospitals, schools, recreational centers, that were originally put in place by Nigeria for the indigenous usage were forfeited while new ones were hardly built in their new place of abode. The judgment of the World Court has equally far reaching consequences on the territorial integrity of Nigeria and the Bakassi indigenes, fundamental among which are briefly enumerated below:

- (i) The judgement of the World Court recognized Bakassi Peninsula as territory within the sovereignty of Cameroon while the native population are not merely Nigerians, but Nigerians who are indigenous to Bakassi and owners of the land of Bakassi. The court ceded the ancestral home of these populations to the Cameroonians government while these people at the same time are expected to maintain cultural, trade and religious affiliations with their kith and kin in Nigeria. What this implies is that the judgement created an irreconcilable admixture of factors where it grants sovereignty of a territory to one country and the nationality of its native population to another, while at the same time recognizing the land to be the ancestral homes of the population.
- (ii) Though the International Court of Justice deals with suits brought before it on a case-by-case basis and is not bound by its previous decisions, it usually maintains a certain consistency in its decisions.

Such an absolute departure from its previous interpretation in this Bakassi case is inexplicable, especially when it serves colonial policies at the expense of traditional African linkages and civilization.

- (iii) The judgment is the legitimization of the scramble and partitioning of Africa by the colonialists through the Bismarck-inspired 1884 Berlin Colonial Conference.
- (iv) The judgment has created a future conflict between the indigenes of the new Bakassi and the other inhabitants of the land before their arrival. Thus the relocation of the Bakassi local council to Ikang which superimposes Bakassi people on an already existing land owned and occupied by the Ikang people is a time bomb, which is likely to explode anytime. Nigeria is creating a refuge problem for its own citizens in their own land. To Cameroon, the stability of the country is standing on the threshold of threat as the Anglophone secessionist movement, the Ambazonia are re-strategizing for an independent oil rich state which they claim, Bakassi Peninsula is its heart.
- (v) The judgment ceded part of Cross river estuary to Cameroon which means that no land owners can enter into Calabar without the permission of Cameroon.
- (vi) The judgment of the ICJ on the Bakassi issue has re-drawn the geographical map of Nigeria and, which requires constitutional amendment to effect change occasioned by the ruling.
- (vii) The judgment created a burden of loss of oil and gas soaked region reputed to contain ten percent of the world's oil and gas reserve. It has deprived the totality of the Nigerian people the oil wealth of that community.
- (viii) Because the ICJ ruling did not solve the problem of the inhabitants of the Peninsula, but only addressed the issue of who has control over the territory, the judgment only opens the door of war more widely.
- (ix) The judgment recognizes Bakassi as the only area allegedly covered by the 1913 Anglo-German Treaty whose population was not proven to have participated in the plebiscite for the purpose of self-determination. The judgement assumed that a plebiscite must have taken place in Bakassi. This assumption is a violation of the stated primordial role of the principal of self-determination.
- (x) Enforcement of the judgment was a severe violation of the inalienable rights of the people of Bakassi to self-determination and a threat to their socio-cultural stability.

The effects of the World Court judgement on the Bakassi Peninsula were equally implicated on the overall national interest of Nigeria. In fact, the existence of many states in the international system portends a form of permanent struggle for the maintenance of political independence, territorial integrity, economic interest and national prestige, as well as promotion of world peace. States, like individuals, appear naturally selfish because of their inherent desire to pursue their parochial interests in fervid competition with other states. With over 200 nations, the world in the midst of scarce resources and means of survival, calls for the entrenchment of national interests in all countries. The efforts towards the achievement of national interests have over the years proved a herculean task. This has called for concerted efforts by the leadership of the various nations in making decisions that would enhance the interests of the countries. National interest therefore, becomes a conflicting issue because some interests are not actually for the nation but personal or self-centered.

Conclusion

The unstable border lines between Nigeria and Cameroon, which was due to boundary adjustment and re-adjustment by the colonialists; the irredentist claims on the part of each other's land area and; the activities of the citizens living around the border were the immediate causes of the dispute between the two countries over the Bakassi peninsula. The availability of potential and actual economic resources in the peninsula, where oil and other natural resources were found in commercial quantity also fuelled the conflict. The findings from the paper are consistent with the growing body of research on territorial claims, which has repeatedly found that more salient territories are more likely to experience armed conflict. Importantly, the impact of natural resources is not as straightforward as has often been implicitly assumed in the past, so the understanding of territorial conflict is enhanced by this analysis.

Non-renewable resources, particularly energy sources like coal or oil, are much more conflicting than most renewable resources; this reinforces the finding that the presence of oil may continue to be a key instigator of conflict in many part of Africa having been referred to as a curse rather than blessing in Africa. Territories with fertile agricultural land, food production, or water supplies appear to increase the risk of intense conflict in Africa because many Africans struggle over these resources to sustain their families.

Recommendations

The study recommended that Nigeria government should set up a permanent Boundary Commission comprising of people from various disciplines, most importantly historians who are experts in the history of that particular area in question to look at the issues of Nigeria's International and intra-national borders; That all demarcations should take place transparently through official Joint Commission in consultation with the local people; that Non-Governmental organisation and community groups be encouraged to engage in dispute mediation and border monitoring; that international donors should be encouraged to develop peace building projects that cut across borders. Nigeria and Cameroon should continue to respect the judgement of the ICJ in order to promote peaceful co-existence between them.

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Poverty and Electoral Challenges in Nigeria

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Abstract

Poverty is a global problem. The United Nations over the years had been embarking on several developmental goals so as to override the effects of poverty among the comity of nations. For a country to excel in political, economic and social development, poverty must be reduced and eradicated. This study focuses on the prevalence of poverty as a challenge to the electoral success in Nigeria. There is a connection between poverty and the prevalence of challenges especially in elections in Nigeria. Therefore, how had poverty affected election credibility in Nigeria? What are the connections and the effects of poverty on credible elections in Nigeria? This work adopts qualitative research method. The theoretical framework of utilitarian principles-ensuring the greatest happiness of the greatest number of the people is used across the study to explain the need to eradicate poverty in Nigeria. Nigeria as the most populous black nation in the world needs to eradicate poverty as a matter of urgency so as to have credible elections, sustainable peace and rapid development.

Introduction

The overall development of a country and its citizenry hinges primarily upon the tripod of poverty reduction, 'upright electioneering', and sustainable democracy. This is not to say that foreign direct investment, internal and external security and other issues are not to be considered. The utilitarian philosophers (Bentham and Mill among others) argued that economy determines politics. In that line of thought, there exists a direct relationship between poverty and sustainable democracy or the typology of governmental structure of a country. This truism is such that the preponderance of poverty in a commonwealth has a level of impact on the electorates, and

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Electoral College framework or codes. It can be manipulated or hijacked by whichever institution of government, politicians or even the electorates-structural violence.

In the same vein, Galtung (1990), posited that social conditions such as poverty, exclusion, intimidation, oppression, want, fear, and many types of psychological pressure was categorized as another form of violence not immediately perceived. (Galtung, 1990 in Best, 2007:4). On the other hand, the political system of a country and its implementation has a significant bearing on the prevalence of poverty in that commonwealth. This is inversely related to the level of uprightness and function ability of the electoral commission.

One could argue further that if there is anarchy or no legitimate government in power, that is legitimate, there may be structural violence or uprising. As a result there will not be foreign direct investment. As such poverty becomes intense. The socio-political milieu of most African Countries and particularly Nigeria is bewildered by other forms of violence as Galtung(1990) puts it. Therefore, poverty in the opinion of Jensen and Justesen (2014) include the exclusion or marginalization, intimidation, want, fear, vote buying, and electoral fraud that had long characterized the political annals of such countries.

Besides, in Nigeria and in most African commonwealths, 'votings' are an outgrowth of the barbarous free-for-all over right to the assets guided by the regime, that are the important possessions in Nigerian guild. Nwankwo (2018), emphasized that as a result the lush universe of Nigerian electoral places, voting are very rivalries, and schemers therefore distribute different ways to triumph considering violence, aggression, influence and rigging.

One of the fundamental causal factors of vote buying derivable in the literature is poverty. Although, there are a host of other reasons, why vote purchasing prospers and flourish in any environment is centred and connected to distributed poverty. Another perspective to this is from the view of political parties. Notable scholars in their various researches explained that, votes at the lowermost of the financial gain distribution are cheaper to purchase (Dixit and Londregan, 1996; Blaydes, 2006; Stokes, 2007b: 119).

Lehoucq (2007), alluded to the reality when he revealed in his study that in instances where schemes are not persuasive enough to triumph, they distribute 'carrots'—voter purchasing. It is important to note that vote buying is usually conceptualized as seeking blessings particularly monetary system in return for vote decision making (e.g., Lehoucq 2007; Ojo, 2008; Kramon, 2016) just that it is a times wrongly conceived for turnout buying

which refers to donations inducement for masses to troop out on voting day (Nichter, 2008).

According to Bratton (2008), poor people are most likely to be targeted by vote buying in Africa, because of their poor level of income. This is evidenced by past elections. For instance in 2007, vote-buying dealings in his study on Nigeria revealed that, electors are normally given money (68 percent of all reportable efforts), goods (like food or clothing, 26 percent) or occupation (6 percent). Also, in the current and early Nigerian voting, the average inducement was 500 naira, or about US\$4. The normal price of a vote cost rose between 2003 and 2007, from 1750 naira to 2250 naira, mostly because the proportion of large commerce (10,000 naira or more per vote) accrued over time (Bratton, 2008: Pp3-4). This is to ascertain the level influence of poverty in the electoral system of Nigeria and it has become worse off in the recent times.

Furthermore, the 2018 election in Ekiti State, was characterized by illicit transactions of votes for cash which began days before election when people multitude into assigned houses to collect 4000 naira to support various political party. Notably, civil servants and pensioners had their stalled salaries paid as they were supposedly credited to mobilise them for the election. Also, on the Election Day, it was reported that both the leading political parties the Peoples' Democratic Party (PDP) and All Progressives Congress (APC), through several accounts distributed as much as 10,000 naira who could prove to the party agents that they voted for the party. (Vanguard, 21 July, 2018).

This study focuses on the prevalence of poverty as a challenge to the electoral success in Nigeria. There is a connection between poverty and the prevalence of challenges especially in elections in Nigeria. Therefore, how had poverty affected election credibility in Nigeria? What are the connections and the effects of poverty on credible elections in Nigeria? The reality a times is surreptitiously denied for some might argue that whatever any party does before Election Day, say in terms of voters swaying in any form is part of the electioneering process. Though the apparent is manifest-poverty in the state and the gain will be to a few individuals. This will not ensure the greatest happiness of the greatest number of the people in the country.

Conceptual Clarification—Poverty

Poverty is many things to many people, throughout the universe. Consequently, it has been a hugely contested concept among politicians, policy analysts, practitioners, students of politics, and the academic scholars.

Nonetheless, the study shall attempt some perspectives to poverty to enhance our understanding of this subject matter in lieu of the discussion of research paper. It is suggested that one can operationally distinguish different dimensions of poverty, namely economic, social, political and legal poverty; and that one might in addition be able to characterize three further aspects, namely psychological, ideological and conceptual poverty. However, other areas of poverty which include; Economic, Widespread or “collective”, Political and Geographical Poverty will be considered.

Poverty is not a personal choice, but a reflection of a society. Poverty refers to the consequences of the rule of money. Poverty is seen as “moneylessness and powerlessness” (Yakubu and Aderonmu 2010: 192) ; deprivation, insecurity, voicelessness, lack of power, and all other human right conditions that are produced and reinforced by poverty (Khan, 2009:9). Poverty is a social problem that leads to other social, economic and political disturbances. Poverty is a global phenomenon but it is more common among developing countries, Nigeria inclusive.

As contended by Mukhtar, Mukhtar & Mukhtar (2015: 3), apart from being oil rich, “the country also has large landmark and a lot of mineral resources which if used wisely, the country will achieve rapid political and socio-economic development”. But the reverse is the case in the country because large scale corruption, poor economic policies and bad governance have rendered majority of the country’s population poor. The Vice president in his interview in 2015 in the Vanguard expressed concern that over 110 million Nigerians lived below poverty line.

Economic Poverty is a form of poverty with regards to households and not the singular man, and is centred on the amount of individuals in a family unit. It oftentimes desire to determine the households whose economic position (characterized as command over resources) falls beneath some minimally acceptable level (Smelser, and Baltes, 2001). Likewise, the United Nations global standard of intense impoverishment is fixed to the ownership of little than 1\$ a day (World Bank, 2019). Furthermore, oftentimes, poverty is described in either comparative or relative terms. Relative poverty standardizes poverty in connection to the sum of money needed to meet primary needs like food, clothing, and shelter. Ajakaiye & Adeleye (2001), argue that the idea of poverty is just the need of education, health, child mortality.

The thought of implicit financial condition is not taken up with broad-brimmed degree of life issues. One can still be referred to as being poor, even if he holds a large sum of money in the bank, if he is not able to cater for the basic needs of his or her life- food, clothing, and shelter. It is then

logical to think that the distribution of food, clothing and a little cash by the politicians during elections is like capitalizing on the inability of the people to survive on the primary need implicitly first before thinking of 'other secondary needs'- buying a car, gold chain among others.

Poverty has been connected, with poor health, low levels of education or ability, inability or no disposition to work, high rates of tumultuous or unruly demeanour, and short-sightedness. From the sociological point of view, though these dimensions have oftentimes been established to live with poverty, their involvement in a explanation of poverty maybe given to make unclear the connection between them and the inability to cater for one's underlying needs (Augustyn, 2018).

Widespread or "collective" poverty concerns a comparatively lasting insufficiency of way to guarantee fundamental needs—a precondition that may be as unspecific as to depict the ordinary level of life in a social group or that may be amassed in comparatively large groups in an otherwise rich society. Collective poverty is comparatively pandemic and abiding in parts of Asia, the Middle East, most of Africa, and parts of South America and Central America. Life for the majority of the people in these locations is at a minimal level. Nutritional lack cause seldom illness seen by doctors in the highly industrial commonwealths. Collective poverty is usually concomitant to economic underdevelopment (Augustyn, 2018).

Political Poverty can be described as a situation in which the poor are losers when it comes to the political process. They are demoralized and sometimes precluded from voting, and they have *petite* real chance of expressing their thoughts in manners that will be heard by the mighty because their "representatives" tend not to listen to people who have neither money nor advantage (Alston,2017). It follows that as a result of denial of rights to express their choices at polling centres due to their poor income level or poor economic state, they are promised "political goods" by those who wield enormous influence, and possess the goody bags; with the promise that in return on the election day, they will cast their votes for the 'mighty man' with the 'promised blessings'.

Geographical Poverty implies the setting out to help the poorest of the poor depends on where they live. It is the categorization of poverty according to the locations of the people. The urban poor and the rural poor are most popular geographical poverty categorization by geographical areas. It suffices to say that politicians mostly target the ghettos, wretched of the earth, rurals of the urban sub hubs- poorest of the poor in the land, with unattainable political manifestoes to delivering to them 'opportunistic blessings' once they have resolved to offer their votes for a certain political

party on election day. As such, what results is usually monetary inducement in such campaign districts/ constituencies.

Global Manifestation of Poverty

A Global Phenomenon

Poverty is a global phenomenon. It is globally accepted that the global standard of measurement of intense impoverishment is living below 1\$ a day (World Bank, 2019). Poverty is described in either comparative or relative terms. Relative poverty regulates poverty in connection to the sum of money needed to meet primary needs like food, clothing, and shelter. It then follows that poverty level differs from one region to another and certain areas within a region are very much poorer than others. Deaton (2018), in his study on extreme poverty and human rights globally, revealed through World Bank report that, “769 million people lived on less than \$1.90 a day in 2013; they are the world’s very poorest. Of these, 3.2 million live in the United States, and 3.3 million in other high-income countries.” (most in Italy, Japan and Spain) while the host of others are from the developing countries.

In the same vein, Robert Allen(2018), opined that approximated needs-based infinite impoverishment lines for rich countries that are planned to vie more rightly the \$1.90 line for poor countries, and \$4 a day is roughly the midway of his approximates. He stressed that a comparison of relative impoverishment in the United States with relative financial condition in India, or other poor countries, should be utilizing \$4 in the United States and \$1.90 in India. Thus, there are 5.3 million Americans who are relatively poor by global regulations. This is a small number compared with the one for India, for example, but it is more than that in Sierra Leone (3.2 million) or Nepal (2.5 million), about the same as in Senegal (5.3 million) and only one-third less than in Angola (7.4 million). Pakistan (12.7 million) has twice as many poor people as the United States, and Ethiopia about four times as many (Deaton, 2018). In so far as there are humans, and their needs, and wants abound across countries, and the resources to meet this needs vary there will always be poverty variation.

Poverty: An African Problem—Nigeria

There have been worrisome developmental feelings that trickle down the minds of policy analysts, politicians, state actors, students, and the academia. It had led to several hot debates about poverty being peculiar to a particular continent- Africa in this regard. It is common knowledge that Nigeria as a developing economic system had been witnessing poverty before

1960. It is somewhat taken that people exchange what they manufactured for what they needed by trade by barter. Invariably, you can only get what you want when you exchange or offer what you have made. This indicates no expansion in income derivable. But, multiplication of potential wants. The information in Nigeria reveals that the figures of the poor has proceeded to ascend in geometrical ways. An example is, the figures of those impoverished augmented from 27% in 1980 to 46% in 1985, it decreased slightly to 42% in 1992 and inflated slimy again to 67% and 70% in 1996 and 2000 severally before falling significantly to 54.4% in 2004 and above 65% in 2013 (Ogunleye, 2006; Global Economic Prospect (2015a). Poverty is a prevalent pandemic in most African countries.

This explains varied levels of human wants in social groups. Poverty is a knotty question because there are lots of human needs in social groups, which might either be in-adequately met or unmet; completely owing to magnitude of reasons: Financing public infrastructure, enhanced agriculture production, buoyant works, etc., which were the fundamental thrust of development. Infrastructure investment across the region, for example, in sea, land or air ports, electricity capacity, and transportation, assisted to sustain development (Patrick, 1987; Balogun 1999) across geographical boundaries is very much relative.

In other words, the level of impoverishment experienced is different from country to country. However, some people hold the belief that poverty is reported as 'really' associated with the Dark Continent (Adichie 2009) of which Nigeria is one. Kazeem (2018), 'opined the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) to end extreme poverty by 2030 is unlikely to be met in large part of Nigeria. Furthermore, he noted that a new written report by The World Poverty Clock revealed that Nigeria has taken over India as the country with the most extreme poor people in the world.

The struggle to lift more citizens out of extreme poverty is an indictment on successive Nigerian governments which have mismanaged the country's vast oil riches through incompetence and corruption (Kazeem, 2018). Recent studies reveal that over 91 million Nigerians are now living in extreme poverty.(Vanguard, 16 Feb, 2019). Corruption has been the hill top for poverty exposure in Nigeria which has for a long time been a theme of discussion by many experts (Aluko, 2002; Dike, 2005; Hope Sr, 2017; Ogbeyidi, 2012; Ogundiya, 2009; Okoosi-Simbine, 2011; Osoba, 1996; Salisu, 2000; Tignor, 1993). Funds meant for improvement are carried off and misappropriated by dishonest regime officials. Ewhrudjakpor (2008) accounts that Nigeria is socioeconomically reversed even with her plentiful oil wealth and 70 percent of her people is still under the curse of impoverishment.

How Poverty Affects Electoral Process

Nigeria has been a democratic government for 20 years since the inception of the fourth republic in 1999. Election is a part of the system and majority of those who vote fall into the category of the 110 million that live under extreme poverty in Nigeria. In this type of situation, it is not expected that the best of democracy can be achieved, as the masses that are meant to come out and vote are affected by social, basic educational, psychological poverty to make the right decisions. Schechter (2002) quoting Eldar Shafir, opined that “When you’re poor you’re surrounded by bad decisions of people around you,” he says.

You’re so concerned about the present that you can’t begin thinking about the future, and that’s the big irony: People with the greatest need to think about the future don’t have the leisure or emotional capacity to do so. The very essence of poverty complicates decisions and makes immediate needs so urgent that you start making wrong choices. These mistakes aren’t any different from anyone else’s, but they occur more frequently due to the element of stress, and their implications are much greater.

In Nigeria, a country where the poor work so hard before they can get little to eat, and where the middle class have to hustle hard to keep barely afloat. They contend with no water, no electricity on a daily basis. Nigeria, a country where parents struggle to send their children to school, and provide basic amenities that government fail to provide, yet after school the learner gets a job that’s below the money you had to pay for just a session’s school fees, making decision about who to vote into power and the right person too, as very difficult, because there is already frustration.

We can look at how poverty might affect the decisions of the masses during election from two perspectives but have the same conclusion. These are those that feel they have nothing to lose—*the wretched of the earth*. Those that are really struggling to make ends meet—*the poor but reserved*. Those that feel they have **nothing to lose**: these are people whose case are hopeless. They are so poor, not just financially, but also mentally and psychologically. These set of people believe that whether they sell their votes or not, these set of politicians cannot bring them out of their poverty, so they would just sell their votes to every party or candidate that comes their way, hence thumbprint (vote) for the highest bidder. They are not thinking beyond their present predicament or beyond their stomach. All they want is an immediate satisfaction because obviously, they have been failed by the government.

Those that are really struggling to **make ends meet**: The main concern of these set of people is to make ends meet. This is due to the fact that they also have been failed by the government. It doesn't matter who is in government, they would rather not vote and everything that is happening in the nation is almost not their concern as long as they have food on their table and little money to spend. They are not really politically apathetic but a semi participant. They give more credence to their daily existence.

In the Psychological sense, electorates are poor because politicians are playing on their intelligence. They do not know the mind of the politician who is just trying to get votes for himself at the expense of the electorates. It could be through ethnic or other means. For instance, the 2019 presidential election both candidates are from the same religion and tribe, therefore playing intellectual and psychological politics on Nigerians. This creates division between other tribes on who to support. A similar occurrence in Lagos 2019 gubernatorial election, psychological poverty came to play when political parties begin to ignite ethnic and religious politics to get people's sympathy and amass votes.

From our discourse so far, there is no doubt that the economic (material) and social welfare of the individual and the society is the epicentre of democracy. Aside the socio-economic status of an individual that will define their level of participation, they also weigh the decision for democratic participations on a cost- benefit scale (Ikelegbe 1995, Down 1957, Alapiki 2004).

Meanwhile it is worthy of note that the material condition of an individual's life is the constant determining variable for democratic (political) participation, every other variable or determining factor revolves around it. It is obvious that the substructure determines the superstructure and the dominant culture which includes political is determined by the dominant class in the economy. Nigeria in the hands of those at the helm of affairs have failed in keeping up with its statutory obligation of bettering the life of the citizen. The poor now resort to observing Maslow's psychology of the "Hierarchy of Need", devoting their time to their unmet needs than the "luxury of democratic participation" that would not put food on their table nor give them shelter. The deliberate mechanization and maintenance of poverty now narrows the political space to the selfish advantage of the ruling class.

Money, is an important material condition of life and the cultural and material resource required for effective democratic participation. For instance, money gives an individual the opportunity to have quality education which in-turn sharpens his consciousness and helps in the processing and

interpreting of political information for informed political choices. With no education for the poor or an appalling and dysfunctional educational system, this will produce uncritical minds, majority of Nigerians are left in a state of “false consciousness” of their existence. They lack the capacity to “understand and work with complex, abstract and intangible subject like politics” (Wolfinger and Rosenstone 1980).

It is also imperative to note that psychological and educational poverty work hand in hand. The case can be seen when the APC led government came in 2015 shouting the slogan of change. Subconsciously, everyone wanted change from a government, but nobody really asked the kind of change that the APC were chanting and many followed with the slogan. And it can be seen that there was no imperative changes in the economic, political and social lives of Nigerians to the positive side. A lot of things went wrong, and there were several unexecuted policies, Nigeria’s poverty level rouse to a new height, more jobs losses and more failed banks surfaced. Terrorism and ethno-religious killing became prominent in the Northern parts of Nigeria, drug abuse became rampant across the country especially among the youths. Things became generally worse.

The government declared that they were mainly to fight corruption, but it seems that even corrupt leaders were encouraged to join their wagon and were even put at the helm of affairs. The question of will these changes bring about good lives? Will it bring about better education for our children? Will it increase our minimum wage to a better one a better means of livelihood can be achieved? Dollars went high, then recession hit the nation and the damages was too great.

It is a way of life of Nigerians to go with whatever they feel will bring them succour or keep them at advantage, which is psychology of the mind and not to really ask questions, which is getting the proper education on why they should vote for a particular party, and this came to play also in the 2019 election, when major political parties tried to bring in ethnicity as a bait to gather votes, and Nigerians, mainly the Yorubas and the Igbos embraced it, forgetting that this could lead to a full blown war.

The incumbent government, in their campaign brought in another slogan after the “Change” slogan, which is “Next Level” and yet no one is asking again what the next level means. The after effect of a nation that has electorates that are not open to been educated and allows them to be ruled by emotions is always grievous, because in all of these, the electorates are the ones who will suffer the consequences.

Conclusion and Recommendations

It is clear that the case of poverty in Nigeria has been for a long time and tied to the nature and character of the government, political system and its activities of growing impunity among the political and ruling class. It has affected all aspect of the country's political, economic and social spheres of life. For this, it is almost impossible for a transparent and free electoral process to take place in a poverty-stricken nation.

Poverty creates a sense of disorientation, unpatriotic and unconcerned spirit, and passivity that makes the legitimacy of our democratic rule questionable. The state and its elite ruling class have rendered ineffective the development of the class consciousness of the poor through 'religious' and the ethnicity. The poor need to understand that relegating them to the background is a disadvantage for them. The greatest happiness of the greatest number of the poor can be achieve if they utilize their number to cause an over turn because they are more than the elite class, they have the numerical strength to 'snatch back' their destinies. It lies in their hands to break the cycle of poverty and perpetual underdevelopment.

Finally, destiny of the poor lies squarely in their hands and not the state. Governance and election needs to be people centred so as to liberate the masses from poverty. Liberation lies in the rising above stomach politics, ethnic- mosaic and primordial sentiments, prebendalism to asking decisive question about the real cause of their poverty. Attaining sophistication consciousness is vital. With it, the people can build up a bottom-top organizational structure (perhaps a worker's party) with great organizational strength, "vote with their feet" (Fukuyama, 2012:4) for a people- driven and inclusive political and economic reforms, empower the excluded and open the political and economic space. The state can criminalise corruption and money politics and making them capital offences as the case in China, Japan, Malaysia and India among other countries. Option A4 can be effected for all elections and under the peoples' security. When this is achieved, the electoral system in Nigeria will be developed and in the words of Gilbert and Barigbon (2015) "the man on the street will matter".

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Conflict Management Strategies and the Role of Third Party in Managing Conflict in Complex Organizations

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Abstract

Conflict Management has been an area of interest in complex organizations for over the past decades. This is so because organizations have become more polarized with diversity of interest from the individual and group level which often leads to conflict. Since conflict is inescapable, it becomes imperative for it to be properly managed. Conflict management implies integration of all factors which can contribute to the prevention and resolution of conflict which involves the processes of reducing the negative and destructive capacity of conflict through a number of measures by working parties involved in that conflict. The study analyse the conflict management strategies such as integration, obliging, avoiding, dominating, compromise, negotiation and the role of third party in managing conflict in complex Organizations. The conflict management strategies are model aimed at assisting conflicting parties to reach agreement and determine the condition for settlement. In spite of the seeming criticism of Neo Marxist Conflict Theory, it was adopted because of it ability to explain the conflict situation in complex organizations. As a descriptive type of study, the study utilizes secondary sources of data from textbooks, Seminar Papers, and Journals. From the literature reviewed, the study discovered that all the conflict management strategies and the third party role are effective in managing conflict in different ways in organizations. However, the study recommends that since conflict is an integral part of work organization, the government and stakeholders should encourage the utilization of conflict management strategies and third party role in dealing with conflict situations.

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Introduction

Industrial conflict and management has been an area of interest to academics and policy makers' specifically social scientist. It is obvious that industrial conflict has affected many organizations despite the fact that some scholars like Edward, Hammed and Ayantuji, (2002) contended that conflict in organizations is usually perceived as something destructive, abnormal and dysfunctional; yet it could be an inventor of positive social change if constructively handled. It is usually common to say that conflict can be used constructively to explore different resolution to organizational problems; thereby deconstructing its destructive nature.

Conflict may have either productive or destructive outcomes for the parties and for their larger context. Productive conflict may clarify goals, mobilize energies, illuminate alternatives, promote rigorous analysis, and encourage creative solutions to complex problems (Coser, 1956; Deutsch, 1973). On the other hand, extremes of too much or too little conflict may both result in destructive outcomes; escalating cycles of distorted communications, negative stereotypes, and coercive influence attempts can produce violence harmful to both parties.

Complex organization of any kind is established for the purpose of realizing or achieving certain goal which are resident with both human and material resources that together make the organization function properly. Over the years Industrial Organizations in Nigeria have faced series of conflict which affected the purpose for which they were established basically as result of incompatible goals within the industrial relations. For instance the Academic Staff of Nigerian Universities have gone to strike for over three months in the last quarter of 2017 as a result of retirement age, funding of State Universities and Earned Academic Allowance to mention these three. Similarly, the health workers in Nigeria have gone to strike which led to the closure of government Hospitals. This has far reaching implication on the development of the country.

However, conflict management reduces the intensity of conflict if managed properly. Thus this study provides a clear understanding of conflict management strategies and the third party role in conflict management.

Conceptual Analysis

Industrial Conflict is an interactive state in which the behaviours or goals of one actor are to some degree incompatible with the behaviours or goals of other actor or actors. Industrial conflict refers to any form of dissatisfaction that can manifest in several ways such as absenteeism, strike, low labour turn over to mention these three. It affects the immediate parties

involved which normally penetrate to the entire system specifically when it occurs at interpersonal level. Kornhauser and Durbin (1985) defined Industrial conflict as the total range of behaviour and attitudes that express opposition and divergent orientation between owners and managers on one hand and the working people and their unions on the other hand. Similarly Ehigie (1998) sees Industrial conflict as the state of tension when one party perceives that its expectations are being destabilized by another in the work relation.

Conflict involves a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has or is about to negatively affect something the first party cares about. Fisher, Ury, & Brett. (2004) defined conflict as a relationship between two or more parties (individuals or groups) who have or think they have incompatible goals. It therefore implies that conflict is a continuous interaction that span through lifetime of man and not just a one-off relationship. Oloyede (1999) sees conflict as a condition of disharmony or hostility within an interaction process which is usually the direct results of clash of interest by parties involved.

From the above view points, this study sees Industrial conflict as the employee/employer displeasure and disenchantment of organizational services which often threatens their terms of service and goals of the organization; hence, this situation spurs the existence of dispute because each party tends to work to pressure the other as against the expected work relationship and benefits. Industrial Conflict does not mean conflict between the owners of Industries and the workers rather conflict occurs when the organizational interest and goals are affected (Idris, 2016).

Thus, Ubeku (1975) observed that conflict in Organization is a consequence of enduring power struggle between worker and their employers over the control of various aspect of work, inequality in the distribute of proceeds of industry, job security of the employee and poor management control. Fajana (2002) contended that Industrial Conflict refers to the powerlessness of the employers and employees to arrive at a common agreement on any issue connected with employment relationships. In addition, Ogunbameru and Oribabor (2000) argued that Industrial Conflict takes place whenever there is conflict of interest and objectives in the labour- management relations.

Alebiosun and Akintayo (2007) noted that Industrial conflict emerges as a result of employers not taking into consideration the needs or request of their employees. Idris (2016) argued that Industrial Conflict is a long term contradiction of interest between owners of Industries and workers connected with specific issues that generate hostility and result to direct

confrontation; it is an action where employees show their grievance by refusing to work or work slowly. This entails that Industrial conflict is a regular phenomenon that is independent in any work or complex Organization; it is not only inevitable rather it is what keeps Industrial society going/moving.

Perspective to Understanding Industrial Conflict

Traditional Model

This model is also known as the Classical Organizational Model to the understanding of conflict in the organization. The birth of this model was in the 1930s and 1940s which was consistent about group behaviours. This model viewed organizational conflict as bad, violent, destructive, irrational and undesirable; hence, must be avoided. It also sees conflict as a dysfunctional outcome resulting from poor communication, lack of sincerity and trust between people, and failure of managers to be receptive to the needs and aspirations of their workers. The Traditionalist argued that conflict is a dysfunctional result that is result from low communication, lack of honesty and trust between people and inability to detect and work on the early signs or indicators of conflict in organization (Aja, 2007: 18). Thus, employers should redirect their attention to the causes of conflict and correct those malfunctions to improve organizational performance.

The Managed Conflict Model

The managed conflict model believes in the inevitability of Industrial Conflict. The model posit that as a phenomenon that is in every organization, it produces stress, reduce trust, respect and group cohesion; thereby affect productivity. It is in this light that the managed conflict model focussed on managing the whole context in which conflict occurs and also move on productive conflict resolution. This model believes that conflict can be eliminated by encouraging limited level of conflict; and to find constructive methods for resolving conflict productively so their destructive influence can be minimized.

Sources of Conflict in Organizations

Industrial conflict could arise from interpersonal, intra personal and intra organizational level. Thus this paper adopted Pondy's (1967) five stages of conflict

Latent Conflict: Refers to the source of a conflict, such as role conflict or competition over scarce resources. The assumption is that due to certain antecedent conditions conflict 'should' occur. The situations outlined above are examples of latent conflict.

Perceived Conflict: This is the type of conflict that neither party is upset about it. Perceived conflict may accompany latent conflict or be present when there is no latent conflict.

Felt Conflict: Conflict which grieves the parties involved, but which neither would normally do anything about. Stress and tension are usual outcomes of felt conflict.

Manifest Conflict: Involves openly aggressive behaviours ranging from mild passive resistance through sabotage to actual physical conflict. It is that behaviour which, in the mind of the actor, frustrates the goals of at least some of the other participants.

Conflict Aftermath: This refers to the response to, and outcome of, conflict which may involve change. There may be no 'active' response but there will be an outcome, even if it is sustained chronic conflict (continuous, high-level conflict). If a conflict is actually resolved this can lead to greater satisfaction among the participants. If a conflict is not resolved then what appears to be a satisfactory resolution may only be a reversion to a prior level of conflict.

However, managing organizational conflict is a tool for promoting peaceful coexistence between employees, employers and or unions. Conflict management according to Adikpo (2006) is designing effective macro-level strategies to minimize the dysfunctions of conflict and enhancing the constructive function to improve effectiveness in organization. In the same perspective Obi, (2005) states that conflict management is the process of reducing the negative and distractive capacity of conflict through number of measures and by working with and through the parties involved in that conflict. Best (2005) asserts that conflict management covers the entire areas of handling conflict positively at different stages including conflict limitation, containment and litigation.

In the views of Otite in Obi (2007) Conflict Management is more of a long term arrangement involving institutionalized provisions and regulative procedures for dealing with conflicts whenever they occur. Conflict management is a process of planning to avoid conflict where possible, and organising to resolve where it does happen as quickly as possible. Despite the endemic nature of conflict and its inevitability in organizational life, its management is important because it reduces and terminates all forms of industrial conflicts through the use of collective bargaining, negotiations and mediation. Conflict Management is the process of limiting the negative aspect of conflict while increasing the positive aspects of conflict. The aim of Conflict Management is to enhance learning and group outcomes; including effectiveness or performance in organizational setting (Rahim,

2003. Pp. 208). Luthans, Rubach and Marsnik (1995) succinctly agree with Rahim (2002) but argued that a proper managed conflict increases organizational learning by increasing the number of questions asked and encourage people to challenge the status quo.

Best (2006) contended that Conflict Management is the process of reducing the negative and destructive capacity of conflict through a number of measures and by working with and through the parties involved in that conflict; it covers an area of handling conflict positively at different stages including conflict limitation, containment and litigation. From the above view point, this study perceive Conflict Management as the practice of being able to identify and handle conflict sensibly, fairly and effectively through a means of negotiation and mediation.

Methods of Settling Dispute

There are various styles of behaviour by which organizational conflict may be handled. Blake and Mouton (1964) first presented a conceptual scheme for classifying the modes (styles) for handling interpersonal conflicts into five types: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. They described the five modes of handling conflict on the basis of the attitudes of the manager: concern for production and for people. Their scheme was reinterpreted by Thomas (1976). He considered the intentions of a party (cooperativeness, i.e., attempting to satisfy the other party's concerns; and assertiveness, i.e., attempting to satisfy one's own concerns) in classifying the modes of handling conflict into five types.

Using a conceptualization similar to the above theorists, the styles of handling conflict were differentiated on two basic dimensions, concern for self and for others (Rahim & Bonoma, 1979; Rahim, 1992). The first dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person attempts to satisfy his own concern. For example, when the one of the conflicting parties feels that his desires are more important than the other party and place the other party's goal below his.

The second dimension explains the degree (high or low) to which a person wants to satisfy the concern of others. It should be pointed out that these dimensions portray the motivational orientations of a given individual during conflict where one party is obliged to consider the agitations of the other party so as to resolve the conflict.

Vliert and Kabanoff (1990) yielded support for these dimensions by combining the two dimensions to results in five specific styles of handling interpersonal conflict (Rahim & Bonoma, 1979, p. 1327). These styles are described as follows:

Integrating: Refers high concern for self and others which involve collaboration between the parties; that is, openness, exchange of information, and assessing of their differences to reach a solution acceptable to both parties. “The first rule...for obtaining integration is to put your cards on the table, face the real issue, uncover the conflict, bring the whole thing into the open” (Follett, 1940, p. 38). Prein (1976) suggested that this style has two distinctive elements: confrontation and problem solving. Confrontation involves open and direct communication which should make way for problem solving. As a result, it may lead to creative solutions to problems. This style is usually adopted in complex organizations and it is aligned with the Decree No. 7, 1976 of the Industrial Dispute Act which gives room for collective bargaining for conflicting parties to sit and discuss their grievance.

Obliging: This refers to low concern for self and high concern for others. The style is associated with attempting to play down the differences and emphasizing commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party. There is an element of self sacrifice in this style. It may take the form of selfless generosity, charity, or obedience to another person’s order. An obliging person neglects his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party. Such an individual is like a “conflict absorber,” that is; a person whose reaction to a perceived unfriendly act on the part of another has low aggression or even positive kindness (Boulding, 1962, p. 171). Though this style is often neglected because report from the 2017 strike between the Asuu and the Federal Government of Nigeria proved that conflicting parties often doesn’t yield support for the goals and orientations of the other rather in a defence of interest.

Dominating: High concern for self and low concern for others has been identified with win-lose orientation or with forcing behaviour to win one’s position. A dominating or competing person goes all out to win his or her objective and, as a result, often ignores the needs and expectations of the other party. Dominating may mean standing up for one’s rights and/or defending a position which the party believes to be correct. Sometimes a dominating person wants to win at any cost. A dominating supervisor is likely to use his position power to impose his will on the subordinates and command their obedience. For instance, the case of the Nasarawa State Government and the State workers where the government embarked on a no work no pay. Similarly, Solaja, (2015) in a study of three manufacturing companies in Nigeria contended that dominating is commonly used by managers in managing conflict in organizations.

Avoiding: Low concern for self and others has been associated with withdrawal, buck-passing, sidestepping, or “see no evil, hear no evil, speak no evil” situations. It may take the form of postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. An avoiding person fails to satisfy his or her own concern as well as the concern of the other party. This style is often characterized as an unconcerned attitude toward the issues or parties involved in conflict. Such a person may refuse to acknowledge in public that there is a conflict which should be dealt with.

Compromising: Intermediate in concern for self and others it involves give-and-take or sharing whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision. It may mean splitting the difference, exchanging concession, or seeking a quick middle-ground position. A compromising party gives up more than a dominating but less than an obliging party. Likewise, such a party addresses an issue more directly than an avoiding party, but does not explore it in as much depth as an integrating party. Additional insights may be gained by reclassifying the five styles of handling interpersonal conflict according to the terminologies of the game theory. Integrating style can be reclassified to positive-sum (win-win) style, compromising to mixed (no-win/no-lose) style, and obliging, dominating, and avoiding to zero-sum or negative-sum (lose-win, win-lose, and lose-lose, respectively) style.

Negotiation: Negotiation is another method in settling dispute in complex organizations in Nigeria where parties sit and work together on their own terms to resolve their problems through constructive dialogue. It helps the conflicting parties to build an atmosphere of confidence, tolerance and respect with the aim of resolving their conflicts. Negotiation takes place at various levels before conflict escalation or during conflict situation; though it helps with a condition of friendly communication. At this level, the negotiators inquire on the causes of conflict and negotiate on the best way to end the conflict or reduce its intensity in complex organizations. It usually occurs when two or more parties decide how to allocate scarce resources thereby exchanging goods or services and attempt to agree on the exchange rate for them (Robbins, 2013). It is a deliberate process, conducted by representatives of groups, designed to reconcile differences and to reach agreements by consensus. The outcome is often dependent on the power relationship between the groups and often involves compromise - one group may win one of their demands and give in on another.

Negotiation is designed in a situation where conflicting parties build mutual confidence in their ability and capacity to come together and resolve the incompatible issues in a favourable environment in case there would be

another conflict. This is based on the fact that conflict is a continuous phenomenon in complex organizations. This method has been the conventional method since 1976 industrial Dispute Act no. 23 where parties are expected to sit and collaborate on their problems and resolve. This style is also aligned with compromise as argued by Rahim & Bonaman, (1975).

Third Party role in Complex Organizations

Third Party is a conflict prevention mechanism designed to handle grievance effectively at first contact to minimise the possibility of it developing to any form (strike). It is a form of alternative conflict management aimed at assisting conflicting parties to reach agreement and determine the condition for settlement. It is the voluntary, informal and non-binding process undertaken by an external party that fosters the settlement of differences or demands between directly invested parties (Miller, 2002:23). Miall et al (1992:22) sees Third Party as a voluntary process in which the parties retain control over the outcome (pure mediation), although it may include positive and negative inducements.

The Third Party is a neutral person who command mutual respect and recognition from both parties and often act only in an advisory capacity - and have no decision-making powers; and cannot impose a settlement on the conflicting parties rather helps the parties with an environment that is controlled by communication and enhances the confidence in building capacities for the parties to dialogue without losing interest with the need to arrive at a ground to overcoming their discontentment, fears and satisfy their real needs or goals.

Kozan, Ergin & Varoglu (2007) in their study stressed out the following role played by the third party in conflict management:

i. *Advising or Facilitation:* At this point, the third party plays the role of advising the disputants on the intensity and implications of their conflict and then tries to facilitate their negotiation process in order to limit influence so that both parties could reach a conclusion without confrontations. At this point, the third party is mindful of his limitations not to overrule rather him/she inspired them to understand the need for resolution. From this view point, it shows that this process of advising by the third party is usually at the beginning of the conflict situation. A prototypical example of this is the role the Traditional Rulers played in Nasarawa State before the Academic Staff of the Nasarawa State University embarked on strike on the 7th, February that lasted for over three months.

ii Mediation: The third party here mediates and retains the process of control but allow the disputing parties to select their resolution; though the mediator still retains relative control over the process. Thus, the mediator uses appropriate motivational techniques of peace building by being objective, balanced, supportive, non judgemental and astute in questioning; and try to drive the parties towards win-win as opposed to win-lose outcomes (Miller, 2003:24).

iii. Arbitration: This step or role is higher than mediation where the third party renders binding decisions after evidence provided by the parties. Who so ever feels that the decision is not at his favour would definitely take, though there is a desire by the third party to ensure that the outcome is fair enough because of the virtue of status they represents in the society.

From this view points the third party assist where the parties in conflict are both committed to resolving, but he/she manages the negotiation process and does not impose a solution on the parties. In other words, third party retains the characteristic of negotiation except only the presence of neutrality. Basically, the third party are usually Traditional Rulers, Religious Leaders, Elder Statesmen and top Government officials to mention these.

Theoretical Framework

Neo-Marxist Conflict Theory

This theory was championed by Dahrendorf in (1959). The theory was rooted from Marxian and Weberian perspective. The theory came in reaction to Marx on the notion that society is polarised based on two class model and conflict is between the classes; the bourgeoisies and the proletariats based material conditions. Dahrendorf saw conflict as resulting from interest based on Relations of Authority. He did not reject Marx believe that conflict is inherent where there are classes of the Haves and the Have not; rather what constitute conflict is the relations of authority and production. The theorist argued that conflict can never arrive without consensus within the social structure.

The structural origin of conflict is sought in the arrangement of social roles endowed with expectations of domination and subjection (Darhrendorf, 1959: 165). Authority is a legitimate power attached to the occupation of a particular social role within an organization. Complex organizations have positions of domination and subjections; some are able to legitimately issue command while others are not. This to Darhrendorf is the basis for conflict in the society not economic or material conditions. However, within these

associations interest exist between groups and those in dominant position seek to uphold their interest to maintain the status quo; whether or not the interest benefits the subordinate or subjected groups. Those in subordinate positions on the other hand have an interest of changing it.

Further more, Darhrendorf contended that these conflicts of interest is present in a much wider range of social relationships than the economic conflict of interest between those who own the means of production and those who do not own the means of production. However, in spite of the many criticism of Darhrendorf theory of social conflict, it explains the phenomenon of conflict from the context of differentiation of authority.

The applicability of this theory to the study is that conflict does not just occur as a result of economic issues or domination based on material result, but also as a result of power and condition of work based on relations of authority accrued in the work place.

Effects of Industrial Conflict in Complex Organizations

Conflict is not only seen as reconstructive but its destructive nature affects the development of any organization in the world. The effects of Industrial Conflict in complex organizations in Nigeria could be understood based on the loss of revenue generation. Despite strike is one of the major issues in industrial conflict, it is an approved exercise which is agreed by the employer and employees and government; strike is considered the rule of the game. Hence, strike is a necessary evil for greater good which does more harm than it heals; it is more destructive to economic and social life of the people and the society at large (Idris, 2016).

Conclusions and Recommendations

Literature has revealed that Industrial Conflict is a natural phenomenon if any organization is to exist. These positions made it necessary for a proper and well manage conflict through measure of avoidance, obliging, compromise, integration, Negotiation and third party's role. The theoretical framework (Conflict theory) explains the scenario of conflict in complex organizations. Thus the study concludes that conflict is what keeps organizations moving and that if not managed well, its evil will destroy the setting or structure of the work place. Conflict management strategies show how greatly conflict could be managed. Hence, the third party could seem to be a conflict management strategy commonly used in complex organizations.

However, this study recommends that both management and representatives of workers should create a better environment for

understanding conflict situations and ensure that conflicts are dealt with before escalating to strike or any form of protestation. Managers should ensure repeated training. It is also recommended that government should ensure a well regulatory body to checkmate the affairs of heads or management of complex organizations in Nigeria. The study has implications for further studies and for training of managers for conflict intervention. It is for scholars to begin the study of measuring conflict so as to advice stakeholders on its deconstructive nature in the organizational settings.

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Additional Discoveries on Causes of Teacher Attrition

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to explore additional causes of teacher attrition different from the conventional causes as identified by many literatures around the world. A qualitative method was used. Six serving teachers in two urban secondary schools in Niger state, Nigeria were purposively sampled, an in depth interview and document analysis was used as a means of data collection. The findings discovered; irregular promotion, Language problem among students, and late payment of salary, as the additional causes of teacher attrition. The paper concludes that teacher attrition is affected by the three major factors identified from the study and these factors give the impression that teaching profession is not respected as other professions in the study area hence their welfare was not given due consideration.

Introduction

The rate of teacher attrition has become an issue to both policy makers and educational administrators which attracted series of researches in both developed and developing nations. In United States for example, Rosenow (2005) reported that 9.3% of public teachers in US leave in less than one year of their entry into the profession, while 15% leave within their three years in teaching. About 50% of beginning teachers exit the teaching profession within their first five years of service in America (Greiner & Smith, 2006; Ingersoll, 2001). In addition, Chang (2009) discovered the rate of teacher attrition in US within the first years to be 25% while about 40% leave the profession within five years of their entrance.

In a research conducted by Alan & Pamela (2003), at the Centre for Education and Employment Research of the University of Buckingham

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(CEER) it was discovered that attrition rate was about 14.1% and 7.9% among primary and secondary school teachers, they further commented that the large proportion of about 38.8% were moving to another full-time position at a maintained school, while 5% and 13.5% of teachers are leaving and retiring from the job respectively. The rate of teacher attrition is more pronounced in England than in Wales (Robinson & Smithers, 2001). Norway has less teacher attrition compared to US and UK, with 8.8% leaving their teaching position within a year and 4.6 changing their profession within and outside the country. (Schone, 1999).

The case of teacher attrition is common in many African countries because of low income status. In Lesotho, Urwick et al. (2005), conducted a research in three districts of Thaba-Tseka, Mafeteng & Maseru from 2002-2003, they discovered that Thaba-Tseka being the most remote area, have the lowest rate of teacher attrition with only 0.5%, this was due to less opportunity for the teachers of not having access to available jobs compared to their counterparts in the urban centres who have opportunity of many jobs. In Mafeteng, the attrition rate among teachers was 10.3% while Maseru has the highest with 13.4% within the year of study. The rate of teacher attrition in Zambia has rapidly raised within four years, in 2004 the rate was 5.5%, but increased to 11.9% in 2008 (Zambian Statistical bulletin, 2008). In Nigeria the rate of teacher attrition varies within the Geo-political zones. In Southern part of the country where most of their states are educationally developed the case is minimal with about 10-15% (Ekundayo, 2010; Popoola, 2009) Compared to the Northern part where almost all the states are less educationally developed has about 15-20% rate of teacher attrition (Fati, 2010; Adamu, 2010).

What literature says on Causes of Attrition among Teachers.

Studies from different parts of the world identified Low salary, Poor learning environment, and School leadership style as the major factors causing attrition among teachers (Adelabu, 2005; Afe, 2002; Cassandra, 2006; Hess, 2006; Liza et al., 2008; Usman, 2008).

Low salary

Teachers complained of low salary as a factor which is affecting their decision to remain in teaching (Webb et al., 2004). Between 2002-2004 more than 50% of teachers who left teaching in Florida mentioned low payment as the major reasons for their leaving (Gladis et al., 2007). In Texas, Liza et al., (2008) interviewed teachers who left teaching, within three years of their entrance, all the respondents mentioned low salary as their major reason for opting out of the profession. In Africa, teachers

mostly receive less than three dollars a day (Paul, 2004). Some of these teachers cannot afford their basic needs (Paul & Kwame, 2007; Davidson, 2007). In an attempt to sustain themselves teachers combine teaching with another business (Osei, 2006). As a result of low salary, teachers easily leave teaching to another profession whenever an opportunity comes their way (Osunde & Omoruyi, 2005; Yusuf, 2010).

Poor learning environment

Dilapidated facilities, few or inadequate science laboratories, inadequate textbooks, lack of instructional materials, class size, tight scheduled of duty are among reasons giving by teachers for their intention to leave the job (Loeb, et al., 2005; Ndukwe, 2002; Okpala, 2006). Inadequate resources limit teachers' effectiveness and affect their decision on teaching (Hess, 2006). Schneider (2003) randomly selected teachers in Chicago and Washington, D.C. Teachers were asked to rate their working conditions and how the working conditions is affecting their performance and effectiveness of their job. Among things to be evaluated, included; the degree of overcrowding, the availability and adequacy of facilities such as science laboratories and lunch rooms, other conditions to be rated, includes; indoor air quality, thermal comfort, classroom lighting, and noise levels. A-through-F scale was the rating mark. About 60% of respondents reported that science laboratories were somewhat or very inadequate, or non-existence. Nearly 40% said that their classrooms were the wrong size for the type of education they were trying to deliver, and more than 25% reported having taught in non-classroom spaces such as hallways and even closets. The respondents added that these factors can affect their decision in teaching and is enough to cause attrition among teachers.

In Nigeria, Fati (2010) discovered that apart from low salary, poor learning environment was the next major factor causing attrition among teachers. Most secondary schools in Nigeria learn in un-conducive learning atmosphere, the basic amenities are not there and this has a lot of effect in demoralising the strength of so many teachers (Ahmed 2003).

School leadership style

Leadership style of a school has effect on teacher's decision of either to remain in teaching or not (Liza et al., 2008). Bad leadership style of a school principal can discourage teachers from the profession (Fati, 2010). Lack of teachers' involvement in decision making, lack of administrative support and attention are critical factors resulting to teacher attrition (Boyd, et al., 2009).

There are several studies that indicated lack of support from the school principal as among the factors causing attrition. For instance, in Washington

D.C, Luekens (2004) using the results of teacher follow up survey of 2000-2001, the researcher found out that nearly 40% of teachers who left teaching cited lack of administrative support from their principal as the main reason. Adamu (2010) conducted his study among secondary school teachers in Bauchi State, Nigeria. 120 teachers were purposively selected across 10 secondary schools. The selected teachers were asked to indicate support from their principals among others. 42% of the 120 respondents indicated that the support from their principal is not encouraging, 35% indicated partial support from their principal while 23% stated that the support from their principal is encouraging. The result of the study added that among those that are not encouraged and those that indicated partial support from their principals also indicated their interest of leaving the teaching profession if they should have any available opportunity.

Purpose of the study

Niger state is one of the less educationally developed states in Nigeria, and among states with high attrition rate among secondary school teachers. In 2009 the state lost 10.9% to attrition, while in 2010 the percentage increased to 15.5%, and in 2011 the percentage rose to 21.1% (Niger State Secondary Education Board 2011). The main purpose of this study is to explore additional causes of attrition apart from the ones identified by some literatures, so as to have better and clear picture on causes of attrition in the study area.

METHODOLOGY

This study was carried out using qualitative method. According to Creswell (2007) a qualitative research is a mean for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The purpose of qualitative studies is to describe a phenomenon from the respondents' points of view through interviews and observations. In qualitative study the intention of the researcher is to listen to the voice of respondents or observe them in their natural environments (Field & Morse, 1992). There are several designs in qualitative research ranging from Ethnography, Phenomenology, Case study, and Grounded theory (Merriam, 2009). A case study design was selected for this study so as to have an in depth description of the phenomenon under investigation. Six teachers were selected through purposive sampling. Two teachers each from the early, mid and late career in the teaching profession were considered. The main reason for choosing this group is to have their opinion and get their feelings on the phenomenon under study. Although the opinion of respondents may varies because their years of experience in teaching

profession is not the same and that was the main reason why we decided to choose our respondents across career cadre in the teaching profession. Data was collected through semi-structured in-depth interview with the respondents, focusing on getting additional causes of teacher attrition other than the ones commonly identified by literatures. The interview was conducted with the respondents in their various schools with each session taken between 45minutes to 1 hour. The process was repeated severally till saturation. A tape recorder was used to make sure that no single useful information was left out. In analysing the data, the transcribed interview was read severally by the researchers so as to make meanings out of it and certain codes were assigned which were later collapsed to form categories (Wilhelmina & Rhonda, 2001). The categories were later read and observed with the aim forming themes. This process was repeated severally until the themes emerged from the categories. The emerged themes are presented in the analysis below. For confidential reason the respondents were coded as Respondents 1-6 (**R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, R6**).

RESULTS

After collection of data and analysis, the study identified three local factors leading to teacher attrition. These are; irregular promotion, language problem among students and late payment of salary. These factors are presented in this section. It is important to clarify that all issues regarding recruitment, promotion and salary of secondary school teachers in the study area is controlled by Niger State Secondary Education Board. The board is headed by a chairman who is answerable to the State Ministry of Education.

Irregular promotion

Among the major discovery of this study on factors causing attrition among teachers is the issue of promotion, as almost all the respondents indicated that their promotion has not been regular.

Respondent 2 commented that the issue of regular promotion has been an issue of concern to many teachers because their promotion does not come as at when due unlike other civil servants in the state who got promoted at the end of every three years of their career. She added that since she started teaching in 2006 she was only promoted once and she had to suffer before the promotion was released.

Respondent 1 shared the same view, although he has been teaching for almost 30 years but few years ago he has not been getting his promotion as expected. He expressed that;

I don't know what is wrong with the State Government, few years ago we have not been having problem with promotion after every three years you will be promoted as expected. I am referring to the period of military rule in the 80's, but when the Government of the country returned to Civilian rule, things began to change drastically, particularly the issue of promotion. There was a time I spent 5 years on a level without promotion, although mine was even fair, I know of a colleague who spent over 8 years on a level and he has not been promoted. Please, place yourself in my own shoe, if you can spend more than the expected years without being promoted will you not be discouraged with your work? And if possible start thinking of another job where you will be adequately promoted?

Respondent 6 who joined teaching few years back has not been given any promotion yet. He said;

I thought in teaching profession everything is as smooth as in other professions; I thought at every three years I will be promoted as expected, but this is my fifth year without promotion and even the step that is supposed to be automatically added to me is no longer coming. I was told that I have to make my ways in the Secondary Education Board. I have to know someone there and I need to get ready to offer something, if not, in the next coming years I will not be promoted. This is a big problem for me because I don't know anybody in the board.

Respondent 5 pointed out that, sometimes he ignored the issue of promotion knowing that it will be difficult to have it at the right time, so he felt that he cannot put himself in unnecessary stress of going to Secondary Education Board. He further described the process of promotion as hectic and tedious because the whole process is faulty and corrupt.

Respondents 4 and 3 shared the same view, they all stated irregular promotion as a problem in teaching career. Although **Respondent 3** spent more years in teaching than **Respondents 4** so he suffered more on promotion. He emphasized that he has been to the Secondary Education Board but was told that they are still processing his case and after sometimes he was unable to get any positive response from the Board. **Respondent 3** also complained several times but has no option than to keep mute because many teachers are having the same problem with him and nothing has been done.

Language problem among students

All the respondents complained on the use of official language (English) in teaching their students, saying that, most of their students are having difficulties in receiving adequate instruction with the use of English.

Respondent 4 explained that, majority of the students he is teaching cannot write in English, which is worrisome as it affects level of their comprehension and achievement. He also pointed that, at times he has to use the local language in teaching the students, but the major problem is that, he can only speak one local language, while the students in the class came from different ethnic background.

Respondent 5 commented on two of his friends who left teaching because of language problem among students. He said;

John (an Igbo man) from the southern part of Nigeria came to this school for youth service and was retained to teach Economics. After some months he had to leave because he finds teaching difficult based on the fact that, he cannot combine teaching with the use of local language as he cannot speak any of the local languages in the state. The same scenario also with Adewale who also left based on language.

Respondent 1 viewed language problem among students as a big problem which is making his teaching career so boring. He always finds it difficult to cope with the students because of the language barrier, he felt that teaching combining two languages (Local and English language) is not always the best because the students are not writing their final examinations in the local language but with English language. So if they cannot effectively understand and write English then there is a problem at the end of their studies, as they may likely fail their final examination. He concluded that, language issue is not making teaching interesting, and is among reasons why some leave teaching.

Respondent 2 shared her experience stating that;

Many of my students are having problem in English, and being the subject I teach, I find it difficult to cope with so many topics, in fact I have to repeat some topics so many times, that is why I hardly cover my syllabus before the end of the term.

Respondents 6 and **3** mentioned language problem among students as a problem in their teaching career. They all complained that their students

are not good in English. Although, one of the respondents mentioned that, there are few classes who can understand, but majority cannot.

Late payment of salary

All respondents in the study area complained of late payment of salary, stating that government does not pay their salary at the right time to teachers when compared to other civil servants in the state. In most cases teachers have to wait till middle of the month or even end of the other month before they receive their salary.

Respondent 1 lamented that teachers have been suffering in the state in terms of constant delayed in salary payment which affects their plans, and lowered their morale in the profession. He added that even as at the time of our interview (middle of the month) the salary of the last month was not paid to them.

Respondent 3 shared the same view with Respondent 1 on the issue of late payment of salary as a factor. He commented that, at the end of every month, teachers began to entertain fear on when to receive their salary due to constant delay which run to preceding months. The delay in salary is pathetic as they lack strong union to fight their cause. He concluded that all the Union officials are virtually bought over by the government.

Respondent 5 has similar opinion as he stated that;

Late payment of salary is a serious issue, at times my principal cannot talk to me and many of my colleagues regarding our work particularly at the end of the month, when he knows the story that many of us are at the danger zone, you know this adage, *NO money NO friend*, that is the situation of teachers at this period. I believe if you will ask all teachers in the state none of them will escape telling you about this problem.

Respondent 4 affirmed that, the state government is neglecting teachers in terms of salary payment, He added that, there was a time they spent over a month without salary and many of them have family that depends on them for feeding, clothing, medical bill and school fees.

Respondent 2 shared her views on late payment of salary, saying that; As a teacher your sources of income is limited unlike politicians and other civil servants who have allowances and other benefits, with some having illegal ways of accessing government funds to enable them sustain their life

even with or without salary. So you cannot compare them with teachers and I think this could be among the reasons why teachers may want to leave teaching profession to another profession.

Respondent 6 highlighted that for the past three years the payment of their salary has not been regular. They at times receive their salary at the beginning of the other month, while in some situations the salary of a month will be paid at the middle of the following month. He said;

You know we teachers are not like office workers who have diverse ways of getting money, we only rely on salary and no any other means. So if your salary is not paid in time you will run into trouble, you have to start looking for debt to enable you afford the necessary things.

Having presented the views of the respondents regarding the factors causing attrition, a brief discussion of the findings is presented below. The discussion was based on the three factors as identified from the study.

DISCUSSION

The civil service rules on promotion of staff in the state is every three years of satisfactory performance on a rank. But it is surprising that this practiced is no longer adhered to in the teaching profession. Government do not give attention to proper promotion of teachers as indicated by all the respondents. Most of the respondents complained that they have been in one level for over 5 years while some of their colleagues spent 6 and above years without being promoted. According to the respondents the irregular promotion has caused many teachers to leave the profession to other jobs.

Language problem was among factors discovered by this study. Teachers complained of difficulties faced in their teaching because of language problem among their students. Nigeria is a country with different languages. There are more than 250 different languages (Bawa & Salahu, 2012). In Niger state alone, the area where this study was conducted, there are over 20 different languages, although Bawa & Salahu (2012) identified the existence of about 25 different languages in the state. It has been observed that, the problem of language among secondary school students in the study area is emanating from the nature of primary schools in the states, which serve as feeders to secondary schools. Most of the primary school teachers in the state use local language in teaching their pupils, while the law says English should be the language of instruction. So at the end of the

pupils' graduation and advancing to secondary schools English will now become a new thing to them because of the nature of how they were taught at the lower level.

It has been observed from the responses of all the respondents that their salary is not always paid at the right time. This issue of late payment is seriously embarrassing because from different literatures on studies conducted in different parts of the world, there has not been any literature that addresses late payment of salary in developed or even some developing societies. This case is only peculiar to under-developed societies which are commonly found in Africa, particularly Nigeria. Paul & Kwame (2007) reported late payment of salary among the low income developing countries in Africa and part of Asia, but concluded that, the case is more common within the sampled African countries. Most of the respondents in this study indicated their interest of leaving teaching job whenever they have the opportunity, because of the late payment of salary. They added that, while other categories of civil servants received their salary at the right time, teachers are the ones suffering from this mess. This issue of late payment of salary could not be far from the corrupt nature of politicians from the state, who are diverting government fund which is meant for the benefits of the masses to their personal uses.

CONCLUSION

This paper examined causes of attrition among teachers in secondary schools. The paper identified that teacher's attrition is affected by three factors of irregular promotion, language problem and late payment of salaries. The study also gives an impression that teaching profession is not as respected as other professions in the state hence corroborate the respondent's willingness to quit the profession to other jobs whenever the opportunities comes their way.

Recommendations

- Government should give a due consideration on the welfare of teachers.
- Promotion should be regular and frequent after fulfilling the required satisfactory performance.
- Learning facilities should be provided adequately so that students with learning problem particularly on English language can be assisted.

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Impacts of Behaviour Change Communication as Teacher's Method, on Academic Performance of Selected Junior Secondary Schools Students in Bida Metropolis of Niger State, Nigeria

Suleiman Suleiman Chado

Abstract

The study accessed the impacts of Behaviour Change Communication as a Teaching Method, on academic performance of selected secondary schools students in Bida Metropolis of Niger state. The main objective of the study is to analyse, the effect of behaviour change communication during teaching and learning in a class room situation and how it can influenced academic performance of the students. A Quasi-Experimental method research (post test only group) design is employed. With a study population of three thousand (3000) students selected from Umaru Sanda Junior Day Secondary School, Bida, College of Arts and Islamic Junior Day Secondary School, Bida, and Kuchita Junior Day Secondary School, Bida, Darachita Junior Day Secondary School, Bida. The Study sample comprises of three hundred and fourth one (341) respondents (163 males and 178 females) students using Purposive and stratified random sampling Techniques in drawing from three (4) schools. Data were collected through the administrations of a Self developed Questionnaire by the researcher known as Test of Effectiveness of Behavioural Change Communication Teacher's method Questionnaire (TEBCCTMQ), The instrument was validated by experts and reliability coefficient of 0.70 is obtained using Split-half method. Two research Questions and corresponding Hypotheses formulated and tested at a significant level of 0.05. The finding of the study accept hypothesis that there is significance effective on the use of BCC as a teacher's method of teaching ($t_{cal} = 1.291 < t_{crit} = 1.9679$; $df = 329$; $p > 0.05$). It also accepts the hypothesis that there is no any significant improvement in the academic performance of students taught using BCC as a teacher's method of

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teaching ($t_{cal} = 0.148 < t_{crit} 3.01$; $df = 328$; $p < 0.05$). Recommendations were profound that BCC as a teacher's method is to determine the quality and effective use of IM as the best means of adding value and impacting relatively change in behaviour among students in teaching of Behavioral related problems and improving the academic performance of Secondary school Students.

Introduction

Quality learning begets quality testing. Learning is said to take place when there is a relatively or permanent change in behaviour of the learner over a time. Many a times teachers thought students lessons, aimed at impacting knowledge but yet when the students were subjected to standardized achievement test you find out such students could not measure up to the expectations. Same is applicable to teacher made test where students are subjected to periodic evaluations based on the lessons thought. The end products of any learning exercise in an educational setting denote changes in behaviour which is symbolically measured in long run or short run. There is a strong need for us to understand that, for any teaching to be successful, the need for method of impacting change in behaviour cannot be over emphasized. Reasons being that Behaviour change communication is the systematical and sequential order of dissemination of desired behaviour to students in an organized school setting by teachers using the most appropriate and simple medium of communication for easy application and demonstration.

The dwindling nature of student's academic performances this day is alarming and this is a pointer to the fact that, there is something wrong with our medium of teaching i.e the methodology which is not amendable to the understanding of the students. In any learning situation, there is always a need for a suitable method of teaching that can broaden the students understanding of the information being disseminated, such that makes learning simple and user friendly. Looking at some nations especially those educationally, successful ones who had achieved their desired goals and objectives through education will enhance our understanding of the concept of Behaviour Change Communication (BCC).

Before any nation achieved its goals and objectives; there must be an effective educational system with the right requisite strategies that brought about the desirable improvement in the academic performance of its students. Using this as a teaching method will go a long way in bring about behaviour that will improve educational status and the related long term outcomes. According to Measure Evaluation, (2017) it is a strategic and

group oriented form of communication to perceive a desired change in behaviour of the target group. If these are therefore, nature of behaviour change communication school setting is a perfect ground to experiment it, partly because of the specific attributes it depicted that matches those of a present day school setting.

It is of importance to note, that the successes or failure of any educational system is attributed partly to the efforts and hard work of the teachers and other stake holders who worked tirelessly despite the uncommensurable reinforcement by the concerned authorities, will be obliged to contribute to the success of the system through openly adopting any innovations that will lead to the immediate turnaround of the educational system for the common good of all and accept it as the best practices. The development of any nation depends on the education and wealth of its people. Therefore it is incumbent on her to pay much attention on the proper and adequate education of its citizenry. The importance of applying suitable teaching method in teaching at the post primary levels cannot be over emphasized, because a teaching method comprises the principles and method used by teachers to enable students learning. These strategies are determined partly on subject matter to be taught and partly by the nature of the learner.

The important role played by instructional materials in the teaching, learning and academic performance of the students cannot be over emphasized. Using suitable instructional materials in the class by teachers to explain, demonstrate, practicalise and illustrate new knowledge, update skills, values, relevant information and attitude is quite understood by students than just discussion. The teacher is required to use instructional materials in teaching to improve the academic performance of students. Ibitayo and Inonayo, (1988) observed that “even when a teacher has sufficient academic and professional qualification, he can still find various forms of media useful in presenting basic facts and information, concepts, ideas, principles, Procedures about the subject that he teaches in order to improve the academic performance of his student.

Statement of Problem

In education, there has been a growing movement towards infusion of 21st century skills to teaching and learning. Thus, the 21st century ideas about knowledge and learning demand shifts from the traditional methods of teaching to collaborative approach to meet the demand of 21st century Bandhana (2012). The traditional educational environment does not seem to be suitable for preparing learners to function optimally or be productive

in work place of today's society. That is to say, there is something hampering the system of educational delivery. Largely affecting learner's understanding generally and leading to poor delivery of instructions. It is already known that, at the end of every lesson, teachers are enjoined to evaluate the students based on the just concluded lesson. This is to ascertain the level of student's grasping the lesson and to set the ball running for the next lesson. Teaching method can be said to be the strategy, technique, or system employed by instructors or teachers in piloting learning. Behavioural Change Communication (BCC) is most suitable medium for effective educational delivery. The application of inappropriate teaching method can seriously affect the effective delivery and understanding of lesson by the concerned students, as well as their general performance on such lesson. By and large, may lead to poor academic performance of the students in their achievement examinations in the long run.

Significance of the study

Having effective delivery of learning has many positive effects and benefits, especially among JSS learners. Behavioural Change Communication teaching method is one of the building blocks of academic achievement; it provides a firm structure for learning, suitable for all levels of learner and most pertinent to this study is that, students performed better academically.

Objective of the study

- To ascertain the effectiveness of Behaviour Change Communication as teacher's method of teaching in selected senior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State.
- To find out the relationship between Behavioural Change Communication as teaching method and using of Instructional Materials in selected senior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State.

Research Questions

The following research questions were raised to address the problems of the study;

- I. How effective is Behaviour Change Communication as a Teacher's Method of teaching Behavioural challenge lessons in selected junior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State.?
- II. Is there any relationship between Behavioural Change Communication as a teaching method and use of instructional materials on the academic performance of students in selected junior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State?

Research Hypotheses

- H:o¹ There is no any significant effect in using Behavioural Change Communication as a teacher's method of teaching Behavioural Problems lesson in selected junior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State.
- H:o² There is no any significant relationship between the academic performance of students taught using BCC as a teaching method and Instructional materials in selected junior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger state.

Theoretical Frame Work

Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura, A. (1986) Social Cognitive Theory proposes that people are driven not by inner forces, but by external factors. This model suggests that human functioning can be explained by a triadic interaction of behavior, personal and environmental factors.

This is often known as *reciprocal determinism*. Environmental factors represent situational influences and environment in which behavior is preformed while personal factors include instincts, drives, traits, and other individual motivational forces. Several constructs underlie the process of human learning and behavior change. According to Perry, Barnowski, & Parcel, (1990) these variables may also intervene in the process of behavior change

- *Self-efficacy* — A judgment of one's ability to perform the behavior.
- *Outcome Expectations* — a judgment of the likely consequences a behavior will produce. The importance of these expectations (i.e., *expectancies*) may also drive behavior.
- *Self-Control* — the ability of an individual to control their behaviors.
- *Reinforcements* — something that increases or decreases the likelihood a behavior will continue.

Behavioural change theories can be used as guides in developing effective teaching methods. Since the goal of much education is behavioural change, the understanding of behaviour afforded by behavioural change theories provides insight into the formulation of effective teaching methods that tap into the mechanisms of behavioural change. In an era when education programs strive to reach large audiences with varying socioeconomic statuses, the designers of such programs increasingly strive to understand the reasons behind behavioural change in order to understand universal characteristics that may be crucial to program design. Wikipedia,

In fact, some of the theories, like the social learning theory and theory of planned behaviour, were developed as attempts to improve health education. Because these theories address the interaction between individuals and their environments, they can provide insight into the effectiveness of education programs given a specific set of predetermined conditions, like the social context in which a program will be initiated. Although health education is still the area in which behavioural change theories are most often applied, theories like the stages of change model have begun to be applied in other areas like employee training and developing systems of higher education. Wikipedia.

Literature Review

BCC is a participatory process for encouraging positive health behavior change in individuals and communities through the strategic application of targeted messages, and the provision of a supportive environment (Briscoe and Aboud, 2012). BCC encompasses social and community mobilization as well as health communication approaches, being a product of information, education and communication (IEC) strategies (Koenker et al., 2014). This type of communication goes beyond the mere dissemination of perceived necessary health information (Portsmouth, Trede, and Olsen, 2012). It is rather a two-way process that involves three cyclical stages – listening, dialoguing and actioning (Portsmouth et al., 2012). Listening enables health professionals (communicators) to learn about their target audience while dialoguing aims at developing culturally appropriate and easy to understand strategies (Portsmouth et al., 2012). Actioning on the other hand, deals with implementing and maintaining changes often in partnership with other professionals (Portsmouth et al., 2012). The need for constant evaluation and, hence, adjustment of strategies means these three steps are cyclical and continuous (Portsmouth et al., 2012). BCC occupies a strategic position in health promotion, as research has shown that theory-driven and evidence-based BCC interventions are the hallmarks of successful health promotion programs (Korda and Itani, 2013). Also, the understanding that health behavior / status is an interplay of biological, social and environmental factors supports the need for BCC

Interventions (Koenker et al., 2014). Using the most fundamental and powerful human interaction – communication – BCC can positively influence the social components of health and wellbeing (Wakefield, Loken, and Hornik, 2010). BCC has been noted to be effective in areas such as nutrition (Ruel et al., 2008), hygiene and sanitation (Curtis et al., 2001), family planning and HIV prevention (Wakefield et al., 2010) and in many other diseases

(Snyder, 2007). In order to reach the target audience, communication channels are often employed in BCC. These channels range from 'one-on-one' (interpersonal) to multi-level mass media communication channels (Ogata Jones, Denham, & Springston, 2006). For example, communication on behavior change between a health practitioner and a client would go for interpersonal communication, and there is evidence that such could be highly effective, depending on the goal of the communication (Ogata Jones et al., 2006). Conversely, a communication objective might, for instance, be for an expansive reach of audience. In such a case, channels with potential for a large audience

From the above review, it is important to note that BCC is a veritable tool at the disposal of health practitioners particularly the public and community health experts. They make best use of it as a medium of advocating for positive behavioural change in patients. Similarly, educational practitioners can adopt the same as a teaching method for effective delivery of knowledge across all levels of education.

Conceptual Framework

Teaching Method

This is a term that connotes the general principles, pedagogy and management of strategies used for classroom instruction. An individual's choice of teaching methods depends on what fits him. The educational philosophy, classroom demographic, subject area(s) and school mission statement. To achieve the goal of teaching, the teacher must adopt an effective teaching method. For this to be successful, the teaching method should be on the basis of certain criteria like the prior knowledge of students, environment and the set of learning goals decided in the academic curriculum. Aggarwal (2007) in Ajileye, (2012: 82) describe method as a formal structure of the sequential of acts commonly denoted by instruction. The term method involves the choice of what is to be taught as well as strategy and tactics of teaching. No method of instruction is superior or inferior to others. "The choice of an instructional method surface on the instructional objectives, subject matter, the target population, the instructional staff, and physical facilities, cost and time of instruction. Ajileye", (2012: 82)

Criteria for Selecting a Teacher Method

An instructional method could be regarded as the basic approach to instruction. Ingawa, (1999) opined eight (8) criteria for selecting a teaching method. The choice of a method needs to be based on nature of content

to be taught, students' ability level, objectives, teacher's abilities, interest and knowledge of subject matter, time and place of the teaching, time available for the lesson, available resources and the number of students in a class.

Rational for Adapting Behaviour Change Communication as a Teacher's Method

Behaviour Change Communication programs are skills designed to bring about behaviours that will improve health status and related long term outcomes. Previously, known as Information- Education-Communication (IEC). The change in name implies a switch from materials promotion to strategically designed programs that influence behaviour. Adapting these skills will enhance the better understanding of lessons particularly health related and behaviour change problems among students and improved academic performances of students through effective demonstration and practical application of BCC. Some subjects/ courses this method will be good for include Basic and health education, Home economics, Social studies, Biology, Educational psychology, Guidance and counseling to mention but a few.

According to Measure Evaluation, (2007), the program includes a wide range of intervention that fall into three broad categories.

- Mass media (radio, television, billboards, print materials and the internet);
- Interpersonal communication (client provider interaction, group presentations and teacher- students); and
- Community mobilization.

Any of these three types of communication can generate the results measured by these core indicators, including changes in knowledge, attitudes, intentions, and behaviours. In addition, some scholars regard these as learning resources which are the things or materials that help students in learning. In fact, any material, however small or big that can be used for making learning meaningful and understood is referred as learning resources. The use of BCC as teaching method entails effective use and application of learning resources as teaching or learning aids.

Advantages of Learning Resources

Methodology is seen as the study of different methods and systematic means of presenting subject matter and learning experience using the learning resources. Therefore, the following are some of its advantages over time:

1. Mass teaching: the use of audio-visual has made it possible for a teacher to handle large students during teaching.
2. Learning resources capture the mind of the students by make learning very interesting.
3. Concepts and skills are easily and clearly explained to students.
4. They appeal to student's different sense organs.
5. It makes it possible for students to easily store and recall any behaviour which makes learning easier pleasurable.
6. Demonstrations are presented to students without the teacher physically present through audio-visual.
7. It also enables students to carry out projects at their own time and pace.
8. Students are privileged to view live and real events through videos and films.
9. Students are exposed not only to class room teaching but also filed demonstrations.

Behavioural Challenge Lessons

These are science (Psychological) issues that degenerated to health challenges taught as lesson in secondary schools that depict correctional and attitudinal change in behaviour of some individuals or group of students towards some related psychological issues or problems in the community. According to Mangal, (2014:496) The term behavioural problem or problematic behaviour stand for the type of serious abnormality in the behaviour of an individual (child or adult) which, while causing a problem for his proper adjustment to self and the environment proves quite detrimental to his own welfare along with that of the society. These behavioural problems can be managed effective through behavioural change lessons from teachers in the schools. Other behaviour problems are Personal hygiene, Environmental cleanliness, Uses of toilet, Smoking, addictions (alcohols and drugs), Sexual abuse and child abuse, molestation, Bully, Truancy, Bad relationship, Peer problems and youthful exuberance etc.

Research Study Design

This study has Quasi-Experimental research (post test only group) design. This design is commonly used in educational research Auwal, A.M. (2005:9) the design is symbolized as follows: X O= Experimental group, - O= Control group. Two groups (experimental and control) are obtained through random "R" assignment. No initial observations were conducted on the two groups. However, experimental treatment "X" was administered to the experimental

group only with no such treatment “—” to control group. The two groups were later observed “O”. This design has advantages. It does not require pre-test yet its provides dependable and valid responses, It's also Economical.

Methodology

This study is carried out in a normal school setting using Quasi-experimental design. The experiment and control groups were involved in a treatment where the experiment group was thought lesson on behavioural problems such challenges of peer influences, truancy and good study habits using learning resources including Posters, motion pictures, audio-visual and Specimens to illustrate the lesson while the control group was only thought same lessons using conventional method presenting lecture notes. That lasted for three weeks.

Population of the Study

The selected secondary schools in Bida metropolis have JSS population of three thousand (3000) students.

Sample Technique and Size of the Study

Using Research advisors (2009) Sample size Table, three hundred and fourth one (341) respondents were simple randomly drawn as sample size with 5.0 margin error. The sample size was further divided using stratified random sampling according to gender. One hundred and sixty three (163) males and One hundred and seventy (178) females respondents respectively.

Research Instrument

The instrument used was constructed by the researcher, named The Test of Effectiveness of Behavioural Change Communication as a Teacher's Method Questionnaire (TEBCCTMQ). The questionnaire consists of two sections. Section A consist of 5 items is on respondent's bio data: Name of School, Gender, Qualification, Subject thought, and Years of experience. Section B consists of 10 Questions item on the impacts of Learning Resources. Section C consists of 10 items, 5 on the Effectiveness of BCC and 5 items on influence of Learning Materials (LM). All in a four likert form of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). The internal consistency of the items was estimated at 85 reliability coefficient established through test re-test conducted JSS II students.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

The instrument was presented to experts in test and measurement, educational psychology and counseling psychology to validate the face and

content as well as construct validity of the test instrument. Their suggestions, critics and observations were noted and incorporated into the main study. To test the reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted using 50 respondents Gov't Day Sec. School Minna, from where the Questionnaire was administered and results obtained were fed into SPSS to find the reliability coefficient that gives 0.59. This proved that the instrument is reliable and can be further used for the main study.

Data Collection and Treatment Process

The Pre-Treatment Stage

Prior to the study, the researcher contacted the selected school authorities through a letter expressed his willingness to carry out a research study on the impacts of Behaviour Change Communication as teacher's method, on academic performance of selected junior secondary schools students in Bida Metropolis of Niger State, involving these schools and students. The Principals accepted and granted the permission. These include Umaru Sanda Day Secondary School, Bida, Kuchita Junior Day Secondary School, Bida and College of Arts and Islamic Studies, (Junior Secondary School) Bida.

Treatment stage

Being a Quasi-Experimental research study, the respondents were sampled based on their willingness. Interested respondents were divided into two groups' i.e Group A and Group B then each group was further divided into Experiment and Control groups. Those in group A are the experimental and those in group B are the control groups. The researcher had two contact periods of teaching and learning with each groups for two weeks. The experiment group received all their presentations on Challenges of peer influence, truancy and good study habits using Behaviour Change Communication method of teaching with learning resources as treatment while the control group had theirs using Conventional method without any form of learning resources as treatment. The study was concluded at the third week with a post test.

Method of Data Analysis

Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Mean and standard deviation, simple frequency counts and Percentage were also employed. A score of exactly mean 2.5 and above is accepted as agreed with the decision while any score below mean 2.5 is accepted to disagree with decision. ANOVA and t-test was used to test the formulated hypotheses..

Descriptive Data

Table: 1 Sample Distribution of Respondents according to Schools and Gender

S/N	Name(s) of Schools	N	Male	Female
1	Umaru Sanda Day Sec. Sch. Bida	145	62	83
2	Kuchita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	62	25	37
3	CAIS Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	27	17	10
4	Daracita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	107	59	48
Total		341	163	178

Source: Field work, 2018.

Table: 2 Distribution of Respondents according to Gender

S/N	Gender		Percentage
1	Male	163	47.80%
2	Female	178	52.20%
Total		341	100%

Source: Field work, 2018.

Table 2 above illustrates the distribution of respondents by gender. From the table 163 (47.80%) were males while 178 (52.20%).

Table:3 Distribution of Questionnaire according to Schools and Percentage.

S/N	Name (s) of Schools	No of Questionnaire	Percentage
1	Umaru Sanda Day Sec. sch. Bida	145	42.52
2	Kucita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	62	18.18
3	CAIS Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	27	7.92
4	Daracita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	107	31.38
Total		341	100

Source: Field work, 2018.

Table:4 Distribution of Respondents according to Groups

S/N	Groups	N	Percentage
1	Experimental Group	172	50.44
2	Control Group	169	49.56
Total		341	100

Source: Field work, 2018.

Table 4 above depicts the distribution of respondents according groups. From the table 172 (50.44) of the respondents represent the experimental group while, 169 (49.56) of the respondents represent control group.

Table:4 Distribution of Respondents groups according to Gender

S/N	Groups	Males	Females
1	Experimental Group	78	92
2	Control Group	84	85
Total		163	179

Source: Field work, 2018.

1. **Research Question One:** How effective is Behaviour Change Communication a Teacher's Method of teaching Behavioural challenge lessons in selected secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State.

Table:5 Descriptive Statistics of Respondents on Effectiveness of BCC as a Teacher's Method.

S/N	Name (s) of Schools	No of Sample	Mean	STD Division
1	Umaru Sanda Day Sec. sch. Bida	145	296.6637	4.2418
2	Kuchita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	62	20.4107	2.4261
3	CAIS Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	27	12.3521	1.3452
4	Daracita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	107	27.5849	3.6412

Source: Field work, 2018.

Table: 5 above depict the descriptive statistics on the effectiveness of Behaviour Change Communication a Teacher’s Method of teaching Behavioural challenge lessons in selected secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State. Umaru Sanda DSS had a mean response of 296.6637 and standard deviation of 4.2418. Kuchita JDSS had a mean response of 20.4107 and standard deviation of 2.4261. CAIS-JDSS had a mean response of 12.3521 and standard deviation of 1.3452 while Daracita JDSS had a mean response of 27.5849 and standard deviation of 3.6412.

2. **Research Question Two:** Is there any relationship between Behavioural Change Communication as a teaching method and use of instructional materials on the academic performance of students in selected junior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State?

Table: 6 Descriptive Statistics of the Respondents on the relationship between BCC as a Method of Teaching and use of instructional materials on Academic performance of students.

S/N	Name(s) of Schools	No of Sample	Mean	STD Division
1	Umaru Sanda Day Sec. sch. Bida	145	34.6224	4.3561
2	Kuchita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	62	13.4231	2.6245
3	CAIS Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	27	10.5221	2.4132
4	Daracita Junior Day Sec. Sch. Bida	107	34.4327	4.2365

Source: Field work, 2018.

Table: 6 above depict the descriptive statistics on how the relationship between Behaviour Change Communication as Teacher’s Method and using instructional material has improved academic performance of students of selected secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State. Umaru Sanda DSS had a mean response of 34.6224 and standard deviation of 4.3561. Kuchita JDSS had a mean response of 13.4231 and standard deviation of 2.6245. CAIS-JDSS had a mean response of 10.5221 and standard deviation of 2.4132 while Daracita JDSS had a mean response of 34.4327 and standard deviation of 4.2365

1. **Research Hypotheses one:** There is no any significant effect in using Behavioural Change Communication as a teacher’s method of teaching Behavioural Problems lesson in selected secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State.

Table: 7 T-test Comparison of mean of Respondents on the Effectiveness of BCC as a Teacher's Method of Teaching.

Variables	No of Samples	Df	Mean	Std	t_{cal}	t_{cri}	Sign. Level (p)
Experiment	163	329	26.1703	4.2346	1.291	1.967	0.198
Control	178		28.5570	4.3781			

ns –Not significant at 0.05 level.

Table 7 above depicts the t-test comparison of the mean responses of students on effectiveness of Behavioural Change Communication as a teacher's method of teaching. From the table it is shown that there is no significant difference between mean of responses of students on the effectiveness of BCC on the basis of group at 0.05 level of significant ($t_{cal} = 1.291 < t_{cri} = 1.9679$; $df = 329$; $p > 0.05$). Therefore Hypothesis one that state there is no any significant difference on effective in using BCC as a teacher's method of teaching Behavioural Problems lesson in selected secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger State is accepted.

2. **Research Hypotheses Two:** There is no any significant relationship between the academic performance of students taught using BCC as a teaching method and Instructional materials in selected junior secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger state.

Table: 8 ANOVA Comparison of mean of Respondents on the Relationship between Academic Performance of Students Taught using BCC as a Teaching method and instructional Material.

Variables (p)	Sum of Square	Df	Mean of Square	t_{cal}	t_{cri}	Sign. Level
Between Group	7.797	2	3.898	0.148	3.01	0.862
Within Group	8620.680	328				
Total	8628.477	330				

ns –Not significant at 0.05 level.

Table 7 depict the ANOVA comparison of mean responses on relationship between using BCC as a teaching method and instructional materials on academic performance of students based on gender. From the table it is shown that there is no significant difference between the mean responses on the improvement in the academic performances of student's taught using BCC as a teacher's method on the basis of gender at

0.05 levels of significant ($t_{cal} = 0.148 < t_{cri} 3.01$; $df = 328$; $p < 0.05$). Therefore, Hypothesis two that states there is no any significant improvement in the academic performance of students taught using Behaviour Change Communication as teaching method of teaching in selected secondary schools in Bida Metropolis of Niger state is accepted.

Summary of Findings

The major findings of this study are as follows:

1. The students that participated in the Experiment group using BCC as a teacher's method of teaching perceive the effectiveness by responding better than those from the control group. ($t_{cal} = 1.291 < t_{cri} = 1.9679$; $df = 329$; $p > 0.05$).
2. The respondents those in the Experimental group on the relationship between using BCC as a teacher's and instructional material perform better in the test than those in control group. ($t_{cal} = 0.148 < t_{cri} 3.01$; $df = 328$; $p < 0.05$).

Discussion of Findings

From the first finding, it shows that students who participated in the experiment group of this study perceive the lesson definitely because of their exposure to various instructional and learning materials that arrest their attention and focus it on the lesson. This learning materials ranging from audio visual, audio, motion pictures, posters flip charts, maps and diagrams. This is not so compared to the responses of the students in the control group. This can be attributed to the doses of treatments that was introduced the experiment group i.e the use instructional to teach at the experiment group. This study finding corroborate the work of Babbie, (1986), Tate, (1990) and Ibrahim, (2008) are due to the treatment effect on the experiment group which received lesson using different instructional materials. The Experimental group during the pre test were avail the opportunity to learning with rap attention and focused. Their sense organs were alerted at the same time to acquire response to new stimulus, learn through cognitive, observation or imitation. Another notable difference observed in the first finding is the lack of motivation among the control group students during the post test. This can be attributed to the use of traditional teaching method.

Meanwhile, on the second finding, it shows that there is increase in the level of student's academic performance. Considering the length of times the study lasted, the respondent is experimental group still having retentive

memory of what they learned during the pre test. This can be attributed to flexibility and suitability of these instructional materials. According to Mansur, (2014: 105 -106) the materials must be suitable for the subject and topic to be taught, as well as learners' ability, age, and interest. This is necessary in order to make learning easy, small in size if they are to make appreciable impact on the students' learning.

Conclusion

In view of the importance of teaching method in learning and the decreasing rate of students attention to their studies. There is an urgent need for introduction of new but flexible methods of teaching that are student friendly and resourceful. Such that will make teaching learning attractive and high performance driven and result oriented in line with the global practice. Education inspectors should as a matter of fact ensure that all schools have instructional material lab where these instructional materials can be kept and be made available when necessary.

Recommendations

From the findings, the following recommendations were profound:

1. The stakeholders should intensify effort to enhance the Psycho motor domain of their students through exposing them to teaching learning using tangible resource materials under effective supervision by the teacher.
2. Live is dynamic, so education is continuing. Teachers should be motivated by government to give out their best in terms of teaching by encouraging them to acquire new teaching and learning skills and methods through training and retraining.
3. Teachers should see the success of their students as theirs by teaching the students the right things and use the appropriate instructional materials that will make the students internalized whatever they learnt for better and effective performance.
4. Teachers should be well informed on the best world teaching practice by accepting and internalizing new 21st skills and innovations that will promote effective teaching and learning

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Influence of Training on Physical and Physiological Characteristics of Male and Female Children, Adolescents and Adults

Abdul Mohammed

Abstract

Physical activity level of an individual or society is considered as a faithful reflection of their state of health and quality of life. Women are said to be less responsive to training and require more time and work to increase their strength, but others have stressed that pubertal girls respond to training in the same fashion as adolescent and adult males. This paper is titled “effects of training on physical and physiological characteristics of male and female children, adolescents and adults. It takes into consideration, physical characteristics, cardiopulmonary characteristics, skeletal and cardiac muscle and hormonal and metabolic characteristics of male and female. Suggestion/recommendations were also made.

Introduction

Physical performance depends in large part on the ability to take in and utilize oxygen. Oxygen consumption depends not only on pulmonary and cardiac functions, but also on the transport of oxygen from the lungs to the tissue. The delivery of oxygen from the heart and lungs depends on hemoglobin which is synthesized from iron and proteins within the body. Female may easily become deficient in iron and in hemoglobin because the requirement for iron is considerably higher because of loss during menstruation (Heyward, 1998, Wilmore and Costil, 1999). Maximal oxygen uptake is the best measure of cardiovascular fitness. It also is the “gold standard” for design of aerobic-type exercise training programme and in comparison of individuals and/or group of individuals. The difference in maximal oxygen consumption between men and women can be explained

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by difference in body mass, percent body fat, and hemoglobin concentration, (Wilmore, 1996; Bouchard, 2001, Bilman, 2002).

Authorities in exercise and sports science report that the physical performance of girls up to the menarche is equal to that of boys. Ireland and Ott (2004) pointed out that in females, the development of performance ability stops or even declines after puberty. The maximum endurance declines rapidly in girls after the age of 14 as well.

Women are said to be less responsive to training and require more time and work to increase their strength, but other authorities have stressed that pubertal girls respond to training in the same fashion as adolescent and adult males.

The characteristics of women response to moderate exercise is greater and results in more rapid elevation in pulse rate than noted in men under similar condition. Limitations on women's responses to strenuous activity and the tests or endurance are the more rapid heart rate, fewer red blood cells and less hemoglobin, smaller maximal pulmonary ventilation, lung capacity less than that of males, lower maximal oxygen uptake and endurance (Heyward, 1998; Bouchard, 2001; Brooks, et al., 2002).

The overall responses to acute and chronic exercise in women appear to be similar to the responses in men. There are, however, several gender specific differences. The apparent differences were observed in studies that characterize the metabolic, hormonal, and cardiovascular response to exercise in women. For example, during the phases of the menstrual cycle, receptors for both testosterone and estrogens are founded on cardiac and the skeletal muscles. The relative role these receptor plays in the overall structure and function of striated muscles is unknown; however, results from animal studies demonstrate gender specific adaptation to chronic exercise in cardiac muscles. Result from human studies suggest the possibility of gender specific differences in the relative size of muscle fibers and fiber type distribution in skeletal muscle. The adaptation of striated muscle for exercise are central to the health and functional status of individual. Knowledge about the role the sex hormones play in the overall functioning of striated muscles is critical to the health-related aspects of physical activity programmes (Bilman, 2002; Brooks, et al., 2002).

Physical Characteristics

Although there is no significant difference in size of boys and girls of the same age during the first ten years of life, girls are ahead of boys in maturation throughout this period. There is a slight difference in bone age at birth and by ten years the girls are definitely 12 to 18 months ahead of

boys of the same age in this particular aspect of physiological development. Girls begin their adolescent growth spurt in the period between 10¹/₂ and 13 years of age, and it is growth. About two more inches of growth occur after the menarche, total growth being completed by about 16 years of age. (Ireland and Ott, 2004).

Boy's growth spurts occur between the age 12¹/₂ and 15 years. These extra years of physical growth are under the influence of growth hormone. Prior to sexual maturity, account for the greater size of males. Young men generally are about 10 percent larger than young women when growth ends. This applies to height, weight and other external measurements. Union of all epiphyses to the main portion of the bone has occurred by the age of 16 years in girls and 18 years for boys. Late maturing girls would have a longer period of skeletal growth and thus greater height and longer legs and arms than would occur on the usual schedule, (Heyward, 1998, Foss and Keteyian, 1998).

The amount of muscle is almost identical children of either sex in the first decade of life. Muscles, like other tissues, increase during adolescence, their peak growth occurring a few months after the greater increment of height growth. At maturity the muscle mass in women is about one-half that of men. The reason for this is the effect of androgens (male sex hormone) on muscles.

In girls the most rapid increase in strength occurs before the menarche, with a diminishing increment for a few years thereafter. Wilmore (1988) pointed out that the "early maturing individuals are on the average superior in strength to the late maturing". This is most marked on boys at about the age of 14.5 years and in girls at 13. Early maturing girls show a characteristically early arrest in development of strength as well as height. Dempsey (1986) found that the motor skills of girls do not improve after the age of 14 years.

Cardio Pulmonary Characteristics

Oxygen delivery capacity or maximal aerobic uptake (Vo_2max) is a measure of the ability of the cardiovascular and pulmonary system to deliver oxygen to the exercising muscle. The apparent large difference in Vo_2max between the two sexes (52%) when expressed as Litre $\text{L}\cdot\text{min}^{-1}$ and 19% when expressed Vo_2 $\text{ml}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$ have been partially accounted for the normalizing for mass free mass and training status (Heyward, 1998). However, it appears that approximately a 15% difference in Vo_2max remain and is thought to represent inherent biological differences that exist between men and women (Sparling, 1980, Foss and Keteyian, 1998). Therefore,

well-design experiments are required to determine whether these inherent differences are attributed to women's genetic determinants (Foss and Keteyian, 1988). The smaller components of the oxygen transport system, and the smaller ventricular mass to lean body mass ratio. Cardiopulmonary factors that may explain the inherent biological differences include a cardiovascular factors such as oxygen carrying capacity of the blood, left ventricular mass, cardiac output and left ventricular function, blood volume, skeletal muscle blood flow, and the autonomic nervous systems regulation of the circulation as well as pulmonary factors such as pulmonary diffusion capacity, pulmonary capillary blood volume and transmit times, and ventilation perfusion ratios.

Women have a smaller blood volume, heart size, lower hemoglobin concentration, and oxygen content of the blood (Heyward, 1988; Fox and Keteyian, 1998). Studies using magnetic resonance imagine determining left ventricle mass in sedentary men and women and endurance athletes of both sexes have been published. Women have smaller left ventricular mass both in absolute term and when expressed as left ventricular mass/lean body mass ratio (Milliken, et al; 1988).

Women have lower arterial oxygen content at rest and during maximal dynamic exercise. Also the arterial venous difference in women is lower, and there is no different in the calculated mixed venous oxygen content between men and women at rest and during maximal exercise (Fox and Keteyian 1998 and Heyward 1998). The ratio of Q/Vo_2 during the sub maximal work is high in women than in men (Astrand and Rodahl, 1986; Drinkwater, 1984). This difference in the Q/Vo_2 ratio reflect a hyperkinetic circulation in a response to a reduced oxygen delivery. However, cardiac output and Vo_2 max where expressed as $l \cdot min^{-1}$ in this comparison, and no normalization for body mass or surface area differences where made. Clearly, as noted for the difference in Vo_2 max, when comparisons between the sexes are made, the influence of surface area-to-mass ratio on cardio vascular variables need to be accounted before assuring differences due to gender. Other function such as lower circulating blood volume resulting in a lower stroke volume and therefore a higher heart rate at the same Vo_2 need to be accounted for in terms of difference in body size (Astrand and Rodahl, 1986; Drinkwater, 1984; Heyward, 1998).

Women have lower pulmonary capacities and exercise ventilation volumes than men, and this appears to be the result of a structural difference. There are few data concerning the difference in diffusion capacity and diffusion/perfusion ratio of women's lungs during exercise. Perhaps the recently defined pulmonary limitation to Vo_2 max in the well-trained

male athlete (Dempsey, 1986; Rowell, 1986) is more likely to be present in the female athlete because of her smaller pulmonary capillary volume. The average isometric strength is approximately 30% greater in men than in women and is probably related to man's greater mass of lean tissue. Isometric strength increases to a maximum through ages of 30-40 years but then declines progressively as age advances. However, when one incorporates strength training or works at a job requiring strength maneuvers age-related decline in isometric strength is reduced or absent. Isometric endurance measures at any given force of contraction is better for women than men and appears to increase in both sexes with advancing age (Brooks et al, 2001).

The cardiovascular responses associated with isometric exercise including an increase in blood pressure. The increase in blood pressure in heart rate and cardiac output with minor changes in vascular resistance. Once again, despite the apparent increase incidence of clinical manifestation of autonomic dysfunction in women compared with men, there is relatively few documented investigations comparing the cardiovascular responses of men and women to isometric exercise, (Wilmore and Costill, 1999; Fox and Ketgerian, 1998).

Skeletal and Cardiac Muscles

Although there are absolute differences in the mass of skeletal muscle between women and men after puberty, a gender difference in strength is not observed when maximal strength is normalized for cross-sectional area (Ireland and Ott, 2004). The greater strength of men apparently results from a larger size of the individual muscle fiber since the number of muscle fibers within a specific muscle are the same between men and women. Costill et al; (1976) reported that the size of the individual muscle fiber since the number of muscle fibers within a specific muscle is the same between men and women. Costill et al; (1976) reported that the size of the individual muscle fibers in women was 70-85% of the men's size, the magnitude depending on the type of the muscle fiber (slow-twitch or fast-twitch). Furthermore, there is no gender difference in the proportion of muscle fiber types within, the same muscle (Astrand and Rodahl, 1986; McArdle et al., 1984). Relatively greater muscle hypertrophy accounts for the greater muscle mass and higher absolute strength in men.

The mechanism(s) underlying the greater muscle hypertrophy in men is unknown. Skeletal muscle and cardiac muscle possess receptors for both androgens and estrogens (Fox and Ketgerian, 1998; Jackson et al; 1999). Because the role of androgens and estrogens in stimulating protein synthesis is well known, the higher circulating of androgens may account

for the greater muscle hypertrophy in men compared with women. On the other hand, the higher circulating estrogens in women may be important in regulating energy metabolism rather than protein synthesis in muscle. The interaction of the sex hormones on protein synthesis metabolisms in striated muscle requires further investigation. Similarly gender difference in smooth muscle structure and function are unknown.

Hormonal and Metabolic

The role of estrogens and progesterone in the hormonal and metabolic response to exercise in women is unclear despite several years of research. The regulation of metabolism during exercise is complex, requiring the integration of several systems. These systems, hormonal and otherwise, regulate the mobilization of substrate (glucose and fat) from storage depots, the transport of substrates to work muscles, the entry of substrate into the working muscles, and the metabolism via specific metabolic pathways of the substrates once in the cell (Galbo, 1983); thus, there are several layers of complexity in the precise regulation of metabolism during physical activity. Although menstruating women may utilize more fatty acids as an energy source during sub maximal exercise more so than men (Tarnopolsky, et al; 1990), Bunt, (1990) however pointed out that true gender differences in substrate metabolism are difficult to demonstrate in human, mainly because of the inability to control several confounding variables. These variables include menstrual status, training history in the previous year, diet, precise matching of physical performance (Vo_2max whether expressed $1\text{min}^{-1}\cdot\text{kg}$ total body weight, or kg lean body weight), and so forth. Similarly, Tarnopolsky, et al; (1990) reported a gender difference in fat utilization during sub maximal exercise during the follicular phase in women who were matched with men for performance status, training status, and maximal Vo_2max . The diet was controlled for 3 days prior to the run. The women utilized more fat (as estimated by the lower respiration exchange ratio) and less muscle glycogen than the men during the run. Plasma insulin decreased in the exercise in both groups; however, the resting plasma insulin was higher in the women prior to the exercise bout. This higher plasma insulin in the women throughout the exercise bout could result in an alteration of substrate mobilization/utilization during exercise.

The interplay between estrogen and progesterone on metabolism during exercise also is unclear. In comparing the distinct phases of the menstrual cycle, investigators often observe minor if any differences in plasma glucose, fatty acids, the gluco-regulatory hormones, and catecholamine. For example, Bonen et al (1983) reported no apparent phase differences in women during

light and heavy exercise whether the women fasted or were fed glucose before exercise. On the other hand, Lavoie, et al, (1987) demonstrated a phase difference in women who were fed a carbohydrates-poor diet for one day before exercising for 90 min at 63% Vo_2max .

Conclusion

Evidence has been presented that from the sixth week of embryonic life there are anatomic and physiologic differences, which affect physical growth and development. In the female, her pattern of growth and development leads to certain characteristics such as smaller body size and dimensions of organs, more body fat, leading to proportionately less muscle, reduced hemoglobin mass, physiologic variations related to the reproductive system after puberty. All of these require special consideration in programming physical activities and sports for women. The overall responses to acute and chronic exercise in women appear to be similar to the response in men. There are however, several gender specific differences. The energy substrate utilization during exercise and the adjustments in the hormonal milieu for substrate mobilizing depend on the type of exercise; and the exercise status, among many other factors.

Recommendations

It is recommended that since age and gender differences exist in the body's responses to physical activity, professionals in the field of sports and sports science should be responsible for handling physical fitness training. Physical training should vary in terms of mode of activity, duration of activity, frequency of activity and intensity of activity putting into consideration the age and gender of participants.

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Assessing Service Delivery in Public and Private Hospitals in Nigeria: Lagos State Perspective

Joseph Afolabi Ibikunle

Abstract

This study assesses the service delivery of public and private hospitals in Lagos State, Nigeria for the period of 2008 to 2017. Convenience sampling method was employed to select 10 public and 10 private hospitals. The input variables are the number of Doctors, Nurses, and hospital beds, unit cost of operation, equipment and cost of drugs while the output variables were inpatient, outpatient, deliveries and revenue. Data Envelopment Analysis and the Malmquist Productivity Index (MPI) was used to calculate the efficiency and productivity growth of the hospitals. Findings revealed that the public hospitals were more efficient in terms of technical, allocative and cost with the mean score of (0.899, 0.886 and 0.805) than the private hospital (0.848, 0.829 and 0.714), but both are deteriorating in productivity growth pattern due to the technical efficiency change and technological changes. The study recommends that government should reduce the health budget gap so as to bring the public hospitals into healthy competition with their foreign counterpart in order to reduce medical tourism and invariably reduce capital flight from Nigeria. Also, for private hospitals with inefficiency related to allocation and cost, government may need to intervene in the spatial location to warrant fair distribution of the facilities. This will reduce unnecessary competition among them and improve proper utilization of available resources.

Introduction

Efficiency analysis in health care sector has attracted significant interest in recent decades due to escalating health care costs. Better understanding of health facility efficiency is important for ensuring effective use of health

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resources, especially in countries where public involvement in health care provision is high (Kitaki, 2018; Camila, Lenka & Jana, 2019). This is because the health system is widely considered as an important institution in the health improvement agenda of any country (Hakkinen & Joumard, 2007; Novignon & Lawanson, 2014). Health system according to the World Health Organisation (WHO, 2000) is the activities whose primary purpose is to promote, restore or maintain health. In Nigeria, the federal structure has shaped health delivery as all the three tiers of government are involved in health care delivery system, management and financing. The prevailing situation is such that the tertiary health care is provided by the federal government, secondary health care by the State governments while Local Government Areas (LGAs) are in charge of the primary level (Khunbhaka & Lovell, 2001; Olaniyan & Lawanson, 2010).

Every country both developed and developing makes provision for healthcare delivery system for its members. This is with a view to providing medical and related services for the maintenance of good health, particularly through the prevention and treatment of diseases. This is in recognition of the pervasive importance of good health upon which life is contingent. In Nigeria, health care can be provided through public and private providers. Public health care is usually provided by the government through public funds. Private health care on the other hand can be provided through (for profit) hospitals and (not for profit ones) non-government providers, including faith-based organizations (Horwitz, 2015; Ssenyonjo et al, 2018). Nigeria as a developing country with an estimated annual population growth rate of 2.60 percent is currently in 2019 having over 200 million people with Lagos State having about over 17.5 million of its population and is projected to be the world's third most populous country by the year 2050 (NBS, 2018; UN Report, 2017). It is therefore evident that the nation's demand for healthcare is huge and would continue to increase in proportion to the huge, growing and ageing population, level of health care, environmental problem, lifestyle within the loose of the policy loop and traditions. In the sub-set, urban population is equally growing as a result of rural-urban migration; while resources for healthcare provision are limited. This is due to a combination of factors related to the supply, such as the misplaced construction of facilities without prior need-assessment, and poor quality of services; it is also caused by demand-related factors such as financial, geographical and cultural barriers to people's access. One of the main concerns of policy makers and health system managers in lower middle-income countries such as Nigeria, Philippines, Pakistan and so on is to improve the efficiency and performance of hospitals, given the need to

ensure the best use of scarce resources to produce maximum outputs (Bello, 2000; Hakkinen&Joumard, 2007;Nistor, Stefanescu, Sintejudeanu&Crisan, 2017;Novignon&Lawanson, 2014).

In Nigeria, when it comes to matters of health, Lagos is listed among States in the “high end” class both in the public and the private hospitals because of the high number and variety of general and specialist health facilities on offer. Statistics from the Healthcare Facilities Monitoring and Accreditation Agency, HEFAMAA, shows that in Lagos, there are 26 registered General Hospitals, 256 public healthcare centers, 2, 886 private hospitals or specialist clinics and laboratories or diagnostic centers in addition to an estimated 160 tradomedical centers. Despite the high number of the health facilities, the talk about crowded emergency wards, lack of empathy from health workers and having to wait endlessly before getting a shared room in hospitals were common complaints. Those are problems that can be explained from the perspective of Lagos being a victim of its success as in adding to the State’s status as a mega city of more than 23 million people, it daily receives influx of people across the Federation seeking qualitative health care services (Oyekale, 2017; Musbau, 2019).

This longstanding and particularly heated debate about the efficiency of the private and public sectors in meeting the healthcare needs of the poor people in Nigeria, especially in the South west, is increasingly important because governments are faced with the challenge of providing more and better-quality healthcare to growing populations, all with increasingly squeezed budgets. Therefore, finding the most efficient and cost-effective means of delivery is crucial for achieving this goal. For example Oliver et al. 2011; Pia, Karen, Alabi and Imoh, 2011 sees no difference in the performance of both private and public hospitals in terms of their health care delivery while (Andrew, 2012; Chang, Cheng and Das 2004, Hollingsworth, 2008and Ogoh, 2001) argues that the private sectors provisions of healthcare are more efficient than the public sectors. In contrast, Jacob (2012); Lee, Yang and Mchoi (2009) found that Public provision were more efficient than the Private sector provision of health care facilities. The above findings have put policy makers in a crossroad in the area of setting an effective policy that can help to put State in a better position.

The question that comes to mind therefore, are: Which sector (Private or Public) is more efficient in the provision of healthcare services in terms of technicality, allocation and cost?What is the role of technical efficiency change and technological change in driving productivity changes? and; finally, what is the pattern of efficiency growth in total factor productivity (TFP) of public and private hospitals in Lagos State? This paper therefore is set

to address the several questions raised so as to assist policy makers in the Health sector. This study sets out to estimate the efficiency of health care providers, both public and private hospitals in Lagos State, Nigeria. Apart from the introduction, the paper develops as follows. Section 2 presents the review of literature. Section 3 focuses on the methodology. The analysis of result is presented in section 4. Section 5 concludes and recommends while section 6 focuses on the limitations of the study and section 7 provides guides for further research.

Literature Review

A hospital is an institution that provides medical services. In Nigeria, the major providers of healthcare are the private and the public sectors, giving birth to both private and public hospitals. A private hospital is one which is owned and governed by a person or many people who are managing the whole finances on their own. Not just finances, even the funding process and the administration, staff, all the doctors, everything is under the control of that private body. A public hospital is completely and entirely run by the government's funding and money. Everything from the construction to the fees of the doctors to the equipment, medicines are based on the government budget (Osain, 2011).

Efficiency can simply be defined as the ratio of output to input. According to Farrell (1957), efficiency of any decision-making units (DMU) means the success of the unit to produce the largest possible outputs from inputs available. Efficiency can be measured in three ways; First is the Technical efficiency, which is a concept that aims to evaluate whether a productive unit is using the minimum possible quantity of resources. Evaluation is achieved through the relationship between input (e.g., hospital beds and hours of work by physicians) and output (e.g., number of ordinary admissions and medical outpatients). Second is Allocative (or price) efficiency refers to the ability to combine inputs and outputs in optimal proportions in the light of prevailing prices and available technology and is measured in terms of behavioural goal of the production unit (Hollingsworth, 2012) and the third is Economic efficiency, also called productive or cost efficiency, is simply a combination of the technical and allocative efficiency. It is the maximum use of resources at a minimum average cost and a state in which every resource is optimally allocated to serve each person in the best way while minimizing waste and inefficiency. A number of studies exist on efficiency in the provision of health care services in the literature; however, some of the studies are largely beyond the shore of Africa. Most of the studies are carried out in the developed

countries, some in Africa and few in Nigeria. However, they all found different result based on different methodologies adopted and political will of the countries.

Empirically, a number of studies have been carried out in both developed, emerging economies and developing economy. For example, Majid, Azadeh, Haleh, Mehdi and Mohsen (2014) examined the technical efficiency of Specialty Ophthalmology hospital in Iran between 2009 and 2011 using DEA and SFA methodologies. The results of a comprehensive data analysis method from their study shows that the capacity of improving technical efficiency in the studied sector is 34% (average technical efficiency is 0.663 parts); and some of the sectors met the excess inputs (factors of production). Technical efficiency using stochastic frontier analysis was 0.937. In fact, the stochastic frontier analysis showed that the inefficiency is less than the actual value. They conclude that reducing excess capacity factors (factors of production) should be conducted in the form of a comprehensive plan and by considering the major role in the hospital and health sector costs reduction. However, the study fails to differentiate between the non-for-profit hospital and for-profit hospital which would have determined the more efficient among health care providers.

In addition, Gu, Song and Zhang (2013) examined the experimental measure of output and productivity in the Canadian Hospital sector from 2002 to 2010. The volume index of the output of the hospital sector was estimated by aggregating the number of inpatient cases and outpatient cases using their cost share as weight. The analysis revealed a large substitution bias in the volume index when inpatient treatment and outpatient treatment of the same medical disease condition are aggregated using their respective unit cost as weight. It was also found that the volume index of the hospital sector output corrected for substitution bias increased by 4.3% annually during the 2002 to 2010 period. The result however may be interesting, but the author did not investigate the efficiency of the hospital in the area of their input and output which may leave most decision making at a crossroad.

More so, Frohloff (2007) estimated the cost and technical efficiency of German Hospital using a stochastic frontier analysis. The study is the first to investigate both technical and cost efficiency of more than 1500 German general hospitals. The empirical results for the years from 2000 to 2003 indicate that private and non-profit hospitals are less costly and technically efficient than publicly owned hospitals. According to him, the explanation for the result may be that German private and non-profit hospitals produce at a longer average length of stay and, thereby a higher cost per case than

public institution due to the incentives provided by reimbursement schemes until 2004. However, the study neglects the aspect of the data envelopment analysis which would have been used to confirm which of the health care providers, private or public is more efficient. In terms of allocative efficiency and cost efficiency the study failed to determine which of the sector is more efficient in the aspect of cost and allocation.

In another study Dash (2009) applied Malmquist DEA to examine productivity of 29 district headquarters hospitals in India during the years 2002 to 2007. The inputs were number of beds, number of nursing staff, and number of physicians (Surgeon). The outputs were number of inpatients, number of outpatients, number of surgeries undertaken, emergency cases handled, medico legal cases, and deliveries. The hospitals have a MTFP value of 1.2358, EFFCH of 1.15, and TECH of 1.07. Therefore, the 23.6% hospital productivity growth is explained by a 15% improvement in efficiency combined with a 7% increase in innovation. Similarly, Barros, Antonio, Jose, Nicolas and Bernardim (2007) explored productivity change of 51 hospitals in Portugal using both the Luenberger indicators and the Malmquist index during the years 1997 to 2004. The inputs include number of beds, number of full-time equivalent personnel, and total variable costs. The outputs are cash flows (number of persons that leave the hospital), length of stay, number of consultations, and number of emergency cases. The Luenberger indicator is 0.008, EFFCH is -0.001 and TECH is 0.009. On the other hand, the MTFP is 1.042, EFFCH is 1.036 and TECH is 0.995. The Malmquist DEA results imply that on average productivity of the hospitals under consideration grew mainly due to improvement in efficiency.

Corroborating the above, Mathiyazhgan (2006) highlighted the cost efficiency of public and private hospitals in Karnataka state in India. Efficiency is estimated through parametric as well as nonparametric DEA method. The findings indicated that the choice of econometric approach did not make any significant difference in the results and they are robust. The analysis infers that hospitals (both public and private together in the analysis) are cost inefficient in the state, which is due to technical and allocative system of resources of the hospitals. The private hospitals appear relatively less inefficient than the public hospitals and that the main determinants of the technical and allocative inefficiencies of the public hospitals are due to inappropriate interventions of inpatient days care, share of medical personnel, bed capacity, quality indices and choice of the location, while in the case of private hospitals, it relates only to bed capacity and quality indices. However, the study failed to compare the result with

the aspect of growth in their productivity for both the private and public hospital.

Andrew (2012) examined whether for-profit hospitals are more efficient than non-profit hospitals in Zimbabwe using data envelopment analysis and the Tobit model. DEA findings revealed that there is a marked deviation of efficiency scores from the best practice frontier with for-profit hospitals having the highest mean overall technical efficiency (OTE) score of 61.4%. The mean OTE scores for mission and public hospitals are 35% and 50.3% respectively. Evidence from the second stage, Tobit model suggests that while both for-profit hospitals and government hospitals are both important in influencing efficiency, for-profit hospitals had a higher marginal mean efficiency score than government hospitals. The study however made use of only one methodology which may be biased. Hence, comparing the result with SFA would have shown the reliability of the outcome of the study.

Theoretical Framework for the Model

In the health context, efficiency is concerned with the relation between resource inputs (labour, capital, material, or equipment) and health outcomes (inpatient, outpatient, lives saved, deliveries and so on). Existence of inefficiency is indicated by possible reallocation of resources in a manner that results in increase in health outcomes (Lawanson, 2015). The purpose of DEA is to construct a non – parametric envelopment frontier over the data points such that all observed points are on the frontier and those under the frontier are not optimal. In other words, to estimate efficiency of the hospitals and to explain the inefficiencies.

Therefore, to illustrate the DEA model mathematically, assume that each decision - making units (DMUs) use m inputs for the production of n outputs in a given technology level. Denotes the amount of input i ($i=1,2,\dots,m$) produced by j_{th} DMU ($j=1,2,3,\dots,k$), whereas y_{sj} represents the quantity of output s ($s=1,2,3,\dots,n$) produced by j_{th} DMU ($j=1,2,3,\dots,k$). The variables u'_r ($r=1,2,\dots,n$) and w'_i ($i=1,2,\dots,m$) are weights of each output and input respectively. The technical efficiency of DMU can be written as;

This mathematical representation can be clarified as finding the appropriate values for u and w that maximise efficiency level of the observed firm subject to all efficiency scores and are less than or equal to 1. To avoid infinite solutions (Coelli et al.,2005) and obtain a linear programming model, Charnes – Cooper (1978) transformed the model as follows:

$$Max = \frac{\sum_{r=1}^n u_r Y_{ro}}{\sum_{i=1}^m w_i X_{io}} \quad (2.1)$$

Subject to:

$$\frac{\sum_{r=1}^n u_r Y_{rj}}{\sum_{i=1}^m w_i X_{ij}} \leq 1 \quad \text{for } j=1,2,\dots,k \quad (2.2)$$

$$u_r \text{ and } w_i \geq 0 \quad (r=1,2,\dots,n) \text{ and } (i=1,2,\dots,m) \quad (2.3)$$

This mathematical representation can be clarified as finding the appropriate values for u and w that maximise efficiency level of the observed firm subject to all efficiency scores and are less than or equal to 1. To avoid infinite solutions (Coelli et al.,2005) and obtain a linear programming model, Charnes – Cooper (1978) transformed the model as follows:

$$Max\theta = \sum_{r=1}^n u_r y_{ro} \quad (2.4)$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m w_i x_{io} = 1, \quad (2.5)$$

$$\sum_{r=1}^n u_r y_{rj} - \sum_{i=1}^m w_i x_{ij} \leq 0, \quad (2.6)$$

$$u_r \text{ and } w_i \geq 0 \quad (r=1,2,\dots,n) \text{ and } (i=1,2,\dots,m) \quad (2.7)$$

Where θ is the efficiency rating of the service unit been evaluated by DEA, y_{rj} is the amount of output r generated by service unit j . x_{ij} is the amount of input used by service unit j . i is the number of inputs used by the service units. r is the number of outputs generated by the service units. u_r is the coefficient of weight assigned by DEA to output r and w_i coefficient of weight assigned by DEA to output i .

The dual of the above linear programming called the envelopment form is constructed by minimizing the quantity of the m inputs required to

meet the stated output.

$$\text{Min } \theta \quad (2.8)$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j x_{ij} \leq \theta x_{io} \quad (i= 1,2,\dots,m) \quad (2.9)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j y_{rj} \geq \theta y_{ro} \quad (r= 1,2,\dots,n) \quad (2.10)$$

$$\lambda_j \geq 0 \text{ for } j = 1,2,\dots,k \quad (2.11)$$

Where θ is a scalar and λ is a $k \times 1$ vector of constant. The solution of this linear system will end up with finding θ corresponding to the efficiency level of each DMU. Therefore, θ should be less than or equal to 1. A hospital with $\theta = 1$ is technically efficient and means that it is operating on the frontier according to Farrell's (1957) proposition while a firm with θ less than 1 is inefficient. Farrell's (1957) and Koopman;s (1951) highlighted that there is a precise need to integrate slack variables into the linear programming model through which efficiency scores will be gauged concerning the slack usage of any input. The model then becomes as follows:

$$\text{Min } \theta_0 - \varepsilon \left(\sum_{i=1}^m s_i^- + \sum_{r=1}^n s_r^+ \right) \quad (2.12)$$

Subject to:

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j x_{ij} + s_i^- = \theta x_{io} \quad (i= 1,2,\dots,m) \quad (2.13)$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^k \lambda_j y_{rj} - s_r^+ = \theta y_{ro} \quad (r= 1,2,\dots,n) \quad (2.14)$$

$$s_r^+, s_i^-, \lambda_j \geq 0 \text{ for } j = 1,2,\dots,k \quad (2.15)$$

Where s_r^+ and s_i^- is constraint to become non – negative and transformed inequalities into equations? s_r^+ means that must be satisfied by every single solution, whereas denotes that must be sustained for each input used by DMU₀.

Input-oriented constant returns to scale (CRS) model was used to measure the states' hospitals technical efficiency, allocative efficiency and cost efficiency. Furthermore, the same CRS was used in the Malmquist model to measure productivity changes. The choice of the model is based on the assumption that both public and private hospitals have more control over their inputs than outputs. As a result, they can minimize their inputs and still maintain the same level of output. Also, a Malmquist TFP index may not correctly measure total factor productivity changes when variable return to scale (VRS) methodology is used. In order to measure effectively technical changes and technological changes Grifell – Tatje and Lowell, (1995) suggests that the CRS be implemented to estimate distance functions. Otherwise, the resulting measures may not properly reflect the TFP gains or losses resulting from scale effects.

Methodology

In the economics literature, there are two broad categories of analytic approaches to estimate the cost or production frontiers and associated efficiencies: parametric and non-parametric methods. The former uses econometric approaches to estimate the functional forms and the latter uses observed data to estimate the frontier without placing conditions on the functional form. The Stochastic Frontier Analysis (SFA) and DEA are the most prominent forms of the parametric and non-parametric approaches, respectively. In this study, we are adopting the DEA approach to address the research objectives and also provide comparative basis for studies utilizing alternative approaches. On this basis, two different models were estimated to achieve the objectives. The first being the DEA model with the inclusion of the input prices, the second was based on the DEA Malmquist productivity index (MPI) to measure the pattern of productivity growth of the hospitals.

Model I

In order to achieve the second objective of the paper, the DEA model by Coeli, Prasada, Rao and George (2005) was employed. Here, the input prices were used and the model is specified as

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{Min}_{\lambda, x_{it}^*} w_{it}' x_{it}^* \\
 & \text{Subject to:} \\
 & -y_{it} + Y\lambda \geq 0 \\
 & x_{it}^* - X\lambda \geq 0 \\
 & N1' \lambda_i = 1 \\
 & \lambda_i \geq 0
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.1}$$

Where:

w_{it} is a vector of unit price of inputs (unit cost of equipment, unit cost of drugs and unit cost of operating expenses) utilized by hospital i in time t . x_{it}^* (which is calculated by the Linear Programming) is the cost minimization vector of input quantities for the i -th hospital in period t , given the input price w_{it} and the output level y_{it} . y_{it} is the amount of output (revenue) generated by hospital i in period t . $N1$ is an $N \times 1$ vector of 1 and λ_i is a dual variable. The total cost efficiency (CE) or economic efficiency (EE) of the i -th hospital in period t is measured by the ratio of minimum cost to observed cost is calculated thus

$$CE = \frac{w_{it}' x_{it}^*}{w_{it}' x_{it}} \tag{3.2}$$

A hospital is said to have realized allocative efficiency if it is operating with the optimal combination of inputs, given their respective prices. When a hospital has $\theta = 1$, then the hospital is at a point on production frontier. It is relatively overall efficient to other hospitals and as such properly using their inputs resources to produce output and choosing the correct mix of inputs given the input prices in the comparative DMU. But for < 1 implies that the hospital is relatively inefficient and as such not properly using their inputs resources to produce output and choosing the correct mix of inputs given the input prices. The amount by which the score of the inefficient hospital differs from 1 indicates the extent the hospital could reduce inputs without reducing its output. The allocative efficiency is calculated residually by using the following relationship between cost efficiency (CE) and technical efficiency (TE) as:

$$AE = CE/TE \tag{3.3}$$

When a hospital has $\theta = 1$, then the hospital is at a point on production frontier. It is allocatively efficient to other hospitals and as such properly choosing the correct mix of inputs given the input prices in the comparative group. But for $\theta < 1$ implies that the hospital is allocatively inefficient.

Model II

To determine the productivity growth pattern arising from the technical efficiency change and technological change, the Malmquist productivity index was employed in order to determine the growth pattern of the hospitals. In line with Fare, Grosskopf, Lindgren and Bjorn (1957), the Malmquist index which measures the total efficiency change of production unit between successive periods t and $t+1$ is specified as:

$$M_{ic}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1}, x_t, y_t) = \left[\frac{\theta_i^t(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})} \times \frac{\theta_i^t(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_t, y_t)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (3.4)$$

Where the notation D represents the distance function and the value of M is the Malmquist productivity index. The first index relates the input - output combinations observed in the two time periods (t and $t + 1$) to the period t technology frontier, and the second index relates the same input - output combinations to the period ($t + 1$) technology frontier. The terms in the numerator are the inputs used and outputs generated by firms in period $t + 1$, and those in the denominator represent the corresponding quantities observed for period t . Following Fare, Grosskopf, Lindgren and Jean-Pierre (1957), manipulation of the Malmquist index makes it possible to distinguish between efficiency changes and productivity changes and is specified as

$$m_{ic}(x_t, y_t, x_{t+1}, y_{t+1}) = \frac{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^t(x_t, y_t)} \left[\frac{\theta_i^t(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})} \times \frac{\theta_i^t(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_t, y_t)} \right]^{1/2} \quad (3.5)$$

Where: $\frac{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^t(x_t, y_t)}$ is the technical efficiency change which refers to the change in the relative efficiency of a hospital in relation to other hospitals (i.e. due to the production possibility frontier) between time periods t and $t+1$.

$\left[\frac{\theta_i^t(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})} \times \frac{\theta_i^t(x_{t+1}, y_{t+1})}{\theta_i^{t+1}(x_t, y_t)} \right]$ is the technical change or the change in technology efficiency which describes

the change in the production possibility frontier as a result of the technology development between time periods t and $t+1$. $M_{ic}(y_t, x_t, y_{t+1}, x_{t+1})$

can attain a value greater than, equal to, or less than one depending on whether a hospital in question is experiencing productivity growth, stagnation, or productivity decline. A value greater than one signaled progression in productivity growth, value less than one signaled deterioration while a value of one indicate that the hospital is stagnant.

Input and Output Data

The data used for this study are the number of Doctors, number of Nurses, number of hospital beds, unit operating cost of hospitals, unit cost of equipment and unit cost of drugs as indicator of accumulated capital; these variables were used as input variables. The output variables were the inpatient, outpatient, deliveries and revenue generated by each hospital sampled. The data for the research were obtained for the period 2008 to 2017. Information required for the analysis were extracted from all the hospitals both private and public through the use of a well-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was open ended type so as to ensure that information received is meaningful for generalization.

Results and Discussion

Presentation of the DEA Efficiency Results.

Table 1: Technical Efficiency (TE), Allocative Efficiency (AE) and Cost Efficiency (CE) of Public and Private Hospitals

Years	Private TE	Public TE	Private AE	Public AE	Private CE	Public CE
2008	0.883	0.925	0.428	0.921	0.383	0.851
2009	0.917	0.899	0.825	0.935	0.755	0.841
2010	0.920	0.904	0.841	0.866	0.770	0.784
2011	0.894	0.894	0.832	0.683	0.739	0.790
2012	0.935	0.912	0.880	0.834	0.822	0.763
2013	0.898	0.875	0.495	0.967	0.450	0.845
2014	0.223	0.744	0.813	0.948	0.195	0.701
2015	0.935	0.911	0.891	0.853	0.831	0.777
2016	0.947	0.870	0.908	0.924	0.859	0.803
2017	0.935	0.965	0.924	0.924	0.881	0.891
Total	8.487	8.899	8.287	8.855	7.135	8.046
Mean	0.848	0.899	0.829	0.886	0.714	0.805
Percentage	84.8%	89.9%	82.9%	88.6%	71.4%	80.5%

Source: Author's computation, 2019.

NOTE: TE mean Technical Efficiency, AE mean Allocative Efficiency and CE mean Cost Efficiency

Table 1 displayed the trend of technical, allocative and cost efficiency for both the public and private hospitals in terms of their percentage performance in Lagos State. However, the behavior of efficiency outcome in the State cannot be explained away from the recourse to history which involves finance, policy and political issues. For instance, in 2008 Lagos State public hospitals, cost efficiency was very low due to technical, allocative efficiency. This period was due to structural changes in the economy and as a result there were policy redirection in terms of accountability and proper monitoring in the allocation and expenditure of the government reduces leading to low employment of the health workers. Between 2007 and 2011, the technical efficiency of the hospitals was high, indicating that for those periods there were enough resources in terms of equipment, hospitals beds, drugs and so on in the various hospitals but no available health workers in the right proportion to make use of the resources leading to waste of

most resources in the public hospitals. In 2013, there was a fall in technical, allocative and cost efficiency in the public hospitals, the poor performances of the public hospitals in these periods were not surprising since the period was blurred with the Tinubu and Obasanjo crisis that led the State to use their internally generated revenue (IGR) to run the affairs of the State which affected the hospitals as a result of no federal government allocation which reduces their finance and hence led to cost inefficiency of the hospitals.

The improvement in the period of 2015 to 2017 showed a period of change in government and policies this was the regime of Goodluck Jonathan in which more money was allocated to the health sector which led the States to improve in their efficiency performance in form of available equipment, drugs, hospital beds and so on with regular employment of health workers that led to more revenue in the State and reduction in strike by the health personnel. This period brings efficiency in the health sector. Looking at the trend of the private hospitals, during 2007 to 2008, the technical, allocative and cost efficiency were higher than that of the public hospitals. The private hospitals thrived in Lagos State during these periods since the government were not really settled as a result of changes in policies and poor allocation to the public-sector health finance. The private sector took the advantage of the transition as most patient tends to visit the private hospitals more than the public hospitals. Majorly because they have medical personnel that are ready to provide treatments to them since the public hospitals were not functioning efficiently.

In general, technical efficiency of the hospitals were higher in the public hospitals from 2015 to 2017 while for private hospitals the allocative efficiency was higher in 2015 and 2016 but in 2017, the technical efficiency outplayed the allocative and cost efficiency. This shows that both in the public and private hospitals, there were more input in the hospitals but were not utilized efficiently.

The summary of the mean for the technical, allocative and cost efficiency indicate that the public hospital has relative efficiency than the private hospitals due to technical, allocative and cost efficiency with value of 0.899, 0.886 and 0.805 while private hospitals were 0.848, 0.829 and 0.714 respectively. However, for the different years, the table shows that in terms of allocative and cost efficiency, both public and private hospitals also displayed inconsistency. For some periods, the public hospitals were efficient than the private hospitals while the private were more efficient than the public in other instances.

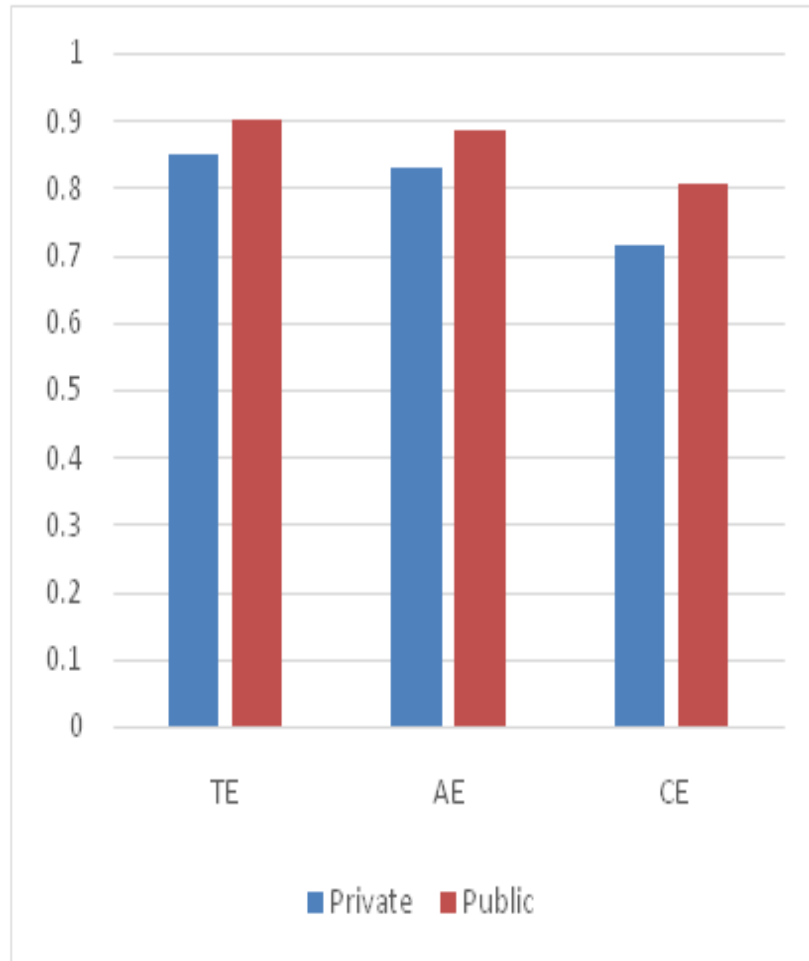


Figure1: Technical Efficiency (TE), Allocative Efficiency (AE) and Cost Efficiency (CE) of public and private hospitals in Oyo State.

Figure 1 above displayed the bar chart for both the public and private hospitals in Lagos State. The chart shows that for the three efficiency measurements, the public hospitals are higher than the private hospitals. The reported allocative efficiency scores of the hospitals generally indicate that the hospitals are not utilizing the perfect mix of their inputs given the input prices to commensurate with their output, meaning they are not annexing maximal output from their quantum of inputs given the input

prices. In other words, allocative efficiency of the hospitals can be increased by better use of available production resources (equipment, drugs and operating expenses) given the current state of technology. However, based on the results, the public hospitals are allocatively efficient than the private hospitals if monetary inputs are used in generating monetary outputs. Although, for the whole periods, both the public and private hospitals were not cost efficient as their efficiency score level lies below 1.000 but the public hospitals are a bit preferable in terms of cost.

Table 2: Technical Efficiency Change, Technological Change and Total Factor Productivity Change of Public Hospitals in Lagos State

Year	Δ EFF	Δ TECH	Δ TFP	Dec Δ EFF	Dec. Δ EFF	Dec. Δ TFP
2008/2009	0.601	0.785	0.471	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2009/2010	0.814	0.697	0.567	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2010/2011	0.778	1.003	0.780	Deteriorating	Progressing	Deteriorating
2011/2012	1.001	0.763	0.763	Progressing	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2012/2013	0.754	0.790	0.596	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2013/2014	0.865	0.830	0.718	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2014/2015	0.908	1.233	1.120	Deteriorating	Progressing	Progressing
2015/2016	1.099	0.413	0.454	Progressing	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2016/2017	0.964	0.738	0.711	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
Mean	0.973	0.907	0.773	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating

Source: Author's computation, 2019.

Note: Δ EFF mean Technical Efficiency Change, Δ TECH Technological Change and Δ TFP mean Total Factor Productivity Change

Table 2 above shows that productivity growth displayed inconsistency for the period under study. For some years in the Lagos State public hospitals, the hospitals were progressing (2011/2012 and 2015/2016); (2010/2011 and 2014/2015); (2014/2015) in terms of technical efficiency change, technological efficiency change and total factor productivity change. However, for the rest periods, the hospitals were deteriorating based on the pattern of the technical efficiency change and technological change in the hospitals which is driving the total factor productivity of the hospitals for the years.

Table 3: Technical Efficiency Change, Technological Change and Total Factor Productivity Change of Private Hospitals in Lagos State

Year	Δ EFF	Δ TECH	Δ TFP	Decision Δ EFF	Decision. Δ TECH	Decision. Δ TFP
2008/2009	0.733	0.654	0.479	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2009/2010	0.654	1.180	0.772	Deteriorating	Progressing	Deteriorating
2010/2011	0.834	0.767	0.640	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2011/2012	1.088	0.654	0.711	Progressing	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2012/2013	0.876	1.684	1.475	Deteriorating	Progressing	Progressing
2013/2014	1.023	0.842	0.861	Progressing	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2014/2015	0.852	0.742	0.632	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating
2015/2016	1.114	0.924	1.029	Progressing	Deteriorating	Progressing
2016/2017	0.897	0.931	0.825	Deteriorating	Deteriorating	Deteriorating

Source: Authors computation, 2019.

For the private hospitals also, the productivity growth displayed inconsistency with technical efficiency change progressing in 2011/2012, 2013/2014 and 2015/2016 with their values greater than 1 in those periods and deteriorating in the other periods. For Δ TECH it progressed in 2009/2010, and 2012/2013 and deteriorated in the other years while for Total factor productivity (Δ TFP) (the product of technical efficiency changes and technological change) behaved prototype with technical efficiency change and technological change for both public and private hospitals, but are generally deteriorating with productivity scores of 1.475 and 1.029 in 2012/2013 and 2015/2016.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The objective of this study was to compare public and private hospitals in terms of their relative efficiency and their pattern of productivity growth over the years with the sole aim of providing policy direction towards improving the health outcomes of the Nigerian population. To achieve this, the technical, allocative and cost efficiency as well as the productivity pattern were examined among the selected hospitals in the State. Using DEA and MPI, on the data collected, it was found that the efficiency parameters considered generally displayed inconsistency by all the hospitals. This is

because, where the private is more technically, allocatively and cost efficient in some years, the public does not and some periods were the public were also efficient, the private do not and as such there is no dominance but rather a mixed performance between the private and public hospitals in Lagos State and likely in Nigeria. Efficiency differences of various hospital types therefore can be leveraged to guide future reforms by emphasizing the strengths of general hospitals and improving the referral system from county hospitals to general hospitals. Encouraging resource sharing across hospitals, as being done by the 2011 reforms, should further improve hospital efficiency. Government should reduce the health budget gap so as to bring the public hospitals into healthy competition with their foreign counterpart in order to reduce medical tourism and invariably reduce capital flight from Nigeria. Also, for private hospitals with inefficiency related to allocation and cost, government may need to intervene in the spatial location to warrant fair distribution of the facilities. This will reduce unnecessary competition among them and improve proper utilization of available resources.

Limitation of the Study

The current study contributes to the empirical literature on the service delivery of public and private hospitals in Nigeria. However, it is imperative that the limitations of this study be identified within the framework of the study and future studies can expand on these. Hospitals data are not like other parastatals which can be seen from different source; hence one limitation of the study was easy access to data from the hospitals selected. In addition, the time consumed for completion of the questionnaire for both the public and private hospitals delay the easy completion of the analysis of the study due to their different locations and the traffic in the State.

Guides for Future Study

This study assesses the service delivery for both private and public hospitals in Lagos State, Nigeria. However, there are several theoretical, methodological and empirical issues that may be investigated for further discussion and closer examination. For example, among the four principal objectives of health system which include effectiveness, efficiency, equity and quality, only one of the objectives was examined. Further research can look into equity, effectiveness and quality. Also, there are two major methodologies used in examining service delivery of hospitals. These are the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) and the Stochastic Frontier Analysis (SFA). This study employed the DEA techniques. Further studies may make

use of the SFA. Finally, the study only focused on Lagos State which is one of the Southwest States. Further studies may look at other South west States.

Ethical Consideration

The researcher obtained ethical approval from the ethical committee of the Lagos State Hospital Management Board. This committee is recognized as the regional ethical review board and its approval was acceptable by the private and public hospitals where this study was conducted. Permission to administer the questionnaires was also sought from the heads of department/units in the public hospital and the medical directors of the private hospitals. All information collected were treated confidentially (i.e., no name or initials were recorded, instead identification numbers recognizable by only the researchers).

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Impact of Adult and Non-Formal Education Programmes on Economic Empowerment of Rural Women in Jigawa State, Nigeria from 2010 – 2015

Balarabe Abubakar
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Abstract

This study endeavored to determine the impact of Adult and Non-formal education programmes on economic empowerment of Women in Jigawa state, from 2010 -2015. The objectives of the study are three (3), to examine the types of literacy programmes for rural women economic empowerment in Jigawa state; to identify the vocational programmes given to rural women for economic empowerment activities in Jigawa state; and lastly to identify the challenges facing Adult and Non-formal Education programmes for rural women economic empowerment activities in Jigawa state. The research questions are in line with the stated objectives. Ex-post facto design was adopted for the study, the population of the study comprises of all rural women who participated in Adult and Non-formal Education programmes in Jigawa state from 2010–2015, amounting to 3650, and a sample of 346 was selected using simple random sampling and snow balling techniques respectively. Questionnaire and interview were used for data collection and frequency count and percentage was used for data analysis. The findings indicated that; the literacy programmes includes Basic-literacy, Post-literacy and Continuing Education programmes respectively; the vocational skills includes soap making, pomade making, air freshener and tailoring; the challenges includes problems of enough working material, poor supervision, and lack of package after completion the programmes. Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that: the Jigawa State Agency for Mass Education should provide

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additional centers to accommodate a large number of rural women needed for the programmes; the vocational education programmes should be geared towards societal needs, and; the Jigawa State Government should include a training package on the completion of the programmes for sustainable economic empowerment.

Background to the Study

Nigeria is one of the developing countries of the world located within the tropical region. It has few urban sprang which most of them come as a result of colonial administration whereas others were created by indigenous administrations. (Masha 1994) These urban communities are privileged to modern infrastructural facilities such as pipe-borne water, good road network, electricity, information and communication networks, and modern health-care services among others. It is worthy to note that majority of Nigerians are dwelling in rural communities where there is dearth of facilities that give minimum comfort for living. This is the true picture of most African communities, which Nigeria is not an exception. The rural communities are characterized with peasant agricultural activities, high level illiteracy, poverty, ignorance and less income generation activities that retard and reject modern development. There is the need to articulate programmes that will give them a lease of life. This will enhance economic well-being and reduce the tendency of rural-urban drift. Hence, adult education programmes need to be organized in an integrated manner to change rural life for better.

The importance of education to national development cannot be over-emphasized. Education, either formal or non-formal is seen as instrument of empowerment. Researches have given a close link between education and development. For instance, UNESCO (2003) sees education as paramount tools for individuals and national development, while Igbuzor (2006) asserts that it is a key index of all development. In the same vein, the National Policy on Women (2000) states that women's educational status in any nation correlates with the nation's development. In this regard, education is seen as the most significant instrument for changing women subjugated positions in the society and at the same time qualifies them to fulfill certain economic, political, and cultural functions. On this note, the universal declaration on human rights to which Nigeria is a signatory, listed among other things, the right to education as one of the fundamental rights to all citizens. This was in line with the declaration in Jomtein, Thailand in 1990, and re-affirmed in Dakar Senegal in 2000, that educational opportunities should be extended to all without exception by 2015 (FGN, 2004). To this effect, a number of efforts have been made to extend

educational opportunities to rural women in Jigawa State. For instance, State governments initiated Adult and Non-formal education programmes to improve women educational status through the efforts of National Commission for Women Affairs, Ministry of Women Affairs, Women Education Centers and State Agencies for Mass Education. In spite of these developments, women and girls particularly in the rural areas have been neglected either through omission or commission and relegated to the background in the provision of qualitative education (Omiunu and Omoruyi, 2008). This study therefore examines the impact of Adult and Non-Formal Education for rural women economic empowerment in Jigawa State from 2010 – 2015.

Statement of the Problem

Adult education is seen by many developing countries as an instrument for the promotion of the people's status politically, economically and socially. It therefore deserves as much attention as the formal system of education. Adult Education centers were organised to run a literacy programmes for development of rural women in the area of literacy and economic empowerment. It is no longer in doubt that women constitute the majority of adult illiterates in the world especially those in rural areas. The EFA Global Monitoring Report (2006) states that, there are 771 million adult illiterates in the world today and two-third of them are women in rural areas. The reports also pointed out that the vast majority of these illiterates are concentrated in the developing countries. In Nigeria, the population of women was given at 68,293,633 million and that majority of them are illiterates (NPC, 2006). This fact was further established by EFA Global Monitoring Report (2008), which confirms that more than 22 million people in Nigeria are illiterates and 65% of them are women. The observed factors for this high level of illiteracy among women have been attributed to; cultural practices, religion, economy, early marriage, poverty and general unfavorable attitude expressed towards the education of women and girls in the country (Masha, 1994). These and many other factors have led to continual deprivations and limitations in their abilities to participate in economic and political development. Moreover, despite the substantial efforts made to guarantee the right of education to all, Studies have shown that excessive illiteracy rates still persist among the rural women. Wagner (1995) described that rural residents have lower literacy levels than urban residents. Also economic developments among the rural women are very low and affect the economy of the State and nation at large. Based on that, the study is to examine the impact of Adult and Non-Formal Education

programmes among rural women for economic empowerment in Jigawa State from 2010-2015.

Research Objectives

The following research objectives would guide the study:

1. To examine the types of literacy programmes for rural women economic empowerment in Jigawa state;
2. To identify the vocational programmes given to rural women for economic empowerment activities in Jigawa state;
3. To identify the challenges facing Adult and Non-Formal education programmes for rural women economic empowerment activities in Jigawa state.

Review of Related Literature

Concept of Adult and Non-formal Education

Adult education is a very broad term which has been subjected to so many definitions and interpretations. Houle (1964) defines it as a process by which men or women either alone or in groups attempt to improve themselves by bringing about changes in their understanding, skills or sensitivities. In a more elaborate way, Liveright and Haygood (1969), said that Adult Education is a process whereby persons who no longer attend formal school on a regular and full-time basis undertake sequential and organized activities with conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding, skill, appreciation and attitudes for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems. More expressively Greenough (1972) sees Adult Education as a process whereby persons who no longer attend school on a regular of full-time basis can pursue organized studies or to develop their knowledge and skills and so become equipped to perform roles in their societies in more or less creative or critical fashion so that they can be of greater use to themselves, their families and to the community. Briefly, Adult Education is the process whereby adults engage in systematic and sustained learning activities in order to gain new forms of knowledge, skills, attitudes or values.

In Nigeria, the scope of adult education can vividly be seen in the educational blueprint of the nation. The National Policy on Education (2004) section 6 contains the scope and objectives of adult and non-formal education. These items are divided into four areas as follows:

1. Literacy education
2. Remedial education

3. Vocational education
4. Aesthetic, cultural and civic education.

By its nature, Adult Education covers a wide range of issues. It often focuses on all activities of adults aimed at self-awareness, wider process of life-long education, and general, vocational, professional, civic, cultural as well as recreational education of all adult stages. The span of Adult Education extend to all part-time activities, industrial training, professional refresher courses, informal and ad-hoc workshops and conferences. It entails a lot of learning by doing as is very much found in informal education. Adult Education is better understood as a rich field of study, a practical activity full of varied experiences. Hence, a better understanding of Adult Education is that which knot together, each level strengthening the order and each connected to the other to make a meaningful whole.

Brockett, (2007) emphasized on the types of literacy programmes given to Adult and Women which includes Basic literacy, Post-literacy, Continuing education, Remedial Education and Religious education programmes, all to improved the economic, social ,educational status of the participant. Presently, many adult men and women are uneducated and therefore, lack the requisite knowledge, skills and the right attitudes for a functional career in agriculture, technology and other vocational areas to enable them function effectively in a democratic society. This is due to the inability of the formal education system to provide these adults with the training they require. The formal education system in our country bewildered with multitude of problems that make it inaccessible to some categories of individuals as a result of many issues especially rural women.

Nevertheless, a good number of development partners are supporting the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and Non-formal Education (NMEC) in extending basic literacy learning opportunities to young people and adults through the Revitalizing Adult and Youth Literacy in Nigeria project (RAYL). Such partners include UNESCO, institute for Life-long Learning (ILL) United Nations Organization (UN) etc. Additionally, their support is to help build the capacities of Nigerian Adult and women to become economically functional to themselves and community.

Types of Non-Formal Education Programmes

Vocational Education Programmes

Vocational skills training is a part that become an indispensable tool for changing people's attitudes and belief so that they can have the capacity to assess and address their problems. Vocational skill training is all encompassing,

very central and expedient for the acquisition of skills, abilities, values, attitudes and competencies essential for purposes of employment, job improvement as well as poverty reduction. It is expedient for rural women to acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and experiences they require to perform effectively their economic and political roles. For this reason, establishment of more vocational skills centers in rural areas to aid rural transformation, with a view of stemming rural urban migration should be the motive of the government. These centers should also be well planned and coordinated well to discourage illiteracy. Vocational skills must be inclusive and integrative for all, most especially for women and the girl's-child beyond the basic nine-year compulsory education scheme. Apart from this, in order to enhance women's contributions to national development, there is need for them to have access to available educational programmes in formal/Non-formal education system. This will impact the necessary skills and training that will reduce their fatigue and also enhance their further participation in other non-formal education programmes. Ocho, (2005) stated that crafts and skills that can be imparted on women in the rural communities include: clothe weaving, tie and dye, farming, hair dressing, dress making, soap making, fashion design etc. This system is functional and skill oriented in nature. The reason why the girl child dropped out of formal schooling is because of the technical aspect of the education and the rigidity of the curriculum. Therefore, for women particularly in the rural areas to be relevant in the society, the government should try to harness vocational skill training: such as clothe weaving, tie and dye, farming, hair dressing, soap making, fashion design etc., in their programmes at all levels of education. Not this alone, women most especially in the rural communities need to be motivated and mobilized to understand the aims of formal and non-formal education, and the opportunities available through these programmes for their individual growth and the welfare of the society. More importantly, vocational skills training programme should be taken to where the target group (rural communities) resides, either in their communities, homes and in various religious centers. With the help of media and proper mobilization, it will help to change their attitudes, beliefs and orientations. Furthermore, provision of an unhindered access to education for all requires huge sum of money. And more so, the reason why most people drop out of school is because they cannot afford the cost of education or the needed tools needed for study. This, by implication means that the programme must be adequately funded. The process of funding could be done in partnership with Federal Government, State, Local government as well as all other non-governmental organizations for

efficiency and productivity. Also, experts in various skills should be invited to train the learners on various skills. Workshops and training programmes should also be provided for them to enhance the necessary instructional techniques. This would serve as a tool for empowering rural women through vocational skills education for economic empowerment in the community and nation at large.

Challenges Facing Adult and Non-formal Education Programmes

Eya, (2006) stated that in Nigeria there are numerous challenges facing Adult and Non-formal Education programmes those includes:

Social norms: Some household decision makers have negative attitudes towards educating girls and gives lower priority to girls' education, especially if women's remuneration is lower than men's and employment opportunities are scarce. In addition, girls are seen as relatively "transitory assets", not worthy of long-term investment, as they often leave their parents' household upon marriage. As families tend to rely significantly on girls to help with household chores, such as cooking, cleaning and caring for younger siblings, there are also higher opportunity costs for girls' education in most cultures of safe and accessible boarding, and sanitary facilities in schools/training institutions, as well as lack of female teachers and trainers, are factors which can greatly impede female education and training in rural areas.

High cost for Programmes: Vocational education programmes needs training fees and that fees should be very low and affordable to the participant, this can serve as encouragement to the participant in order to join the programmes and sometimes little allowance should be given to them to encourage participation in the programmes

Unsuitable attitudes among trainers: Trainers and educators sometimes have discriminatory attitudes towards girls and women who often fear insults, sexual harassment and insecurity in attending schools and training institutions. These become necessary for the organizers to provide decent and qualified trainers in the programmes who will become very friendly and ordeal to the participants.

Lack of enough working materials: This is another problem facing Adult and Non-formal education in Nigeria, due to lack of adequate and enough working material in the study centers, this means facilitators are working with little or no working materials which can lead to half beak teaching in the learning centers.

Poor Supervision: Supervision is one of the cardinal objectives of Adult and Non-formal education in which the participants needs to be supervised for the purpose of effective and utilization of knowledge and skills learn, regular supervision leads to full actualization of the skills.

Lack of package after completion: This is another process of maintaining Adult and Non-formal Education programmes up-to-dates in which given a package to participant after completion of the programmes in order to take over for the skills.

Methodology

The study employed Ex-post facto design, the population of the study comprises of all rural women who participated in Adult and Non-Formal Education programmes in Jigawa state from 2010 – 2015, amounting to 3650 from 27 LGA, and a sample of 346 was selected using proportionate sampling and snow balling techniques respectively. The study adopted the use of two research instruments developed by the researcher named questionnaire for rural women economic empowerment (QRWEE) and Interview schedule. All were subjected to validity and reliability testing for which the instruments were valid due to observations made by expert and all the observations were effected and the instrument became strength, the reliability index of 0.67 was recorded for (QRWEE), and frequency count and percentage was used for data analysis.

Findings of the Study:

Research Question one: What are the types of literacy programmes for rural women economic empowerment in Jigawa State?

Data obtained was analysed using frequency count and percentages, the results were presented in

Table 1.1

Literacy Programmes for Rural Women

S/N	Variables	Frequency	Percentages
1	Basic-literacy	147	42
2	Post-literacy	85	25
3	Continuing Education	25	7
4	Remedial Education	35	10
5	Religious Education	54	16
	Total	346	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Table 1.1 indicates the literacy programmes for the rural women. The variable includes; Basic literacy, Post-literacy, Continuing education, Remedial Education, and Religious education. The results indicate that respondents that indicates Basic literacy are (147 or 42%) which ranked first, post-literacy have (85 or 25%) which is second, and continuing education have (25 or 7%) which is last, while Remedial education have (35 or 10%) which is fourth rank and Religious education have (54 or 16%) which is the third best literacy programmes.

Research Question Two: What are the Vocational Skills Programmes given to rural women for economic empowerment in Jigawa State?

Data obtained was analysed using frequency count and percentages, the results were presented in

Table 1.2
Vocational skills Programmes

S/N	Variables	Frequency	Percentages
1	Clothe weaving	84	24
2	Tie and dye	57	16
3	Hair dressing	49	14
4	Farming	124	36
5	Fashion design	12	4
6	Soap making	20	6
	Total	346	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Table 1.2 indicates the Vocational skills programmes for the rural women. The variable includes; cloth weaving, tie and dye, hair dressing, farming, fashion design, and soap making. The results indicate that respondent that show cloth weaving are (84 or 24%) which is the second best, while those that indicates Tie and Dye are (57 or 16%) which is the third best, and those that indicates hair dressing are (49 or 14%) which is fourth rank, and with regards to faming respondent that indicates are (124 or 36%) which is the best, and those that indicates fashion design are (12 or 4%) which rank sixth and last vocational skills, while (20 or 6%) of the respondent indicates soap making respectively.

Research Question three: What are the challenges facing adult and Non-formal Education programmes for rural women economic empowerment in Jigawa State?

Data obtained was analysed using frequency count and percentages, the results were presented in

Table 1.3
Challenges facing Adult and Non-formal Education Programmes

S/N	Variables	Frequency	Percentages
1	Lack of enough working materials	201	58
2	Poor supervision	65	19
3	Lack of package after completion	30	8
4	Social norms	35	10
5	Unsuitable attitudes among trainers	15	5
	Total	346	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2017.

Table 1.3 indicates the challenges facing Adult education programmes for the rural women. The variable includes; Lack of enough working materials, poor supervision, lacks of package after completion, social norms and unsuitable attitudes among trainers. The results indicate that respondent that indicates lack of enough working materials are (201 or 58%) which is best problem, while those that indicates poor supervision are (65 or 19%) which is the second best and those that indicates lack of package after completion are (30 or 8%) which ranked fourth, then those that indicates social norms are (35 or 10) which is the third best and finally those that indicates unsuitable attitudes among trainers are (15 or 5%) respectively.

Discussion of Findings

Based from the findings in table 1.1, the literacy programmes taught for rural women includes: Basic-literacy, Post-literacy, Continuing Education and religious education programmes as in line with Brockett, (2007) emphasized on the types of literacy programmes given to Adult and Women which includes Basic literacy, Post-literacy, Continuing education, Remedial Education and Religious education programmes, all to improved the economic, social, educational status of the participant. Also from the interview respondent indicates that the programmes are Basic literacy, Post-literacy, and continuing Education.

Based from the findings in table 1.2 the vocational skills programmes given to rural women for economic empowerment are cloth weaving, tie

and dye, farming, hair dressing, soap making, and fashion design this is in line with Ocho, (2005) stated that crafts and skills that can be imparted on women in the rural communities include: cloth weaving, tie and dye, farming, hair dressing, dress making, soap making, fashion design etc. This system is functional and skill oriented in nature, which can improve the economic status of women. From the interview the respondent indicates that vocational skills were train at the center in order to empower rural women which includes soap making, tye and die, hair dressing, fashion dressing etc.

Based from the findings in table 1.3 the challenges facing Adult and Non-formal education programmes for rural women includes lack of enough working material, poor supervision, and lack of package after completion the programmes this is in line with Eya, (2006) stated that in Nigeria there are numerous challenges facing Adult and Non-formal Education programmes those includes: Lack of enough working materials, Poor supervision, Lack of package after completion, Social norms and Unsuitable attitudes among trainers. Respondent from interview indicates that problem facing Adult and Non-formal Education are numerous which includes lack of supervision, payment of allowances regularly, lack of capital after completion.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that Adult and Non-formal education programmes play an important roles in empowering the rural women in Jigawa State especially From 2010 – 2015, when the State Government have political will and interest for the rural women, in which they introduced literacy education such as basic, post, continuing, and religious education on one hand and vocational education programmes such as cloth weaving, Tie and Dye, Farming, Hair dressing, Soap making and Fashion design with hope of empowering economic status of rural women in Jigawa State.

Recommendations

Based on the finding of the study, it is recommended that:

- The Jigawa State Agency for Mass Education should provide additional centers to accommodate a large number of rural women needed for the programmes;
- The vocational education programmes should be geared towards societal needs, and;
- The Jigawa State Government should include a training package on

the completion of the programmes for sustainable economic empowerment.

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Economic Empowerment among African Women and the Eradication of Poverty

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Abstract

Economic empowerment among women and poverty reduction has been of great concern to global economies most especially in African nations, Nigeria inclusive. Majority of the world's poor are women and attempt to reduce poverty will only be futile if women are not economically empowered. It is best understood when one logically consider and analyze the Arab saying that: "if woman had not been created there wouldn't have been sun and moon, no agriculture and no fire". African women are regarded as hewers of wood and drawers of water with the nature of their place and participation in development issues in African societies. Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development, (eradication of poverty) and pro-poor growth. To this end this paper examines factors militating against women participation and measures to achieving women's economic empowerment which requires sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment and gender-specific perspectives which must be integrated at the design stage of policy and programming. The paper recommends that women should have equal access to assets and services; infrastructure programmes should be designed considering the poor, both men and women, and equality in employment opportunities in recognition of women's vast unpaid work. This will not only increase specialization but also utilize the mass population which is lying idle in our societies to naturally diversify the economy.

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Introduction

Economic empowerment among women and poverty reduction has been one of the most discussed topics in this contemporary era, due to the circumstances surrounding women's participation in the development of any given society. Majority of the world's poor are women and attempt to reduce poverty and revamp economy will only be futile if women are not economically empowered. It is best understood when one logically consider and analyze the Arab saying that: "if woman had not been created there wouldn't have been sun and moon, no agriculture and no fire". African women are regarded as hewers of wood and drawers of water with the nature of their place and participation in development issues in African societies. Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development, and eradication of poverty and pro-poor growth. To this end this paper examines factors militating against women's participation and measures to achieving women's economic empowerment which requires sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment and gender-specific perspectives which must be integrated at the design stage of policy and programming.

In an attempt to make a holistic research, there is need to conceptualize poverty as economic and social elements: a state of being inferior in quality or insufficient in amount and also a condition where people's needs for food, clothing and shelter are not being met.¹

The conceptualization of this keyword (poverty) leads us to a need to understand "economic empowerment". Generally, economic empowerment is the capacity of women and men to participate in contributing to, and benefit from growth processes in ways that recognize the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth.

Economic empowerment is the empowerment approach that focuses on mobilizing the self – help efforts of the poor, rather than providing them with local welfare. It is also the empowerment of previously disadvantaged sections of population.²

Economic empowerment, centered on the groups of people that are powerless; people who have had very little control of their economic destinies and have been largely spurned by other groups. Economic empowerment includes efforts to improve the wellbeing of the people that are economically powerless towards self sufficiency. This may include a provision of loans or "microcredit" to this set of people in order for them to open their own businesses or improving their occupation. It can also involve providing

training for this set of people so that they can be informed of a need to improve their economic status.

Economic Empowerment among African Women and the Eradication of Poverty

On taken the research question again: Do economic empowerment among African women necessarily eradicate poverty”? The question can only be answered when we look at the need for the empowerment. Below are some of the analyses on the need to empower women for eradication of poverty:

- Higher female earnings and bargaining power translate into greater investment in children’s education, health and nutrition, which leads to economic growth in the long term. The share of women in waged and salaried work grew from 42% in 1997 to 46% in 2007 in Asia.⁴
- In India, GDP could rise by 8% if the female/male ratio of workers went up by 10%.
- Total agricultural outputs in Africa could increase by up to 20% if women’s access to agricultural inputs was equal to men’s.
- Women-owned businesses comprise up to 38% of all registered small businesses worldwide. The number of women-owned businesses in Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe and Latin America is growing rapidly and, with that growth, come direct impacts on job creation and poverty reduction.⁴

Women are integral part of any given society and in the case of Africa, women population rises above that of their men counterparts just like in many other parts of the world and the opening up of the new human resources (Women) in Africa can contribute greatly to the sustainability and growth of economy and eradicate poverty. If however, African societies had to rely and maintain this nature of occupational segregation (as we have in the political appointment and election) without undergoing basic changes in the organization of production by empowering women it is doubtful that the phenomenon of economic development as we have known it in the developed nations would ever have taken place.⁵

If a society has “unemployed resources”, it may be able to increase both consumption and investment at the same time i.e, by putting their “idle” resources to work. Thus, for example, the United States was able to expand war production rapidly in the early years of World War II without any major production sacrifice of consumption because of the backlog of unemployed labour from the depression of 1920s. Many observers believe

that most underdeveloped countries have unemployed resources which could, if effectively mobilized, be used in this way to eradicate poverty. Research shows that African women operate below the capacity of their potentials, both mentally and economic wise due to lack of empowerment and occupational segregation between them and male counterpart.

Women economic empowerment will lead to increase in specialization by utilizing their population and producing personnel out of competitive approach to aid shortage of labour we have in all sectors of the economy. Smith observed: "The greatest improvement in the productivities power is labour and the greater part of an increased skill. Dexterity, and judgment with which it is any where directed, or applied, seem to have been the effects of the division of labour". To prove his contention, Smith gave an example of a pin factory where many hands are put to work to increase the level of production and ease the pressure on the labour.⁵ going by this analogy, it is needless to say that utilizing the women population will aid the division of labour and specialization as discussed above.

Basically, production is a major means of eradicating poverty, an increase in production means an increase of wealth. When the wealth being produced in a country (GDP) Gross, Domestic Products declines for two or more successive quarters (Six months or more) that country is said to be in recession, but to improve the GDP there is need to utilize the availability of unemployed resources (women) to beat the tussle of recession and guarantee a sustainable development.⁶

With the occupational segregation in Africa (mainly in politics), one will begg to disbelieve the view of Walter Rodney that African economies are integrated into the structure of the developed capitalist economies and they are integrated in a manner that is unfavourable to Africa. It is natural to mention the subject of women population because generally, human beings service as both ends and mean, in all economic activities. The relationship of population growth to economic development is interesting and complex. An increase population means, of course an increasing supply of the basic factor of producing labor. Over the long course of history, until fairly modern times population growth has been the main source of such general expansions of output as the world has enjoyed. And this was because labour assisted by a minimum of tools and working in essentially traditionally ways was unquestionably mankind's greatest productive asset. It is to this end that we should begin to maximize our economic potential through population by empowering women in Africa with reference to Walter Rodney's definition of development: "development at the level of individual implies greater skill"... Empowering women in Africa enables

greater skill and capacity, freedom, responsibility and material well-being, this in turn will increase the GDP (Gross Domestic product) of African countries and set them on a more reliable path of development and attempt eradication of poverty.⁷

Surely, where there are more productive hands it becomes an assurance of the highest order that poverty will be eradicated. The gender occupational segregation in this part of the world (Africa) has in no small way heightened the level of poverty. For example, population growth is associated with high fertility and an increasing number of children relative to adult, both male and female, then the number of consumers will be growing more rapidly than the number of producers if there is no economic empowerment among the African women.

Lack of economic empowerment among African women will make the dependency burden (leaving the financial responsibility) on the active workers of the society heavier and the effect may be negative (Poverty). But if there is a rise in life – expectancy which extends the productive years of the workers of African societies, then the problem of an increase burden of dependency may be at least partially offset. Economic empowerment among African women will beyond doubt expand market and may stimulate the society to high levels of investment in capital goods which will definitely help business activity and increase employment opportunities and jobs. Furthermore, it may provide an outlet for the products of efficient large – scale, mass production and industries. Generally one can say that the integration of African women into the labour force will be a more reliable process of raising living standards, industrialization and technological process.⁹

It requires first of all, the existence of the basic productive agents, or factors, of production as they are commonly called. There must be labour natural resources, and certain tool-implementation, and other capital goods. It also requires that these factors of production be organized into some kind of producing units and there must be a minimum of technological knowledge to direct the societies' productive efforts. Without any one of these elements a country's productive capacity and economy would either vanish or sink to the level of the recession.¹⁰

By the same token, economic growth can be thought of as the process of expansion or improvement of these basic productive elements. A society's economy may grow because of an increase in its supply of factors of production – labour, natural resources, capital goods – or because of improvement in the organization or basic technology of production. It is needless to say that women are been sidelined from the labour market in

Africa prior to colonialism during colonialization and post-colonial period. Odubokun examines the extent of economic empowerment of the Nigerian women based on evidence of their participation in various economic activities and found that the economic powers of Nigerian women systematically and persistently deteriorated particularly since 1986. That unless there is general, global constitutional empowerment of all women and all Nigerians, only few women would inherit the economic empowerment conferred on them. Odubokun further observed that even domestic empowerment in Nigeria is too low because evidence have shown that resources that are of great importance in the life of women for the purpose of meeting their domestic and matrimonial commitments are inadequate and not available in most cases. Domestic facilities are not within the reach of average Nigerian and these problems are subjecting women and children to undue hardship.¹¹

Increasing the role of women in the economy is part of the solution to the financial and economic crises and critical for economic resilience and growth. However, at the same time, we need to be mindful that women are in some contexts bearing the costs of recovering from the crisis, with poor working conditions and increasing precariousness.

Factors Militating against Women Economic Empowerment and Poverty Reduction in African

These are some of the factors that hinder women from accessing economic fortunes and becoming economically empowered. Some of the factors discussed here include: cultural factor, educational factor and financial factor.

Cultural Factor

Customs and traditions of patriarchal societies serve as great deterrent to women empowerment. Harmful cultural practices militate against women economic empowerment. Research shows that in some African societies, for instance among the Igbo in Nigeria where female are denied right to own land property coupled with other cultural and traditional laws that negate women's rights promote violence against women. In such society one may argue that violence against women has been institutionalized.¹² Some societies, inherited traditions that prevents women from inheriting land both from their fathers or husbands thereby limiting their access to collateral and productive opportunities.

According to Ndom *etal*, social stereotype in societies are virtually unavoidable and shared throughout cultures. Societies often innocently create

and perpetuate stereotypes that lead to unfair discrimination and persecution when they are unfavorable. They are seen as dangerous beliefs and threats that can prevent individuals from performing at their ability level in a domain that is important to them. Ndom et-al further asserts that, efforts should consciously be made to reduce these beliefs.¹³

Educational Factor

Illiteracy remains at the center of women empowerment problems in Africa which can be effectively broken by giving women and girls access to quality education. Education is the bedrock for empowerment and the only panacea to women empowerment and gender equality. It is needless to say that, to become genuinely economically empowered and relevant in the society and the world education is the key.¹⁴ Akomolafe in his study concluded that low education coupled with cultural discrimination against women is a constraint to women empowerment. Low literacy level of the rural women denied them access to vital information that can improve their lots economically and transform their rural society.¹⁵

Education increases the chances of employment for women thereby empowering them economically this has become a challenge in Africa. The African patriarchal culture favors the education of males to the detriment of females especially when family resources are limited, this is because of the belief that males propagate and carry on the family name which leads to low level of education for girls and employment in low paid jobs than males. This is evidenced from the fact that the proportion of females decreases as the level of education increases. The Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE, 2008) reports that only 1 girl for every 2 boys makes it to SS and 1 girl for every 3 boys completes secondary education.¹⁶

Other problems identified that affects women education which is the panacea to economic empowerment are issues of early marriage, free mixing of adolescent males and females in schools etc. However, effort is being made to address these problems through encouraging adult literacy training, pre-entry policy for pregnant school girls and teenage mothers as well as separation of males and females in secondary schools.¹⁶

Financial Factor

Finance is the backbone of any economy and can limit the level of economic activities to an individual, society or country. Lack of finance and access to loans militate against women economic empowerment. Access to loans with training are found more effective in addressing many socio-economic problems of women especially in developing countries.¹⁷

In most African countries, employment opportunities and per capita income of women is lower than that of men, which contribute to low economic profile of women. For instance, UNDP statistics show that women form about 70% of labour in the informal sector in Nigeria, most of them in very low yielding enterprise where employment remuneration is not regulated by law and so wages are very low. High interest rate in Nigeria to the poor who are mostly women employed in the informal sector with low capital operation, limits the ability of women from getting financial assistance. Women therefore remain in vicious cycle of low investment, low output, and low profit and therefore, trapped in circles of poverty.

Translating Rural Women's Agricultural work into Economic Empowerment and Poverty Reduction

Governments and the private sector continue to maintain wage disparities in agricultural rates that continue to present greater challenges for women in translating their agriculture-based work into economic empowerment. Moreover, women's increased participation in paid work has not seen a matched increase in men's share of unpaid work within the home. The gender division of unpaid domestic work is remarkably resilient around the world and continues to shape the terms on which women are able to take up paid work. It limits the transformative potential of employment – both in agriculture and elsewhere – for the position of women within the home and in the wider society.¹⁸

Policies and legislation that recognize and translate agricultural labor into decent work and ensure international labor standards and rights (including freedom from sexual harassment and gender-based discrimination) and equal remuneration for rural women as well as men is essential for rural women to fully enjoy the benefits of their labor and take full advantage of economic opportunities. This needs to be supported by rural and other institutions that enable women to transform their agricultural work into economic empowerment through, for example, recognizing and guaranteeing their rights to land and other productive resources and access to services. This means, in part, strengthening institutional resources and capacities to translate policies and legislation into action in rural areas along with investment in the needed infrastructure. Women are constrained in translating their agricultural work into economic empowerment and poverty reduction due to: discriminatory customary and statutory laws and practices that favour men's over women's access to land and other productive resources; harmful practices (e.g. early marriage that limits girls' education), and; domestic violence and lack of control in decision-making processes

(e.g. in the intra-household decision-making on income expenditures). While many of these forms of discrimination are increasingly addressed by national policies and legislation (e.g. laws against early marriage and violence against women), in practice, new policies and new or revised laws have proven hard to enforce.¹⁹

Translating women's agricultural work into economic empowerment requires transforming gender relations at all levels – including in institutions through women's increased representation and participation, and in communities and households with increased decision-making power, voice, and sharing of benefits. In recent years, many NGOs, United Nations agencies, and different governments have undertaken different initiatives to engage men actively in transforming gender relations in communities and households (e.g. CARE's *Abatangamuco*, “Bringers of Light” program in Burundi, and Oxfam/Novib's work supported by IFAD, on women's empowerment in the coffee value chain work in Uganda). Greater alliances to strengthen approaches to engage men in transforming gender relations at all levels have also taken hold, including the global “Men Engage Alliance.”²⁰

Conclusion

Women economic empowerment and poverty reduction has been of great concern to global economies most especially in African countries, Nigeria inclusive. Most of the world's poor are women and poverty cannot be reduced if women are not economically empowered. Women's economic empowerment is a prerequisite for sustainable development, (eradication of poverty) and pro-poor growth. Achieving women's economic empowerment requires sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment and gender-specific perspectives must be integrated at the design stage of policy and programming. Women must have more equitable access to assets and services; infrastructure programmes should be designed to benefit the poor, both men and women, and employment opportunities must be improved while increasing recognition of women's vast unpaid work. In justifying the analysis one can relate it to the Arab saying that: “if woman had not been created there wouldn't have been sun and moon, no agriculture and no fire”. This is more applicable to Africa most especially in the rural areas of Africa.

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Child Labour: An Impediment to the Total Development of the Nigerian Child

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Abstract

The arrival of a child into Nigerian communities encapsulates happiness and celebration. In spite of the elaborate celebration that marks the birth, its survival and development are threatened by some cultural practices and activities. Nevertheless, one of the fundamental global problems facing Nigeria today is the fact that incidences of children who work outside the family to earn a living or to support their families are increasing on daily bases. In Nigeria, most especially in the urban areas, children of between the ages of five and fourteen are seen working. The situation of most Nigerian children remains critical due to their socio-economic, cultural and developmental circumstances. Children are compelled by circumstances beyond their control to contribute to family income. In the long run, working children are disadvantaged in several ways due to their involvement in all sorts of hazardous works which affect their health and developmental process. In addition, sending children to hawk in the streets is a negation of the rights of children as guaranteed by the Child Rights Act (2003). It is within this purview that hawking (a form of child abuse) is examined. This article considers the consequences of hawking on the Nigerian child and proffers recommendations to ameliorate its menace in the country. One of the fundamental global problems facing Nigeria is the occurrences of children who work outside the family to augment the family income and other efforts. The objective of this study is to find out whether children engage in hawking in Suleja, Tafa and Gurara local government areas in Niger State, Nigeria. In most urban centres in Nigeria, children between the ages of five and fourteen years are seen hawking. The situation of most children remains critical due to their all round circumstances. They are forced by forces beyond their control to contribute to family income. In the end, this group of children is disadvantaged in several ways due their

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involvement in hazardous works which affect their health and developmental growth process. The population of the study is child-hawkers who were purposively selected from Suleja, Tafa and Gurara local government areas due to their proximity to Abuja, the Federal Capital City of Nigeria. The sample size is one hundred and forty (140) child-hawkers purposively selected on availability. Direct interview and observation were used to elicit data from the child-hawkers and simple frequencies and tables were used to present the findings. The results showed that a greater proportion (55%) of the child hawkers combined hawking with schooling. Furthermore, majority (72.9%) of the respondents agreed to exposure to risk of being hit by motorcars or motorcycles as the major hazard of hawking on the various locations of the study. The article recommends strict enhancement and respect of the rights of children as enshrined in the CRA while low income parents should be empowered.

Introduction

In every human society, parents with a view to socializing their children and providing necessities of life carry out certain cultural practices and economics activities. The engagement of children in hawking is a typical example of child labour, which is a form of child abuse. For example in 2000, UNICEF reported that 250 million children between the ages of 4 and 15 years in developing countries out of which children 22 million were working and 1 out of 3 children in Lagos earn money as street hawkers. Furthermore, in the same year 3072 out of 4591 beggars in Zaria streets were children (UNICEF, 2000). This is a social phenomenon, which has taken dangerous dimension and causing devastating effect on the physical and mental development of children in Nigeria. Hawking is an activity that could be found in major cities and villages in the country today. Weekly Trust (2019) reported that 'children are forced to hawk wares of all sorts and have become a sore sight sorts in Nigeria with under aged kids denied the joy of childhood and expose to danger of all kinds'. This report revealed that child hawkers are regular sights found on major streets in cities and towns in the country. This is a violation of their African Charter on the rights and Welfare of the African Child adopted in Addis Ababa-Ethiopia, in 1990 (UNICEF, 2000). The phenomenon of hawking is gaining currency and has attracted condemnation. The problem has become so critical that parents, who are supposed to protect their children, expose them to risks and dangers in the society. This is critical and questions raised about hawking; how it is done;

factors responsible for it; and the consequences thereof. In addressing the above issues, an effort is made primarily to operationalize some basic concept, such as hawking, threats, development and child. Hawking can be defined as engaging children in the sale of crops and households goods from place to place. Women in Nigeria (WIN, 1996) define hawking as ‘a form of trade which wares are carried about for sales. It could be from house, on the street, highways, and the market place or at particular sites, where large number of customers can be reached such as construction sites, motor parks and the likes.

Hawking as a form of child labour is said to be very common in most cities in Nigeria, where the incomes are low and have proved inadequate to cater for a whole family (Owolabi, 2012). Accordingly, under this circumstance, a child may be made to hawk along the busy streets and major highways some common items like cold soft drinks, fruits of every kind, cold-water sachets, clothing materials, footwear, and other material in order to supplement the family income. Studies conducted in most Nigeria cities show that street hawking is the most common form of child labour in Nigeria cutting across major cities. For the purpose of this paper, impediment is viewed as a menace and danger to the growth and development of a Nigerian child, while development is the process of experiencing a gradual growth and increase in the quality of lives of individual children. The definition of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of a Child (Article I); the Africa Union Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child Article II (1990) and Child Rights Act (Section 277, 2003) of a child as ‘any human being below the age of 18 years’ are used.

Child labour is a form of child abuse (CYPL, 1958; ANPPACAN, 1997; AUCRWC, 1990; CRA, 2003). Child labour has assumed a disturbing dimension with girl-children made to among other things care for infants, clean and undertake laundry for the entire household. In cities, children are withdrawn from school to hawk goods in street and motor parks to support their families. These children are found everywhere hawking and meandering in and out of traffic. The child-hawkers lives are jeopardized by hazards often encountered while at their duty posts. While some are able to combine schooling with their work, many are however exploited and cheated and molested by adults and peers. Many suffer from malnutrition, illness and low self esteem.

Methodology

Table 1:
Sample Size and Location of the Respondents

Location by LGA	F	%
Gurara	50	35.7
Suleja	50	35.7
Tafa	40	28.6
Total	140	100

Source: Field Survey 2018

The study was conducted in Gurara, Suleja, and Tafa local government areas in Niger State. They are urban, semi-urban and rural local government areas in the Niger East Senatorial zone of the state. The dominant tribes are Gbagyi, Nupe, Kadara and Hausa. Others are the tribes from all over the country especially in Suleja local government area as a result of its proximity to the Federal Capital Territory. Christianity and Islam are the dominant religions in these local government areas. The population of the study is child hawkers between the ages of 5 and 14 years. One hundred and forty (140) child hawkers were purposively selected. Questionnaire and observation were used as the instruments of the study.

Socio-Demographic Data of Child-Hawkers

This section presents the Socio-Demographic data of respondents. Age, sex, religion, educational attainment and that of their parents are some of the variables examined. Others are the occupation and income of parents.

Table 2:
Socio-Demographic Data of Child-Hawkers

Age	F	%
5-7yrs	30	22.9
8-10yrs	57	40.7
11-13yrs	51	36.4
Total	140	100

Sex		
Male	53	37.9
Female	87	62.1
Total	140	100

Religion		
Christian	51	36.4
Islam	89	63.6
Total	140	100

School Attending		
Non-formal Education	9	6.4
Islamic	21	15
Apprenticeship	33	3.6
Western Education	77	55
Total	140	100

Staying with Parents		
Yes	91	65
No	49	35
Total	140	100

Position in Family		
1 st -3 rd	66	47
4 th -6 th	59	42
7 th -10 th	15	11.8
Total	140	100

Source: Field Survey, 2018.

Table 2 shows that 22.9% of the child-hawkers belonged to the 5-8years category, while 40.7% and 36.4% belonged to 9-11 and 12-15years categories respectively. Only 37.9% were male, while 62.1% were females. 6.4% were not attending Islamic nor western education while 15%, 23.6% and 55% were attending Islamic school, apprenticeship and western education respectively. In addition the table also shows that 63.6% of the child-hawkers are Muslims while the remaining 36.4% are Christians. In Tafa local government area, the child hawkers were interviewed at their duty post comprising filling stations along the major Abuja-Kaduna express road, Sabon-Wuse market and at kilometre 3 Suleja army security check point. Items hawked include banana, sachet water, bread, and groundnut, garden eggs, vegetables, soft drinks cola nut, plantain chips, oranges and wheel barrow pushers (load carriers).

The child-hawkers in Gurara local government area were found in Lambata and Diko market, Kwaka-Gwacipe and Dikko army security check point and Diko-Abuja-Kaduna junction and Motor Park. While motor parks, filling stations, and Bakin Iku and Madalla security check points and Madalla market are the major focal points of child-hawkers in Suleja local government area. Some of the wares hawked by the child hawker in Gurara and Suleja local government areas are though not limited to garden eggs, fura (local millet battered pudding), madidi (local corn battered pudding), kola nut, soft drinks, sachet water, cell phone accessories, chinchin, banana, cakes, plantain chips, sugar cane, boiled corn, foot wears, top-up cards, wheel barrow pushers groundnuts and beggars. 49 (35%) of the child hawkers do not stay with their parents while 65% stay with their parents. The hawkers also indicated that they were either between 1st-3rd born, 47%, 4th-6th born, 42% or 7th-10th born of their parents.

Socio-Economic Attributes of Respondents Parents

This section describes the social and economic activities of the parents of child-hawkers interviewed during the study.

**Table 3: Socio-Economic Background of Respondents' Parent
Fathers' Educational Attainment**

Non-formal Education	33	23.5
Quaranic Education	27	19.3
Primary Education	55	39.3
Secondary Education	18	12.9
Post secondary Education	7	5
Total	140	100

Mothers' Educational Attainment

Non-formal Education	67	47.9
Quaranic Education	18	12.9
Primary Education	39	27.9
Secondary Education	13	9.3
Post secondary Education	3	2.1
Total	140	100

Fathers' Occupation

Farming	49	35.0
Artisanship	41	29.3
Business	23	16.4
Civil service	27	19.3
Total	140	100

Mother' Occupation

House wife	79	56.4
Business	47	33.6
Civil service	14	10
Total	140	100

Fathers' Income

Less than NGN 5000	78	55.7
NGN5000- NGN 10000	43	30.7
NGN11000 and above	19	13.6
Total	140	100

Mothers' Income

Less than NGN 5000	119	85.0
NGN5000- NGN 10000	13	9.3
NGN11000 and above	8	5.7
Total	140	100

Source: Field Survey 2018.

Table 3 furthermore shows that the parents of the respondents are of low socio-economic background with 23.5% fathers and 47.9% mothers who have no any form of formal education while only 5% fathers and 3% mothers has post secondary education. In terms of occupation, findings in the table reveals that 35% fathers and 56.4% mothers were farmers and house wives respectively. Only 19.3 fathers of the respondents and 10% mothers of the respondents are civil servants earning NGN11000 and above monthly, by only 13.6% of fathers and 5.7% mothers of the respondents. The table explained vividly the level of involvement of parents pushing the children to hawk because of poverty.

Factors Responsible for Hawking

This section discusses reasons why child-hawkers engage in hawking among which they gave several explanations including helping to augment family income or save for future plan like marriage.

Table 4: Factors influencing Hawking by Child-Hawkers

Why do you Hawk

To support my parents	110	78.6
For my mother to save for my marriage	25	17.8
To take care of myself	5	3.6
Total	140	100

Source: Field Survey 2018.

When the respondents were asked why they hawk, findings in table 4 shows that 78.6% mentioned raising money to help parents to take care of family, 17.8% training to be self reliant in adult life. Girl-child hawkers said their mothers would use the process to buy items for marriage and were also being trained not to be idle when they marry. Some child-hawkers (3.6%) on the other hand said they had to hawk because they did not have anybody to take care of them.

Consequently, poverty and hard living conditions in homes of child-hawkers in particular, push parents to send children to hawk. Thus, the desire to work to generate income for the members of their families is the major driving force behind hawking by children in addition. Nigeria's frequent social upheavals, cultural conflicts, gradual industrialization and imperfect attempts at westernization push some families to send their young ones to hawk and it (hawking) was reported as the most frequently reported form of maltreatment.

Weekly Trust (2000) examined the predisposing conditions associated with hawking by children in Nigeria. In its report, a 12 year old boy said that his mother engages him in hawking to get money to feed them. A mother, who hawks with her 14 year old daughter, noted, 'somebody has to help me support my children.' According to her;

My husband has three other wives and each of us has no less than four children. The boys go to school but the girls stay back to help with petty trading and housework until they are ready for marriage. He can hardly provides a descent meal for the entire family, nor can he give them good clothes even during festive periods. So sending them all to school when they can be useful to us in the other ways is a waste and unnecessary luxury for us (Weekly Trust, 2009).

Closely related to the cultural factors are the economic factors. Here, there are two basic issues-early marriage and purdah. Associated with early marriage is the fact that boys are regarded as future breadwinners and bearers of family name. Girls on the other hand are usually married off early to avert 'pollution' of any kind (Kolo, 2008). Part of the proceeds they make from hawking is used to buy them goods they will take to their husbands' houses. Similarly, the practice of purdah in northern Nigerian restricts adult women to their home during the day, and as such, the younger children are meant to do the work the adult should be doing. Some of their girls start hawking at an age where they are too young and ignorant to count money properly (WIN, 1999). Okoro (2001) observed that parent

does not see child-hawking as any form of child abuse, but as an act of traditional training in businesses activities. However, most of these factors are associated with the general socio-economic problem in the country, such as poverty, unemployment, low educational attainment of the parent and cultural practices of the people.

In Nigeria for example, lack of income has forced many families to withdraw their children from school and send them into work force including hawking. This act has often exposed them to violence, abuse and untold hardship (UNICEF, 2000). Hawking is child labour and an act of exploitation and inhuman treatment that degrades the dignity of a child. It is a form of child abuse. The United Nation convention on the Rights of the Child frowns at hawking (child labour) and provides that,

Every child must be protected against all forms of exploitation, indecent or degrading treatment, including child labour, abduction and sale.

According to CRC, exploiting the labour of a child means employing a person below the age of 15years and paying him less than the minimum standard wage. The Child Rights Act, (2003) is the current law protecting children and has this to say in its provision against child labour.

No child shall be subjected to any forced or exploitative labour and no child shall be used for hawking of goods or services on main city streets, brothels or highways (Section 28 (1a) and 30 2 (c)

Table 5: Hazards Encountered by Child-Hawkers

Types of Hazards

Being hit by cars or motorcycle	102	72.9
Loss of money or products	7	5
Hunger	11	7.9
Going to school late	10	7.1
Tiredness	5	3.6
Breast fumbling	3	2.1
Stay out of school	2	1.4
Total	140	100

Source: Field Survey 2018.

In their responds to problem to problems faced while hawking during this study, respondents in Table 5 reveals that some 73% said being hit by cars or okada (motorcycles) was the major hazard. 5% mentioned loosing products and money when customers or when their wares pour because of hurrying to reach out to customers who sometimes cheat them. Others, 7.9%, 7.1%, 3.6%, 2.1% and 1.4% claim hunger, going to school late, tiredness, breast fumbling by big boys and some customers and staying out of school are some of the consequences of being out on the street hawking. These findings are in consonant with the findings in some studies conducted by Shelleng (1991). Okeshola and Mudiare (1996) and Ibigbo (1999). According to them hawking is a form of child abuse which has devastating effect on the physical and mental development of the Nigerian child. In addition, they review that children left on their own to take on the responsibility of working for the survival of the family, usually performed badly in school and often drop out in the process. They established that school children who are forced to hawk complain of fatigue and inability to study at home they found that such children performed badly and often below their chronological ages. Furthermore, they opined that child-hawkers were very often expose to the risk of motor accidents, malnourishment and scavenge garbage dump for dispose food items and sexual assault and harassment to the girl-hawkers when they are lured by male customers. Although, sexual intercourse was not reported in this study, previous studies (Ebigbo and Abaga, 1990) revealed that child-hawker engage in sexual intercourse during hawking, or sometimes kidnapped by their 'customers'. Hawking by children according to studied has brought in its trail rape and abduction of children by ritualist in some instances. A woman interviewed by weekly Trust reported case of rape involving child-hawkers, she is a mother of 12 year old girl, who reported that:

My daughter has been a hawker since she was barely 6year and ever since she has been very active and successful in any kind of wares she is given to sell. As a woman in need, she has always impressed me to the extents that I do reward her for efforts, not knowing that there is this old guide in the GRA that abuses her sexually. Sometime last year, she fell sick and when taking to the hospital, it was confirmed that she was pregnant. She pointed at the guard who is old enough to be her grandfather. There and then I vowed that none of my girls will ever hawk again no matter how bad my financial situation (Weekly Trust, 2009).

The distances covered are so long and they pass through highways, thus exposing them to accidents when crossing the roads, in addition to harsh climatic condition and excessive heat or cold. Some of the children on the other hand are cut up in the social vices of the environment, adding to the ranks of drug addicts, streets and political thugs (weekly trust, 2009).

Discussions of the Findings

It is of interest to know that both male and female children are engaged in hawking, although there are more female hawkers than their male counterpart. In addition, most of the child hawkers live with their parents and cut across socio-economic background. Furthermore, it was observed that during hawking, the younger child hawker 5-8years categories are found to be attached to older ones and hawk items of lesser money value like sachet water, kolanut, madidi, and fura that go for NGN10 or NGN20. The older child-hawker 8-11years and 12-14years on the other hand hawk wares that are of high money value or involve complex transactions like soft drinks, cell-phones accessories, foot wears and such likes. These findings agree with the submissions in earlier studies conducted by Kolo (2008) and Okeshola and Mudiere (1999). It was also observed that the older ones abuse drugs although they claimed it was normal to take something 'ordinary' like panadol or paracetamol (analgesic) to wear off fatigue from their hustle. Poverty and hard conditions of living corroborate the findings of earlier studies conducted by (Ebigbo, 1999, Win, 1999 Okoro, 2001: Kolo, 2008 and weekly trust, 2009). In these studies it is averred that although Nigeria is the largest black African country with a population of over 140 million people (NPC, 2006), it is a fact that it has not developed adequate technological capabilities and managerial skills for effective management of her resources to achieve sustainable growth and development.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Hawking is a social and economic activity carried out by children in Nigeria. It is manifested through the sale of different crops and household commodities such as groundnut, sachet water, bread, and other materials, from one location to another in major streets and public places in the country. Economic problems and cultural practices of the people are major predisposing factor responsible for this activity. Hawking generally is harmful to the physical, mental, social, emotional and educational interests of the child. In short, it has serious negative effects on the total well being of the child.

Street trading negatively affects the development of children in any society. Therefore, to attain sustainable growth and development in any sector of the Nigeria economy, deliberate effort must be made to provide necessary care and enhancement of the welfare of the nation. No nation can achieve any meaningful development if the children in such country are not adequately protected and nurtured. Children are the future leaders and vanguard for socio-economic and sustainable development in Nigeria. As a result, the following recommendations are made. The situation where children are forced to hawk by parents to earn at the risk of their lives should be discouraged. Therefore, the rights and welfare of the Nigerian children should be enhanced and respected.

Proven cases of sexual abuse resulting from hawking should be sanctioned with severe punitive laws. Assailants should be prosecuted and made to take responsibilities for the damages done to the child. Since poverty is one of the major factor that make parents send children to hawk, parents from low economic background should be economically empowered through provision of micro credit facilities so that their children will not be engaged in exploitative economic activities.

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A Study of Students' Knowledge and Perception of Incidences and Prevalence of Substance Abuse in Tertiary Institutions in Niger State: Implications for Counselling

Mustapha Ilyasu

Abstract

The study investigated the students' knowledge and perception of incidences and prevalence of substance abuse in tertiary institutions in Niger State. Descriptive survey design was used for the study. A sample of 346 students were randomly selected from three institutions, namely Ibrahim Badamasi Babangida University Lapai, College of Education, Minna and Niger State Polytechnic, Zungeru. The sample size comprised of 150 female and 196 males. A researcher designed questionnaire tagged "Abusable Substance Knowledge and Perception" (ASKAPI) was used for data collection. The Data collected were analyzed using simple frequency counts, percentages and mean values. The finding revealed that students in tertiary institution of Niger State have appreciable knowledge and perception of substance abuse on incidence and prevalence. Also it revealed that Alcohol, Marijuana, Tramadol cigarette, nail polish were the most commonly abused substance. Based on the findings recommendations made include putting up drug abuse awareness programme should be organized by guidance and counselling unit of tertiary institutions in collaboration with students affairs office for students.

Introduction

The use of substances by human beings to escape from pain and relief from illness dates back to antiquity. In the contemporary time however, the alarming rate of abuse and trafficking in substances remain the major intractable problem facing humanity. The recent astronomical increase in the proportion of substance abuse cuts across all inter and intra national

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boundaries socially, economically and politically (Imam, 2014). The universal nature of the menace of substance abuse led to numerous multi-lateral and bilateral treaties among countries of the globe with varying socio-economic and political backgrounds and to which Nigeria is a party (NDLEA, 2005).

Substances are categorized according to the functions they perform in human body. Some of them like cocaine methadone, kola nut, coffee, Tramadol, among others, broadly alter the entire body system by acting on the central nervous system thus, increasing body activity, greater alertness and these are called 'stimulants'. The direct opposites are called 'depressant' such as valium, activan, diazepam among others. These drugs cause decrease in body activity, reducing alertness, causing sleep or even produce unconsciousness. There are others that serve varying purposes for instance, pain killers such as paracetamol, Indocine meant to reduce body pain. There are certain substances meant to substitute certain body chemicals while others correct unhealthy diet (NDLEA, 2005).

Most substances are produced with good intention of curing people but the basic question one is bound to ask is, how do they become problem to their users? Substances become problem to their users only when taken too much, too often, or taken without proper medical prescription (Substance abuse). Ngohi, Aliyu and Ngohi (2008) opined that a drug is abused when its use is not medically necessary, not recommended by a health worker, forbidden by law, socially unacceptable or that it is socially acceptable but taken excessively. Drugs can be abused based on the dosage.

Nwokolo, Obiora and David (2005) noted that the present increase in the trend of drug abuse among students cannot be divorced from availability of the drugs, curiosity, peer group influence, parents and teachers influence, family neglect, advertisement by electronic and print media, to excel in studies and sports, for boldness to challenge friends, parents and teachers. Mburza and Ngohi (2007) identified alcohol, marijuana, cocaine, codeine phosphate, caffeine, petrol, tramadol, glue, valium, heroine, alabukum as the drugs abused by secondary school students in Borno State. Enakpoya (2009) studied substance abuse among secondary school Ethiopie East Local Government area of Delta State, Nigeria and found out that alcohol, Librium and marijuana were the most commonly abused substances in that order.

According to Haladu (2014), said the adverse consequences of substance abuse can be broadly categorized in physical, psychological and social. The physical are those drugs that when abused can lead to damage

of the body organs that are very vital such as brain, liver and kidney. Prolonged use of alcohol for example destroy liver, causes liver cirrhosis, high blood pressure, abortion and still birth. Psychologically, this has to do with those drugs that when abused can lead to depression, anxiety, loss of memory, hallucination, moodiness and aggressiveness as well as changes in behaviour and panic attack. Among the social consequences include lack of interest in attending school activities, stealing, prostitution, and low academic productivity, road traffic accidents, and homelessness, violence in school, cultism, gangsters and bullying of the junior ones in school.

Statement of the Problem

Findings by Abang (2006) and NDLEA (2011) proved that the drugs trafficking in Nigeria and abuse of drugs are among the social problems bedeviling Nigeria as a nation. Drug abuse problem is so pervasive to such an extent that it becomes a serious developmental challenge and continues to undermine the efforts of government at all levels. It is worthy to note that the youths that constitute the manpower and future of Nigeria society are mostly the victims. The Federal Ministry of Youths and Sports (2010) observed that Nigerian youths aged 10 – 30 years are about 49% of the country's population. National Drugs Law Enforcement Agency (2011) observed that over 38% of Nigerian youths abused drugs. According to Abang (2006), in contemporary Nigeria, many categories of youths (males and females) are hooked on drugs problem. This include an unbelievable large number of primary school pupils and secondary school students, undergraduate students, servicemen, cattle rearers, unemployed, pharmacists and even medical doctors (Sambo, 2008). But like every other issues in the country, there is pretence that all is well until things get out of hand. In major cities including Niger state, drugs such as cigarette, marijuana among others are hawked like every other item. There are also reports on abused substances such as nail polish cleaner gasoline, lizard excreta, gutter and rubber solution others are cough syrup with codeine, content and pit toilets.

Despite the use of force by NDLEA and other security agencies to monitor the sales and abuse of substances the incidences are still high. This study is therefore prompted to confirm the perception of students of the incidence and prevalence of substance abuse with particular reference to Niger State student in tertiary institutions.

Objectives of the Study

1. To assess the level of knowledge of students of tertiary institutions in Niger state of substance abused by colleagues in their respective schools.
2. To assess the level of perception of students of tertiary institution in Niger state of incidence and prevalence of substance abused by other students in their respective institution.
3. To examine gender difference of knowledge of abused substance among students of tertiary institutions in Niger state.

Research Questions

1. To what extents are students of tertiary institutions in Niger state knowledgeable of substance abused by colleagues in their respective schools.
2. To What extents do students of tertiary institutions in Niger state perceive the incidence and prevalence of substance abuse other students in their respective institution?
3. To what extents do students of tertiary institutions in Niger state differ in their knowledge of abused substance on the basis of their gender?

Methodology***Design***

The target population of this study comprised of all students of selected tertiary institutions in Niger state. According statistical data obtained from Niger state ministry of education (2016), there are forty one thousand one hundred and twenty eight students (41,128), in the three selected tertiary institutions.

This study adopted a descriptive survey design. Bichi (2004) noted that a survey design refer to techniques in which data are collected from the participants through questionnaire to sample their opinions. It was adopted in this study because it is useful and appropriate to collect data from a sample taken from population that is large to be observed directly and to obtaining information that cover personal and social facts, beliefs and attitudes.

Population and Sampling Techniques

The sample size for this study is 346 students, which was selected randomly from 3 institutions. This sample size was determined using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size from a given population. The multistage sampling technique was used to draw a sample of 346 students made up of 196 males and 150 females from the institutions under study.

Instrumentation

For the purpose of this study, a researcher designed questionnaire was used to obtain relevant information for the study. The questionnaire is titled "Abusable substance knowledge and perception inventory (ASKAPI)". The questionnaire consist of 15 items of abused substances namely tramadol (tramol, yawuri batakalami), cough syrup with codeine (koko, syrup), marijuana (weed, wivi), raphynol (rochie or blue boy), nitrozepam (mr. white or mg), cigarette (cigar) chloroform (suck and die), glue, solution (sholi), diazepam (diaza, D5), alcohol, codeine tablet, local wine (burukutu), pentazocine injection (pentar), bromezepam and nail polish. Three points response scale on knowledge are: Only heard of It, Do Not Know of It, and Do Know of It, also three point response scale on perception are: Not Know to be Commonly used by Students, Student Don't know of It, and Commonly used by Students.

Reliability of the Instrument

The reliability of the instrument was determined through the conduct of pilot testing. The instrument was used to carry out a pilot testing by the researcher on a small sample size, using twenty five (25) students of Federal polytechnics, Bida which is one of the tertiary institutions in Niger State but not part of the sampled institutions. Split half method of estimating reliability was used. The instrument was administered to twenty five (25) students and after the collection and scoring; the scores were split into two groups of even and odd numbers the internal co-efficient consistency was obtained using spearman rank correlation coefficient which was obtained at 0.82 which indicates high correlation.

Procedure

The researcher personally administered the instrument on the sampled institutions with the help of research assistants that were trained and guided on how to administer the questionnaire and how to retrieve then as well.

Data Analysis

The data collected on the study was analyzed using simple frequency counts, percentages and mean values.

Presentation of Results and Discussion

Research Question One: To what extents are student of tertiary institutions Niger State knowledgeable of substance abuse by colleagues in their respective schools?

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics on the Responses of Respondents on Students' Knowledge of Abused Substance in Tertiary Institutions in Niger State

S/N	Substance	Only heard of it	Do not know of it	Do know of it	Standard Mean Rank	Mean Rank	Remark
1	Tramadol	240 (72.5)	60 (18.1)	31 (9.4)	110.33	100.67	Students Only heard of it
2	Cough syrup with codeine	235 (71.0)	50 (15.1)	46 (13.9)	110.33	109.00	Students only heard of it
3	Marijuana	130 (39.3)	150 (45.3)	51 (15.4)	110.33	77.33	Student only heard of it
4	Rophynol	160 (48.3)	80 (24.2)	91 (27.5)	110.33	114.00*	Students do know of it
5	Nitrozapam	260 (78.5)	45 (13.6)	26 (7.9)	110.33	104.00	Students only heard of it
6	Cigarette	251 (75.8)	0 (0.0)	80 (24.2)	110.33	137.00*	Students do know of it
7	Chloroform	250 (75.5)	55 (16.6)	26 (7.9)	110.33	100.67	Students only heard of it
8	Glue (solution)	150 (45.3)	170 (51.4)	11 (3.3)	110.33	57.33	Students only heard of it
9	Diazapam	70 (21.1)	200 (60.4)	61 (18.4)	110.33	64.00	Students only heard of it
10	Alcohol	170 (51.4)	0 (0.0)	161 (48.6)	110.33	164.00*	Students do know of it
11	Codeine tablet	231 (69.8)	50 (15.1)	50 (15.1)	110.33	110.33*	Students do know of it
12	Local wine	250 (75.5)	50 (15.1)	31 (9.4)	110.33	104.00	Students only heard of it
13	Pentazacine injection	50 (15.1)	260 (78.5)	21 (6.3)	110.33	30.67	Students only heard of it
14	Bromezapam	40 (12.1)	280 (84.6)	11 (3.3)	110.33	20.67	Students only heard it
15	Nail Polish	260 (78.5)	0 (0.0)	71 (21.5)	110.33	134.00*	Students do know of it

Table 4.4: Shows the extents of knowledge of students in tertiary institution in Niger State on Substance Abused by colleagues in their respective schools. The analysis of responses in respect of students knowledge of abused substance by colleagues indicates the alcohol has mean rank of 164, cigarette with mean rank of 114 and codeine tablet with mean rank of 110.33. On the basis of item response indicates that they have knowledge of it. This implies that in most cases students are knowledgeable of alcohol, cigarette, nail polish, rophynol and codeine tablet.

Also, the analysis indicted that bromezapam with mean rank of 20.67, pentazocine injunction with mean rank of 30.67, glue with mean rank of 57.33, diazepam with mean rank of 64.00 marijuana with mean rank of 77.33, chloroform and tramadol with means rank of 100.67, each local wine and nitrozapam with mean rank of 104 each, and cough syrup with codeine has mean rank of 109. This implies that in most cases students only hear of these as abused substance but do not necessary know of it.

Research Question Two: To what extents do students of tertiary institutions in Niger State perceive the incidence and prevalence of substance abuse by other students in their respective institutions?

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics on the Responses of Respondents on Students' Perception of Incidence and Prevalence Abused Substance in Tertiary Institutions in Niger State

S/N	Substance	Not known to be commonly used	Students don't know of it	Commonly used by Students	Standard Mean Rank	Mean Rank	Remark
1	Tramadol	120 (36.3)	31 (9.4)	180 (54.4)	110.33	160.00*	Commonly used by students
2	Cough syrup with codeine	200 (60.4)	50 (15.1)	81 (24.5)	110.33	120.67*	commonly used by students
3	Marijuana	100 (30.2)	50 (15.1)	181 (54.7)	110.33	154.00*	Commonly used by students
4	Rophynol	178 (53.8)	102 (30.8)	51 (15.4)	110.33	93.33	Not known to be commonly used
5	Nitrozepam	61 (18.4)	185 (55.9)	85 (25.7)	110.33	77.00	Not known to be commonly used
6	Cigarette	253 (76.4)	10 (3.0)	68 (20.5)	110.33	129.67	Not known to be commonly used
7	Chloroform	215(65.0)	68 (20.5)	48 (14.5)	110.33	103.67	Not known to be commonly used
8	Glue (solution)	170 (51.4)	151 (45.6)	10 (3.0)	110.33	63.33	Not known to be commonly used
9	Diazepam	157 (47.4)	83 (25.1)	91 (27.5)	110.33	113.33*	commonly used by students
10	Alcohol	293 (88.5)	11(3.3)	27 (8.2)	110.33	115.67*	commonly used by students
11	Codeine tablet	217 (65.6)	61 (18.4)	53 (16.0)	110.33	107.67	Not known to be commonly used
12	Local wine	211 (63.7)	55 (16.6)	65 (19.6)	110.33	113.33*	commonly used by students
13	Pentazacine injection	80 (24.2)	221 (66.8)	30 (9.1)	110.33	46.67	Not known to be commonly used
14	Bromezepam	61(24.2)	232 (66.8)	38 (9.1)	110.33	45.67	Not known to be commonly used
15	Nail Polish	251 (75.8)	13 (3.9)	67 (20.2)	110.33	128.33*	commonly used by students

Table 4.5: Shows the analysis of responses in respect of extents of students' perception on the incidence and prevalence of substance abuse by other students of tertiary institutions in Niger State. The analysis of responses in respect of students perception of abuse substance by colleagues indicated that tramadol has mean rank of 160.00, marijuana with mean rank of 154.00, cigarette with mean rank of 129.67, nail polish with mean rank of 128.33, cough syrup with codeine has mean rank of 120.67, alcohol with man rank of 115.67, local wine has mean rank of 113.67, and diazepam with mean rank of 113.00. On the basis of item response indicates that

students have perception that the above substances are commonly used by students.

Also, the analysis indicated that Bromezapam has mean rank of 45.67, pentazocine injection with mean rank of 46.67, glue with men rank of 63.33, nitrozapam with mean rank of 77.00, rophynol with mean rank of 93.33, chloroform with mean rank of 103.67, and codeine tablet has mean rank of 107.67. On the basis of item response indicates that students perceive that the above substances are not known to be commonly used by students. This implies that in most cases students only perceived these abused substances as not commonly used by students in tertiary institutions.

Research Question Three: To what extents do students of tertiary institutions in Niger state differ in their knowledge of abuse substance on the basis of their gender?

Table 4.6a: Descriptive Statistics on the Male Students extend of Knowledge of Abused Substance in Tertiary Institutions in Niger State.

S/N	Substance	Only heard of it	Do not know of it	Do know of it	Standard Mean	Mean Rank	Remark
1	Tramadol	132 (72.5)	33 (18.1)	17 (9.3)	60.67	55.33	Students only heard of it
2	Cough syrup with codeine	130 (71.4)	27 (14.8)	25 (13.7)	60.67	60.00	Students only heard of it
3	Marijuana	71 (39.0)	83 (45.6)	28 (15.4)	60.67	42.33	Students only heard of it
4	Rophynol	88 (48.4)	44 (24.2)	50 (27.5)	60.67	62.67*	Students do know of it
5	Nitrozapam	143 (78.6)	25 (13.7)	14 (7.7)	60.67	57.00	Students only heard of it
6	Cigarette	138 (75.8)	0 (0.0)	44 (24.2)	60.67	57.00	Students only heard of it
7	Chloroform	138 (75.8)	30 (16.5)	14 (7.7)	60.67	55.33	Students only heard of it
8	Glue (solution)	82 (45.1)	94 (51.6)	6 (3.3)	60.67	31.33	Students only heard of it
9	Diazepam	38 (20.9)	110 (60.4)	34 (18.7)	60.67	35.33	Students only heard of it
10	Alcohol	93 (51.1)	0 (0.0)	89 (48.9)	60.67	90.33*	Students do know of it
11	Codeine tablet	128 (70.3)	27 (14.8)	27 (14.8)	60.67	60.67*	Students do know of it
12	Local wine	138 (75.8)	27 (14.8)	17 (9.3)	60.67	57.33	Students only heard of it
13	Pentazacine injection	27 (14.8)	143 (78.6)	12 (6.6)	60.67	17.00	Students only heard of it
14	Bromezapam	22 (12.1)	154 (84.6)	6 (3.3)	60.67	11.33	Students only heard of it
15	Nail Polish	143 (78.6)	0 (0.0)	39 (21.4)	60.67	73.67*	Student do know of it

Table 4.6a: Shows the extents of male students' knowledge of abused substance in tertiary institutions in Niger State. The analysis of responses in respect of male students' knowledge of abused substance in tertiary institutions indicated that rophynol has mean rank of 62.67, codeine tablet with the mean rank of 60.67, nail polish with the mean rank of 73.67, and alcohol has the man rank of 90.33. On the basis of items responses indicates that male students have knowledge of it. This implies that in most case student are knowledgeable of raphynol, codeine tablet, nail polish and alcohol as abuse substances.

Also the analysis indicated that Bromezapam with mean rank of 11.33, pentazocine injection has a mean rank of 17.00, give (solution) with mean rank of 42.33, tramadol and chloroform with mean rank of 55.33 each, local wine and cigarette with mean rank of 57.33 and 57 respectively, and cough syrup with codeine with mean rank of 60. This implies that most case male student only heard of these as abused substance but do not necessary know of it.

Table 4.6b Descriptive Statistics on the Female Students extend of Knowledge of Abused Substance in Tertiary Institutions in Niger State.

S/N	Substance	Only heard of it	Do not know of it	Do know of it	Standard Means	Mean Rank	Remark
1	Tramadol	108 (72.5)	27 (18.1)	14 (9.4)	49.67	45.33	Students only heard of it
2	Cough syrup with codeine	106 (71.1)	23 (15.4)	20 (13.4)	49.67	48.67	Student only heard of it
3	Marijuana	59 (39.6)	68 (45.6)	22 (14.8)	49.67	34.33	Students only heard of it
4	Rophynol	72 (48.3)	36 (24.2)	41 (27.5)	49.67	51.33*	Students do know of it
5	Nitrozepam	117 (78.5)	20 (13.4)	12 (8.1)	49.67	47.00	Students only heard of it
6	Cigarette	113 (75.8)	0 (0.0)	36 (24.2)	49.67	61.67*	Students do know of it
7	Chloroform	113 (75.8)	25 (16.8)	11 (7.4)	49.67	45.00	Students only heard of it
8	Glue (solution)	68 (45.6)	77 (51.7)	4 (2.7)	49.67	25.00	Students only heard of it
9	Diazepam	32 (21.5)	90 (60.4)	27 (18.1)	49.67	28.67	Students only heard of it
10	Alcohol	77 (51.7)	0 (0.0)	72 (48.3)	49.67	73.68*	Students Do know of it
11	Codeine tablet	104 (69.8)	23 (15.4)	22 (14.8)	49.67	49.33*	Students do know of it
12	Local wine	113 (75.8)	23 (15.4)	13 (8.7)	49.67	46.33	Students only heard of it
13	Pentazacine injection	23 (15.4)	117 (78.5)	9 (6.0)	49.67	13.67	Students only heard of it
14	Bromezapam	18 (12.1)	126 (84.6)	5 (3.4)	49.67	9.33	Students only heard of it
15	Nail Polish	117 (78.5)	0 (0.0)	32 (21.5)	49.67	60.33*	Students do know of it

Table 4.6b: Shows the extents of female students knowledge of abused substance in tertiary institutions in Niger State the analysis of responses in respect of female students knowledge of abused substance in tertiary institutions indicates that codeine tablet has a mean rank of 49.33, raphynol with mean rank of 51.33, nail polish with mean rank of 60.33, cigarette with mean rank of 61.67 and alcohol with mean rank of 73.67. On the basis of items responses indicates that female students have knowledge of codeine tablet, raphynol, nail polish, cigarette and alcohol as abused substance.

Also the analysis shows that bromezapam with mean rank of 9.33 pentazocine infection with mean rank of 13.67, Glue (solution) with mean rank of 25.33 diazapam with mean rank of 26.67, marijuana with mean rank of 34.33. tramadol with mean rank of 45.33, local wine with mean rank of 46.33, nitozapam with mean rank of 47.00 and codeine tablet with mean rank of 49.33 this implied the most female students were not knowledgeable enough about these abused substance.

Summary of Major Findings

- (1) Students of tertiary institutions in Niger State are knowledgeable of some abused substance such as alcohol, cigarette, nail polish, raphynol and codeine tablet as abused substances by their colleagues.
- (2) Students of tertiary institution in Niger State perceived substances such as tramadol, marijuana, cigarette, nail polish, cough syrup, alcohol, local wine and diazepam as commonly abused substance by their colleagues.
- (3) Difference does not exist between male and female students of tertiary institutions in Niger State on their knowledge of abused substance by their colleagues.

Discussion of Findings

From the study, it was observed that almost all the students of tertiary institutions in Niger State are knowledgeable of some abused substances such as alcohol, cigarette, nail polish, raphynol and codeine tablet as abused substances by their colleagues. This shows that in most cases, students of tertiary institutions know that their colleagues abused above substances. This finding is in line with the findings of imam (2004) and Ngohi (2007) who reported that majority of the students in Kaduna polytechnic have knowledge on drug abused which constituted 94.2% of the respondents. Adekeye 2012) reported that college students in Nigeria experiment with drugs without knowing which drug to take, when to take it and how to take it, and presently, risky alcohol use among university students has become a

serious public health issue in Nigeria.

The findings of this study also revealed that students of tertiary institutions in Niger state perceived substances such as tramadol, marijuana, cigarette, nail polish, cough syrup, alcohol, local wine and diazepam as commonly abused substance by their colleagues. This shows that students of tertiary institutions perceived that their colleagues abused above substances. This also means that the respondents perceived that the aforementioned substances are commonly abused by their colleagues.

The analysis of research question three which states that what is the difference between the extent of knowledge of abused substance in tertiary institutions in Niger state based on gender. It was observed that there is no difference existing between male and female students on their knowledge of abused substance by their colleagues in tertiary institutions in Niger state.

However, this finding is in line with the findings of Smart (2007) who investigated gender difference in the knowledge of abused alcohol and other substance among polytechnic students in Ekiti State and found that both males and females students have equal knowledge on abused alcohol and other substance. However, findings of this study agreed with some of the earlier findings on the perception of substance abuse as Ngohi (2007) and Imam (2004) who revealed that alcohol, marijuana, cocaine codeine, tramadol, glue (solution), diazepam, cough syrup with codeine, cigarette and codeine tablet were among the substance drugs commonly abused as perceived by secondary school students. The analysis of Lawoyi, Ajumobi and Abdul-Malik (2005) reported that among secondary school students in Warri and Effurun, 66% of the students both the boys and girls have had idea about alcohol and cigarette as substances always abused by students. Also, the finding of this study is in line with Yusuf (2007) who carried out a study on factors influencing substance abuse among undergraduate students in Osun state and found that significant difference does not exist between male and female undergraduate on factors influencing substance abuse. He further revealed that the reason for the no differences observed may be due to the fact that many male and female students involves in substance abuse.

These findings agreed with the findings of Stephen and Ekpenyoung (2012) which report that significant difference does not exist between boys and girls in their perception of drug abuse. They further specified that both boys and girls showed similar drug perception mean scores, indicating that both boys and girls has proclivity for drug abuse. Also, Akanbi, Godwin, Anyio, Muhammad and Ajiboye (2014) indicate no significant gender

difference among adolescent substance abusers on the basis of academic performance.

Conclusions

Based on the Findings of this study, the following conclusions are made:

Students of tertiary institutions in Niger state are knowledgeable of alcohol, cigarette, nail polish, raphynol and codeine tablet as abused substances by their colleagues.

Students of tertiary institutions in Niger state perceived tramadol, marijuana, cigarette, nail polish, cough syrup, alcohol, local wine and diazepam as commonly abused substance by their colleagues in their respective schools.

There is no gender difference of students of tertiary institutions in Niger state on their perception of abused substances by colleagues in their respective institutions.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made;-

1. Drug abuse awareness programme should be organized by guidance and counselling unit of each institution in collaboration with students' affair office for students.
2. Tertiary institutions in Niger State through the students' affair division should initiate programme for students and this programme should focus on the implication of substance abuse most especially on their health and academic performance.
3. National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA) should collaborate with counselling unit through students' affair division of each school and organized substance abuse sensitization programme for students.

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The Role of Industries in the Economic Development of Kano State, 1967-1991

Nura Isah Zubairu

Abstract

Establishment of industries in Kano is not a new phenomenon as it is dated back to pre-colonial era. These industries provide goods for both local and interregional consumption. On the other hand, with the advent of British colonial authority into the area more industries were established to cater for the interest of the colonial economy. However, following the attainment of independence in 1960, more policies were introduced for industrial expansion across the country, with some areas identified as industrial regions. Thus, Kano State was one of the areas that were chosen for this exercise. The aim of this paper is to examine the establishment of industries in Kano State during the period under review. This will be done by looking at the role played by these industries to the economic development of the state in particular and Nigeria in general. Similarly, the paper examines the problems that confronted these industries during the period under review and proffer solutions.

Introduction

This paper examines the historical process of the establishment of industries in Kano State and the role they played in the economic development of the State during the period under review. It also discusses the factors that led to the decline and collapse of some industries during the period under review. Establishment of industries in Kano predate colonial era. These industries provide goods for both local and interregional consumption. In the colonial period, more industries were established to cater for the need of the period. Similarly, in the post colonial period aggressive policy for industrial development was introduced which encouraged the establishment of more industries in Kano State. The role played by these industries in the economic development of Kano State forms the subject matter of this paper.

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The area that came to be known as Kano Metropolis witnessed the establishment of various industries in both pre-colonial and colonial periods. This was due to various factors which encouraged the establishment of these industries. The industries that flourished in Kano Metropolis in pre-colonial period were mainly those that produced commodities such as leather goods popularly known as Moroccan Leather, dyed cloth (‘Yan Kura) as well as plain woven cloths.¹ This shows that leather, textile and dyeing industries were not only dominant but prominent in Kano city and environs. These industries were instrumental in the economic prosperity of Kano Emirate during this period. This is because they produced goods in large quantities that were consumed not only in Kano Emirate but also in distant places.

Similarly, in the colonial period, the colonial authority established various industries and encouraged entrepreneurs to establish more industries in Kano Metropolis. This paved the way for the emergence of a number of modern industries in Kano Metropolis. This came about especially in the 1950’s when there were aggressive nationalist struggles in Nigeria which encouraged the indigenous people to participate in colonial trade on agricultural commodities. This was what made Lebanese to abandoned trade in agricultural commodities and shifted their attention to industrial production.² During this period, a number of industries were established in Kano. These industries were mostly those that engaged in transportation, textile works steel and construction works amongst others. These industries were mainly owned by Lebanese who dominated the manufacturing sector of the economy of Kano State during this period.³ The effort of the Nigerian Nationalist in supporting industrial development in Northern Nigeria was instrumental in the emergence of industries in Kano especially in the 1950’s. This is because the government introduced incentives such as tax relief which attracted numerous entrepreneurs to invest in the industrial activities. Thus, in the period 1954 to 1961 various private Lebanese companies were established in Kano metropolis. The development of industries in Kano Metropolis brought about the need to create industrial estate in Kano Metropolis. This made the colonial government to create an industrial estate in Kano metropolis called Bompai Industrial estate which was established in 1950’s.⁴

Industrial Development in Kano in the Post Colonial Period, 1967-1991

In view of the urgent need to develop Nigeria, the Federal Government continued with the industrial drive after the 1960. This was aimed at not

only raising and improving standard of living but also as a means for building national strength, reputation and prestige of the developing countries.⁵ This became an avenue which was used by many industrialists in Kano in the establishment of industries.

The outbreak of Nigerian Civil War in 1967 and the creation of Kano State in that year also created opportunities for both indigenous entrepreneurs and Lebanese businessmen. This came about due to the exodus of Igbos from Kano which created vacuum in entrepreneurial development in Kano State. This facilitated industrial investments by the Lebanese and Nigerians. Thus manufacturing companies such as Moukarim Metalwood and Fawaz Steelwork were established which supplied government schools and hospitals with needed furniture. Thus by 1974 Lebanese owned almost all the major manufacturing industries in Kano.⁶

By 31st March 1974 the industrial landscape of Kano changed due to the indigenization decree which was introduced by the Federal Military Government of Nigeria. The decree forced foreign entrepreneurs especially Lebanese in Kano to acquire indigenous partners in their enterprises. This created opportunities for indigenous entrepreneurs such as Dantata Brothers, Alhaji Baba Dan Bappa, Nababa Badamasi, Inuwa Wada, Alhaji Sani Marshall and Alhaji Garba A.D. Inuwa amongst others. These entrepreneurs became partners in many Lebanese companies.⁷ This policy was instrumental in encouraging Nigerians to invest and participate in the management of industrial concerns in Nigeria.

During the second half of the 1970's Kano's population and spatial extent grew considerably. This created the need for additional industrial estate in Kano in order to not only led to expansion of industries but also to provide employment for the teeming population. In response to this the Sharada industrial estate was created in Kano Metropolis. The estate consisted of two phases. Phase I came into being immediately while the second phase of the estate was reserved for future development.⁸ In view of the growing number of industrial companies in Kano, the need to separate the industries that produced liquid waste from those that discharge dry waste arose. This led to the creation of Challawa and Tokarawa industrial estates in Kano Metropolis in to accommodate those industries that discharge liquid waste.⁹ Thus, the number of industrial plots in the entire industrial estates in Kano was estimated at 1, 200 industrial plots.¹⁰

Factors that Facilitate the Location of Industries in Kano

Numerous factors accounted for the location of industries in Kano. The prime factor was the availability of market. This is because by the

1960's Kano has a natural and compact catchment area of about 5 million people by whom consumer goods were in demand. Thus the total population of the catchment area whose focus was Kano was a sufficient guarantee of industrial potentialities of Kano. Similarly, closeness to sources of raw materials was also important in the location of industries in Kano. For example, although Kaduna was established as the centre for textile industries in Northern Nigeria, but in view of the local demand and the extensive catchment area as well as closeness to the sources of raw materials, especially agricultural products, Kano became an alternative area for the establishment of textile industries for local distribution.¹¹ The geographical location of Kano in relation to water and electricity also facilitated the location of industries in the area.¹² Similarly, Kano's connectivity to transportation networks facilitated the location of many industries in the area. Apart from road and rail line, the airport became an added advantage.

The Roles played by Industries in the Economic Development of Kano State

The role played by industrial sector to the economic development of Kano State could be seen from the following key areas: Employment generation, production of consumer goods, substituting importation, provision of income to the government as well as poverty reduction among the people of the state. Since the establishment of industries in Kano State, the manufacturing sector of the industries particularly textile and clothing, Leather and Footwear, Hides and Skins, Metalware, Plastics amongst others have been in the fore front in providing employment opportunities to the people not only from Kano but also from other parts of the country. The available statistics have shown that in 1972 for example, there were 8,359 people employed in fifty manufacturing industries in Kano. By 1979, eleven textile mills alone employed about 5, 700 people.¹³ In the 1970's, with the rapid expansion in the industrial development in Kano, more employments were provided to the people. In 1974 for example there were 9045 people employed in fifty seven industries in Kano. Similarly in the period 1976/1977 the total number of people employed by the manufacturing industries rose to 6, 048. This did not include the number of people employed in the various cottage industries managed by various owners with employment capacities of one to ten employees. In 1978 eight companies alone provided employment to about 4, 733 people in Kano. These companies were Moukarim which employed 789 employees, Bonomi which employed 618 employees, Brocade which employed 552 employees, Great northern Tang which employed 474 employees, Kano Textile which

employed 1,150 employees, Grand Industry which employed 640 employees, Holt Nigeria which employed 271 employees as well as International Tanners Limited which employed 239 employees.¹⁴

In order to indicate the rate at which industries employed people in Kano from 1967 to 1977 the following table will serve as a guide.

Table 1:1

Employment in Manufacturing Industries in Kano, 1967-1977

S/No.	Year	Figure
1.	1967	7,696
2.	1968	8,639
3.	1969	11,141
4.	1972/73	8,359
5.	1973/74	5,851
6.	1974/75	9,045
7.	1976/77	61,048

Source: I.L. Bashir The Growth of Manufacturing Sector of Kano's Economy.

The development of Leather and footwear industries in Kano provided not only employment opportunities to the people but also served as a means of meeting the consumer needs of the people. The product also helped in the reduction of importation of leather and footwear.¹⁵ This was essentially relevant to the economic development of Kano State.

The establishment of industries such as Flour milling, Plastic articles amongst others contributed greatly to the economic development of Kano State. These industries produced consumer goods that were in need in the Kano markets and its catchment areas. These industries contributed to the growth and economic development of Kano State.

Factors that led to the Collapse of Some Industries in Kano State

Various factors contributed to the closure and eventual collapse of some industries in Kano State. These factors included corruption, mismanagement, inadequate infrastructural facilities, unfavorable government policies, importation of foreign products and insufficient patronage of local goods.

Corruption and mismanagement contributed to the decline and eventual collapse of many industries in Kano State during the period under review. This is because in the 1970's when Nigeria experienced the oil boom, there

was lack of priority and plan which severely affected the manufacturing sector of Kano's economy. This forced many of the industries to close operation. There were numerous policies and strategies adopted for industrial development in Nigeria but corruption and mismanagement prevented the successful implementation of these policies. These policies include the indigenization policy, trade and financial liberalization policy, establishment of bank of industry, establishment of Nigerian Industrial Development Bank as well as the establishment of Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry amongst others.¹⁶

Inadequate infrastructural facilities contributed to the collapse of industries in Kano state. For example, inadequate power supply is one of the major problems that militate against industrial development in Kano State. When most of these industries were established in 1960s, 70s and 80s the major target was to provide job opportunities and to create wealth. These could not be achieved without adequate power supply that is quite important to the proper operation of industries. Evidence has shown that up to 1980s, the power supply was enough to meet the need of the industries. However, in the 1990's power failure became rampant in Kano State in particular and in Nigeria in general. In the absence of adequate power supply the manufacturers turn to use generators and this required fuel which led to sharp rise in the cost of production.¹⁷ Similarly, the road and rail networks were also in deplorable conditions. This made movement of goods and services difficult or costly. As a result, many industries lost huge sum of money due to accidents and theft. This reduced overall productivity of some industries, which in turn led to closure of these industries.¹⁸

Government policies played roles in the closure and collapse of industries in Kano state. From its early stage the industrial sector of Nigeria in general and Kano state in particular enjoyed favorable policies aimed at ensuring its survival for long period of time. Later, such policies gradually began to disappear and new ones were put in place which is not in the interest of industrial development. For example, in the 1980s under General Ibrahim Babangida the Structural adjustment programme (SAP) was introduced. This programme affected the economy of Kano State in particular and Nigeria in general. One major problem with respect to these policies is that they were not adequately and efficiently implemented. This means that there was inconsistency in government policies which affected the performance of these industries adversely.¹⁹ The net effect of this was that the various industries retrenched worker which created worsening rate of unemployment in Kano State in particular and Nigeria in general.²⁰ Similarly, multiplicity of taxes is another unfavourable government policy.

This is because in a situation where taxes are numerous, they became impediments to industrial investment. For example, industrialist in Kano paid different forms of taxes to federal, state and local governments' councils. This forced manufactures to increase price of goods which on the other hand discouraged consumers from purchases. Multiplicity of taxation also led to low profit and sometimes loss.²¹

Another factor that contributed to the collapse of industries in Kano State and Nigeria in general is the importation of goods and services in to the country without considering local industries. Due to poor management of our industries over the years they became incapacitated. Therefore, they cannot compete with foreign goods. The textile materials imported in to the country and particularly into Kano State crippled the local industries. The activities of Chinese traders in Kanti Kwari for example impacted negatively on Kano textile industries. It has been observed that the importation of goods especially from China, contributed to the decline and subsequent collapse of many local textile mills in Kano. This is because the products of Kano textile industries could not compete favorably with Chinese textiles.²² This has seriously affected the economy of Kano.

Insufficient patronage of local goods is another important factor that contributed to the collapse of industries in Kano state. It became a fashion especially during the oil boom era for Nigerians to prefer foreign manufactured goods than the home made products. This attitude was equally instrumental in destroying many industries in Kano state. This is because as mentioned earlier the major factor that facilitated the location of industries in Kano was the availability of market. Therefore, when numerous consumers turn their attention to foreign goods it became harmful to the survival of local indigenous industries in Kano state.²³

Therefore, in view of the above factors, from the end of the 1980's closure of industries in Kano was in growth. As such the industrial estates of Kano Metropolis which housed about 1,200 industries became the ghost of their own past. The industrial layouts were left with few industries that were struggling to survive.²⁴

Conclusion

The paper has shown that industries have contributed to the economic development of Kano State during the period. The contributions were in the areas of providing employment opportunities to the people, production of consumer goods, import substitution, poverty reduction and provision of income to the government and individuals. It has also established the fact that factors such as corruption, mismanagement, inadequate

infrastructural facilities, unfavorable government policies, importation of foreign products as well as insufficient patronage contributed to the decline and eventual collapse of most of the industries. This affected the economy of Kano State during the period. Therefore, there is the need for concerted effort from federal government of Nigeria, Kano State government, local government authorities as well as the entire people of Kano State in order to arrest this ugly situation. This can be done by way of reviving the industries that collapsed and build new ones in order to cater for the consumer needs of the people. This on the other hand will provide employment opportunities to the teeming unemployed youths as well as provide revenue to the government.

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The Challenge of State Sovereignty in a Globalized World: An Analysis

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Abstract

Sovereignty is that characteristic of a state in virtue of which it cannot be legally bound except by its own will or limited by any other power than itself. However, the sovereignty of states is fast collapsing under the massive weight of globalization, occasioned by the activities of multilateral and supra national institutions like the United Nations (UN), regional organizations like the European Union (EU), Multinational Corporations (MNCs), and other international financial institutions like the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), cum other international Non Governmental Organizations. They have weakened the supposed sovereignty of states by their promotion of universal standards for nations. The target of globalization is world without boundaries. Globalization de-emphasizes Keynesianism and protectionism. The ousting of El Salvador of Chile in 1973 with the help of ITT [a multinational corporation] and the ceding of Nigeria oil rich Bakassi Peninsula to Cameroon upon the judgment and verdict of the World Court on 10th October, 2002 are eloquent testimonies. Appropriating the games theory, the paper relied on secondary sources of data. It provided insight into globalization and how it has undermined the sovereignty of states. The article also recommends that nation states should take rational decisions in accordance with their national interests and shore up their technological, economic and political base to remain relevant in a globalized world..

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Introduction

The international situation that emerged in 1648 after the thirty-year war (Westphalia system) gave the multistate system a “billiard ball” image. In this “billiard ball” model, states are the sole actors. The international stage is pre-empted by a set of states, each in full control of all the territory, persons and resources within its boundaries. Every state represents a closed, impermeable and sovereign unit, completely separated from all other states. In this model, states are presumed to possess a will to survive and a will to power (Nnoli, 2006).

However, Ozumba and Ikegbu (2012), argued that the insufficiency of humans and the logic of complementarity made the evolution of globalization inevitable. This is because within the platform of the logic of insufficiency of humans, every being is dependent on another. There is no superiority of humans and nations, rather what we have remains the dependence of beings and nations upon another. No nation has been able to attain autarky or autarchy. Interdependence and domination is, therefore, an indispensable international character.

The socio-political and economic environment in which nation states operate in contemporary world is influenced by a lot of world transformations. These dynamics have put doubts in the sovereign status of nation states in the contemporary international relations. The willingly limitations of the concept of continental submission in form of integration that is binding nation states to form regional blocks such as the European Union (EU), the African Union (AU) and global integration like United Nations (UN), the ushering of the concept of New World Order, the renaissance of free market oriented democracy, the collapse of the Soviet Union, activities of Multi-National Corporations (MNCs), the advancement in information technology or globalization, and the Western triumphalism have haunted the sovereignty of states in international politics (Fwa, 2003). Globalization with its inherent advantages have dislocated and undermined the sovereignty of states especially the developing states. Developing societies are expected to adopt the free market Blue Print (sometimes called Washington Consensus)-Opening their economies up to foreign investment, financial de-regulation, reductions in government expenditure and budgetary deficits, privatization of government owned enterprises, abolition of protectionism and subsidies, developing export oriented economies or risk the withholding of much needed aid and finance. And because they are required to improve national controls on capital movements which make it possible for states to reach their own conclusions about investment and spending priorities, the direction of their economic development is

increasingly set by amorphous financial markets which act on profit opportunities rather than out of any consideration of national community interest. The price of financial assistance to aid investment in these states is the loss of their economic sovereignty. The sovereignty of the state is replaced by the sovereignty of capital (Burchill and Linklater, 2001).

In 1973, the Chilean government under El Salvador was overthrown with the help of ITT. In Nigeria, it was alleged that some oil Multi-National Corporations (MNCs) had a hand in overthrowing, General Murtala Mohammed in 1976. They have also been involved in similar tendencies in Nicaragua, Cuba, Haiti, Libya, Iraq and Panama. MNCs are also ready instruments of parent countries to achieve any desired political and economic goals, be it economic assistance or economic sanction (Aja, 2001).

The Nigeria Cameroon territorial conflict over Bakassi Peninsula which had lingered for more than 30 years was taken to the international court of justice by Cameroon on March 29, 1994. On 10th October, 2002, the World Court sitting in Hague gave its verdict thereby marking the end of the 8-year legal tussle in favour of Cameroon. The verdict required Nigeria to transfer possession and sovereignty over the territory to Cameroon without granting self-determination right to the Bakassi indigenes. As a consequence, Nigeria lost about 35 communities to Cameroon while the indigenes were displaced. Regardless of the various agitations against the verdict, the Federal Government went ahead to enforce the ruling and formally transferred sovereignty over Bakassi to Cameroon on 14th August, 2008 (Nwogbaga and Nkwede, 2016).

In this research effort and against this background, the paper examines the impact of globalization on the sovereignty of states. It intends to interrogate the waning of sovereignty in the face of globalization.

Theoretical Framework

The paper adopted games theory as its tool of analysis. It owes its genesis to parlour games like chess, poker or bridge with obvious elements of conflict, decision making and cooperation, played between two or more players where the decision of players are contingent upon the decisions of the others, and the central point, therefore, is the interdependence among the decisions of the different players participating in the game (Varma, 1990). Its main advocates in international politics are Morton Kaplan, William Riker and Thomas Schelling.

Games theory is a formal study of the rational expectations that participants can have about each other's choices. At the heart of games theory is an assumption of rationality; that it is assumed that in a game

situation, the player or decision makers try to maximize their gains or minimize their losses - putting it in simpler terms they want to get as much as they can out of the game. Every game have first and most obvious, players, goals, strategies and resources. A gambler without money cannot play cards and a nation without military cannot play war (Alan, 1975).

The synergy between globalization as it undermines the sovereignty of states and games theory is that globalization is a game played among states where every nation state implores its arsenals to outwit others. Globalization is technologically based and it would be difficult for any nation that is ill equipped to navigate the waters of globalization without harm. It is for nations to adopt strategies both economically and otherwise so as to be competitive, relevant and not be shortchanged in the international arena. The concepts of state and market as epitomized by sovereignty and globalization respectively, has been very contentious in international politics to the extent that it has degenerated into an endless polemic. The games theory which emphasizes interdependence with its basic essentials strongly reinforces the nexus between reciprocity and the challenge of state sovereignty in a globalised world.

Conceptual Discourse

Sovereignty was propounded by Jean Bodin in 1576. Sovereignty is the supreme legal power to make and enforce laws for people within a definite territory without any external control. When sovereignty refers to a state it means that a state is independent of any form of external control. The state has supreme powers over its territory and free from any external control or influence unless it consents to such. Sovereignty equally entails the supreme power in a state. Here it means a person or a group of persons (sovereign) who controls others in the state and who are not under the control of any other external body or persons unless limited by de jure or popular sovereignty (Onyeneho, 2014).

The most familiar statement of the doctrine of sovereignty is a passage by Austin (1790-1859) in his province of Jurisprudence determined (1832),

If a determinate human superior, not in the habit of obedience to a like superior, receive habitual obedience from the bulk of a given society, that determinate superior is sovereign in that society and that society (including the superior) is a society political and independent. Furthermore every positive law or every law simply and strictly so called, is set directly or circuitously, by a sovereign person or body to a member or members of the independent political society wherein that person or body is sovereign or supreme (cited in Appadorai, 1975:49).

The implications of this analytical view of sovereignty and law are three folded:

1. In every state, there must be a sovereign and the sovereign's power is unlimited and indivisible.
2. The sovereign must be clearly located and
3. His commands are law, a law being defined as a command of the state obliging the subject to do, or to refrain from doing certain acts, failure to obey being visited by a penalty (Appadorai, 1975:49).

The concept of sovereignty has been very topical in international politics to the extent that nation states are expected to take decisions regarding their internal and external affairs without interference by any outside power. A sovereign state always endeavours to assert itself in the international comity of nations by means of absolute control of its activities. Sovereignty can be summarized to mean the absolute power of the state in international relations to control its affairs without interference or control from another. As Garba (2001) puts it, sovereignty is the basic principle that governs relationship among nations in the international community.

However, the insufficiency of humans and the logic of complementarity as was posited by Ozumba and Ikegbu (2012), made the notion of globalization and its attendant usurpation of the iron cast sovereignty of states inevitable. Globalization has become a favourite catchphrase of everyone that has been associated with a truly multifaceted phenomenon with implications that encompass not just economic but also the social, political, cultural and geographical spheres. Globalization has been a prominent discourse among geographers, sociologists, economists and political scientists and has been given multifaceted definitions and approach. According to Soros (2001), globalization could mean the development of financial markets, the growth of transnational corporations and their increasing domination over national economies, the spread of television, internet and other forms of communication, the increased mobility and commercialization of ideas and the globalization of information and culture. Giddens (1990), defined globalization as the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa.

Mazrui (cited in Aja, 2001), provides a three historical dimensions of globalization viz. the interactive, comparative scale and competitive dimensions. The interactive era began to take hold in the 15th Century with voyages by intrepid explorers funded by European Monarchs seeking new trade routes. Such voyages included but not limited to Christopher Columbus

(1492) in his Trans-Atlantic trip, Vasco da Gama in his Sea Route to India etc. It continued throughout the years of the imperial expansion of Europe to the colonization era through the mercantilist era. Trading companies like East India Tea Company served as surrogate colonial governments, merging trade with government. About 7th AD, Islam provided additional complexity with impact on language, culture, literature and architecture. This era was interactive.

The comparative scale dimension measures the impacts of the European imperialism and colonialism on say, Africa and Asia. According to Mazrui (cited in Aja, 2001), by linguistic, religious and educational indicators, Africa seemed to be westernizing faster than most Asian Countries. The question is why is fastly westernizing Africa more backward in economic modernization? He contended that Africa developed a capitalist greed without capitalist discipline, innovation, and production. In contrast, Taiwan, South Korea, Hong Kong and the economic superpower Japan adopted mainly the more productive elements of Western civilization and kept at bay those Western cultures at variance with their traditional cultural heritage. The competitive dimension as was postulated by Mazrui (Cited in Aja, 2001), averred that European colonialism created an integrated capitalist structure of unequal exchanges between Europe technologically developed states and the rest of the world. He contended that the world has been polarized into consuming and producing states thereby perpetuating international division of labour. The end result being that Africa got urbanized without industrialization, developed Western tastes without Western skills, capitalist greed without capitalist discipline, Western consumption patterns without Western production techniques, Western culture of letters without Western culture of numbers.

The paper shall concede to the suggestion by Kurdle (1999), that in defining globalization, it should be considered with regard to the specific intent of those using the term. Since the paper interrogates the challenge of sovereignty in a globalised world, it adopted the definition of globalization as espoused by Awake (1999). It defined globalization as the growing interdependence of world people and activities through shrinking space, time and disappearing borders.

Globalization and State Sovereignty

External limitations on sovereignty arise when a state is tied through various linkage groups and processes with much stronger states. This can be in the area of the market for land, labour, materials, and services, including management and technology, and for capital and governmental

services as well as in the areas of educational training, cultural activities and political interaction (Nnoli, 2003).

Thus, the reality of the state, as recognized in Westphalia, has changed drastically. States are no longer equal in power, they are no longer as isolated as before. It is quite easy for one state to interfere in the internal affairs of others through the use of mass communication for propaganda purposes. Indeed, given the discrepancy in power and the greater speed of transformation as well as the growth in dependence and interdependence, one state can now virtually dictate the decision in another state either by conquest or by control over the major needs and wants of that state. Such control is facilitated by the existence of linkage groups in the various countries. These groups such as trading and other business firms and ideological, religious or cultural allies, of one state operating in another, serve to connect the two states and blur the boundary separating them (Nnoli, 2003:24).

Sovereignty as was used in the past means final authority. This assumption is no longer tenable. Writers like Clyde Eagleton, an eminent American scholar of international law was even more apt to have said,

Sovereignty cannot be an absolute term. It is just as foolish to say that sovereignty must be surrendered or eliminated as to say that it must be absolute and unrestrained... the problem is not one of asking whether we should throw off a thing called sovereignty; it is rather one of asking with regard to what matters would we gain by having an international control, and in which matters would we gain more by reserving control to ourselves? (cited in Palmer & Perkins, 2004:13-16).

Certain postulations in recent years have shown that the concept of sovereignty have lost its absolutism in theory and practice. Globalization is one indisputable factor that has undermined the sovereignty of states. Globalization with its inherent advantages have undermined and dislocated the sovereignty of states especially in the developing states. Developing societies are expected to adopt the free market blueprint (Sometimes called Washington Consensus) - opening their economies up to foreign investment, financial deregulation, reductions in government expenditure and budgetary deficits, privatization of government owned enterprises, abolition of protectionism and subsidies, developing export oriented economies or risk the withholding of much needed aid and finance. And because they are required to improve national controls on capital movements which make

it possible for states to reach their own conclusions about investment and spending priorities, the direction of their economic development is increasingly set by amorphous financial markets which act on profit opportunities rather than out of any consideration of national or community interest. The price of financial assistance to aid investment in these states is the loss of their economic sovereignty. The sovereignty of state is replaced by the sovereignty of capital (Burchill and Linklater, 2001).

Morgenthau (1972), corroborated the views of Burchill and Linklater (2001), on the issue of the waning of sovereignty under globalization. He argued that sovereignty is not actual independence in political, military, economic or technological matters. The actual interdependence of nations in those matters and the actual political, military and economic dependence of certain nations upon others make it difficult or impossible for certain nations to pursue independent domestic and foreign policies, but, it does not normally affect their supreme law giving and law enforcing authority within their territories - that is their sovereignty. They may be unable, because of prevailing actual conditions, to enact and enforce the kind of laws which they would wish and which more powerful nations are able to enact and enforce.

Transnational Organizations - Usurper of State Sovereignty

Membership of transnational and supranational organizations like the United Nations (UN), regional organizations like the European Union (EU), the African Union (AU) etc has proven records of having undermined and usurped the sovereignty of many nation states. The activities of international organizations can have quasi legislative, organizational administrative and supervisory as well as jurisdictional effects. One of the primary reasons for Brexit is the apprehension by common Britons that their country's sovereignty has waned under the European Union (EU). They were of the opinion that they were loosing as a country because everything gets decided in Brussels (capital of the EU) and that they would be more independent if they quit the EU (Eze and Otunko, 2017).

The ceding of the oil rich Bakassi by Nigeria to Cameroon (both members of the UN) consequent upon the international court of justice verdict of 10th October, 2002 is quite illustrative. The court sitting in Hague gave its verdict thereby marking the end of the 8-year legal tussle in favour of Cameroon. The verdict required Nigeria to transfer possession and sovereignty over the territory to Cameroon and Nigeria as a consequence lost about 35 communities to Cameroon (Nwogbaga and Nkwede, 2016). However, contemporary international law now envisages situations where

rights and liabilities are created for states without being party to such transactions like the internationalization of human rights. The UN charter, article 2(6) states that the organization shall ensure that states that are not members of the UN shall act in accordance with UN charter.

Multinational Corporations (Mncs) - A Violation of State Sovereignty

A multinational corporation is a giant private business firm or company with its headquarters in the parent country and subsidiaries operating in more than one state. The multinational co-operation (MNC) means more than merely trading. It implies ownership of manufacturing plants and/or resource extraction and processing operations in a variety of countries. They are virtually into all aspects of human life (Aja, 2001).

The domineering presence of foreign corporations in the host society is characterized as constituting a form of cultural imperialism, or coca-cola-ization of the society, through which the developing country loses control over its culture and its social development. The foreign corporations is viewed as undermining the traditional values of the society and introducing through its advertising and business practices new values and tastes inappropriate to the host nation. Some view these foreign values as not only bad in themselves but as detrimental to the development of the country because they create demands for luxury and other goods that do not meet the true needs of the masses (Gilpen, 1987).

There has been numerous instances where MNCs aided and abetted the ousting of sitting governments. Chilean government under El Salvado in 1973 was overthrown with the help of IIT. In Nigeria, it was alleged that some oil MNCs had a hand in overthrowing General Murtala Mohammed in 1976. They have also been involved in similar tendencies in Nicaragua, Cuba, Haiti, Libya, Iraq and Panama. MNCs are also ready instruments of parent countries to achieve any desired political and economic goals, be it economic assistance or economic sanction (Aja, 2001).

International Financial Institutions - A Negation of State Sovereignty.

International financial institutions like International Monetary Fund (IMF), International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) or World Bank, African Development Bank (ADB) and other rich international nongovernmental financial institutions undoubtedly have negated the sovereignty of states.

The Breton Woods, New Hamshire, USA conference of July 1944, gave birth to International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) or World Bank. As a

creation of the Western capitalist economies, the IMF is not meant to serve the interest of every nation state. The Western countries of course, have an upper hand as every state is not part of its ownership. This understanding is vital for the less developed countries (LDCs) to appreciate why the IMF conditionalities are more unfavourable to them. Much could not be expected from an international institution that has a clearly defined objective mainly for the industrialized Western countries (Aja, 2001).

Burchill and Linklater; (2001) aptly and lucidly contended, developing societies are expected to adopt the free market blueprint (sometimes called Washington consensus) - opening their economies up to foreign investment, financial de-regulation, reductions in government expenditure and budgetary deficits, privatization of government owned enterprises, abolition of protectionism and subsidies, developing export oriented economies or risk the withholding of much needed aid and finance. And because they are required to improve national controls on capital movements which make it possible for states to reach their own conclusions about investment and spending priorities, the direction of their economic development is increasingly set by amorphous financial markets which act on profit opportunities rather than out of any consideration of national community interest. The price of financial assistance to aid investment in these states is the loss of their economic sovereignty. The sovereignty of the state is replaced by the sovereignty of capital.

Summary and Conclusion

Globalization is a necessary evil. This is primarily for the incontestable fact that no nation has been able to attain autarchy or autarky. Every nation leans on others for vital resources not within its territorial limits. Ozumba and Ikegbu (2002) argued that the insufficiency of humans and the logic of complementarity made the evolution of globalization inevitable. Globalization is a game and like every other game creates a situation of interdependence and domination. It creates interdependence because every nation depends on others to survive. It equally creates domination as some nations that are militarily, economically, technologically and politically superior to others call the shots and dictate the tide in the globalization game.

It has severally been argued that globalization benefits everyone. It generates and distributes wealth, delivers cheaper and more varied products and services. It is equally believed that it encourages democratization, private enterprise is better at wealth creation than the state. Moreover, states have a tendency to abuse their power but globalization offers a degree of individual

freedom that no individual state can ensure. Free competition on a global scale has liberated inventive and entrepreneurial talents and accelerated technological innovations (Soros, 2002).

Globalization has however been criticized for its lopsidedness. It is believed to have benefited the developed states more. Many people particularly in the less developed countries, have been hurt by globalization without being supported by a social safety net; many others have been marginalized by global markets. Globalization have caused a misallocation of resources between public goods and private goods. Markets are not designed to take care of other social needs (Soros, 2002).

“Beneficium accipere libatatem est vendere” (to accept gift is to sell one’s freedom), the Latin would say. When nations receive financial and technical aids, they do so under very stringent and unfavourable conditions that may impinge on their sovereignty depending on certain variables. However, Aja (2001) made it abundantly clear that no nation can shun foreign direct investment. The policy option for states is to develop self first to be able to control the negative effects of MNCs so as to reap a measure of gains from their interactions with them. Countries determine their gains or loses as measured by their overall strengths or weaknesses.

Recommendations

1. Nation states should always consider their internal and external settings, and take rational decisions for purposes of national interest in line with political realism, the wind of globalization notwithstanding.
2. Nation states should shore up their technological, economic and political base to remain relevant in the globalization game.
3. Nation states should evolve vertical or home grown technology, as technology transfer or horizontal technology has proved to be a fluke

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Psychosocial Strategies for Managing Social Withdrawal among Primary School Pupils

Mohammed Ibrahim Baji

Abstract

This paper focused on psychosocial strategies for managing social withdrawal among primary school pupils. Social withdrawal is a syndrome of avoiding people and activities which one would usually enjoy or participate. Psychosocial strategies are provisions of psychological and social support and resources to a person for the benefit of the individual to cope with problems or challenging situations. The underlying causes of social withdrawal such as anxiety attack, agoraphobia, family crises and a history of abuse, loss of a loved one, and nature and type of parenting styles used have been discussed. The effects of social withdrawal such as maternal deprivation syndrome, depression, emotional challenges in a form of feeling of loneliness, shame, guilt, fear of others and negative self-esteem have also been analyzed. The paper has discussed the psychosocial strategies for managing social withdrawal. These include psychotherapy, psycho education, self-help strategy, psychosocial rehabilitation, modeling and training for solving social problems. The paper recommends that primary school pupils should be trained and coached on social interaction and social skills as well as be reinforced for socially appropriate behaviours, to assist in addressing the problem of social withdrawal among them.

Introduction

Social withdrawal is a syndrome of avoiding people and activities which one would usually enjoy. For some people, social withdrawal can transcend to a point of social isolation (avoidance of contact with family members, close friends and associates). Social withdrawal therefore is a fear of or withdrawal from people or social situations (Milter, Perlman, & Brehu, 2007).

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Social withdrawal is a state of lack of contact between an individual and the society. However, social withdrawal differs from loneliness which reflects a temporary lack of contact with other fellow beings. Social withdrawal is a developmental issue for individuals of any age, class or personality type. It is associated with anxiety problems which occur from person to person; with multiple causes. In this context, social withdrawal syndrome represents the developmental outcome of specific and particular temperamental dispositions which has a severe detrimental effect to a child's social development and academic achievements (Rubin & Caplan, 2010). Primary school pupils are children of age from 6-12 years who are enrolled into the primary education level. One of the objectives of primary education among others is to: "... instill social, moral norms and values in the child, and develop in the child the ability to adapt to the changing environment." (National Policy on Education, 2014). Therefore, children of primary school have developmental needs which parents, teachers, and other caregivers are required to play vital roles by providing them with the opportunity of meeting those needs. Baji (2013) has identified the following needs of children:

1. The need for love and affections
2. The need for achievement
3. The need for belonging
4. The need for self-respect
5. The need to be free from deep feeling of fears
6. The need to be free from deep feeling of guilt
7. The need for economic security
8. The need for understanding of self

Thus, children are supposed to be protected while in school from danger, fear, rejection, fighting, bullying and other forms of violent acts to avoid creating an environment for withdrawal syndrome. Hence, supporting primary school pupils that suffer from social withdrawal to gain sense of belonging in schools through psychosocial strategies is paramount for their social and emotional well-being as well as academic success.

Contextually, psychosocial strategies refer to several key areas related to psychological and social functioning which is available to provide necessary supports for better adjustment of people. Psychosocial strategies are deliberate efforts that bring to bear experiences of individuals in order to achieve good fitness in the environment. Psychosocial strategies involve the provision of psychological and social resources to a person to enhance his/her ability to cope with problems and varying situations. Psychosocial

strategies aimed at easing normal life and preventing pathological consequences of potentially traumatic situations. This might be in forms of informational and instrumental supports. Thus, children who have severe problems of social withdrawal run a serious risk of developing lifelong patterns of social maladjustment (Rubin & Coplan, 2010). Similarly, Kauffman Hermanns, Ory, and Schrijvers (2005) stated that the emergence of social, emotional and behavioural problems in children depends on the individual child's predisposition and the social context such as the home and the school environment.

One important aspect of the social context is the school where children and young people spend a considerable amount of their time. Unfriendly school environment contributes to the development and or exacerbation of social, emotional and behavioural difficulties among children. The problems posed by unfriendly school environment in children and young people therefore call for collective efforts to manage and reduce the risk of pupils from developing such difficulties and to intervene as early as possible through research.

Theoretical Framework on Social Withdrawal

Theories are perspectives that are conceived to explain a concept or a phenomenon. In this paper, the theoretical models or viewpoints on social interaction and withdrawal by Piaget, Mead and Sullivan have been presented. First, is the view of Piaget (1932). Piaget portrayed children's relationships with peers as being relatively balanced, egalitarian and falling along a more or less horizontal plane of power assertion and dominance. According to Piaget, children experience opportunities to examine conflicting ideas and explanations, and to negotiate and discuss multiple perspectives held by peers within the egalitarian context. Piaget argued that children develop the ability to understand the thoughts, feelings, and literal viewpoints of others to form the basis for socially competent behaviour and development of meaningful and rich social relationships (Rubin, Bowker, Gazelle, 2010). Mead (1934) was another early theorist who postulated the significance of social interaction. Mead posited the role of the development of perspective taking through peer interaction. He maintained that participation in organized, rule-governed activities with peers, children learn to consider and coordinate the perspectives of multiple others with respect to the self. The experiences gained from such perspective taking lead children to the conceptualization of the generalized or organized perspective of the social group, which in turn, lead to the emergence of an organized sense of self. Furthermore, the classic personality theory of Sullivan (1953) has

provided a guide concerning children's peer relationships and social skills. Sullivan believed that the concepts of mutual respect, equality, and reciprocity developed from peer relationships. He argued that the intimacy of children's same-sex chum ships during the juvenile years and beyond promote the psychological well-being and identity development of the child, which contribute to romantic relationships among children.

Social withdrawal, in this context, focuses on primary school children who are socially fearful and shy while in the school setting or environment. The rationale for undertaking this study is as a result of the fact that some primary school children are not only adverse to peer interactions but also lack a strong motivation and self-efficacy to engage other peers in social interactions. This low social-approach motivation in children which is labeled as unsociability (Asendorpf, 1991) and social disinterest (Coplan, Arbeau, & Armer, 2008) has been characterized by the combination of low social-approach and high social-avoidance motivations (lack of motivation to engage others in social interactions) among primary school pupils which requires management and intervention through psychosocial strategies.

Causes of Social Withdrawal

Social withdrawal is a potential symptom of emotional or psychological challenges which vary from person to person. Its underlying causes depend on the manner and level of manifestation of anxiety among people. Thus, Miller, Perlman, Brehm, (2010), Rubin and Coplan, (2010) and Woodward, (2015) have identified the following as causes of social withdrawal:

1. Anxiety attacks: Individuals who suffer from anxiety often develop fears of anxiety attacks before public, thereby making them to retreat from the society, staying indoor and avoiding the world around them. children who suffer from some symptoms of anxiety such as racing heart, sweating, paleness, and shaking are relatively weak, and therefore become disinterested and simply keep away from peers because of the unbearably nature provoking them to be present in social situations. Thus, the fear of social embarrassment and or rejection can play a significant role in a child's decision to keep away from peers and school activities.
2. Social phobia: Social phobia is an irrational fear of social interactions. This involves making obsessive, negative assumptions about what people think of a person, the judgment they may be making and the consequences that can come from such predispositions. Hence, those who have social phobia often avoid meeting people because of how

bad their anxiety may make them feel about themselves which eventually lead them to withdrawal.

3. Withdrawal in some cases may be a symptom of anxiety. Social withdrawal may be a symptom of anxiety. Many people who deal with stressful situations often feel overwhelming to stay alone. However, staying alone may make anxiety worsen and stuck in one's mind and thought. Hence, emotional support from people around a person is beneficial to the one's emotional wellbeing, self-esteem and mental health.
4. Agoraphobia: Agoraphobia is a condition in which crowded or unfamiliar spaces cause anxiety (Daniel, 2018). The symptoms may range from mild discomfort with the society and new places or people. Agoraphobia commonly occurs as a result of anxiety attack where the children affected become afraid to leave their homes or places of residence because they tend to get attack when they are out of their comfort zone (Daniel, 2018).
5. Poor teacher-child relationships: Children who have poor relationship and less closeness with teachers are at predictive risks for a number of school adjustment difficulties such as social interactions. Thus, primary school children require more attention and greater dependency from teachers for feeling of belongingness.
6. Family crises and a history of abuse and abandonment: When family members are imbued with crises, it causes actions of its members to harm the children. This situation may make those children to end up in shocks, panics, which eventually lead them to the feeling of inadequacy, neglect and social withdrawal.
7. Loss of a loved one: Studies have shown that widows who keep in contact with friends or relatives have better psychological health and fewer depressive symptoms (Woodward, 2015 & Steve & Nicola, 2017). Thus, cases of marriage separations and deaths are responsible for single parenthoods which may cause over rejection of children as a result of unmet needs; which contribute to social withdrawal syndrome.
8. Nature of parenting styles used on children socialization process: The nature of parenting style used to raise children determines the kind of socialization pattern the children will imbibe. Therefore, different parenting styles evolve and play dominant roles on children socialization process among families. Parents who are overly protective, intrusive, over controlling and directive tend to over manage situations for their children. As a result, children who are raised by autocratic nature of

parenting may not develop necessary coping and problem-solving strategies in their interpersonal affairs (Oduolowu, 2011). Similarly, when family members are cold, unresponsive, unavailable or abusive, children might become socially isolated..

9. Poor attachment: The primary attachment between the mother and infants usually develop during the first year of life. The history of a socially withdrawn profile begins with newborn babies who are biologically predisposed to have a low threshold for arousal when confronted with social stimulation and novelty by the mothers or caregivers ((Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978)). This hyper arousal tendency may make these babies difficult for their parents or caregivers to soothe and comfort. Maternal sensitivity and responsiveness influence whether the relationship will be secure or insecure. This situation, in turn, causes overprotective and oversolicious parenting, which are posited to predict the development of an insecure parent-infants attachment. Secure attachment predicts social competence, whereas insecurity predicts both externalizing (aggression) and internalizing (social withdrawal) among children (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978).
10. Social withdrawal may coincide with developmental delays, learning disabilities and neurological disorders. For example, Cardona and Chronister, (2009) have found that individuals with learning deficits or impairments may have trouble with social interaction.
11. Depression: The relationship between depression and social withdrawal is bidirectional. Social withdrawal may lead to depression because of unmet needs which is suppressed while depression can cause social withdrawal (Myklestad, Roysamb, Tambs, 2012).
12. Physical disabilities or illness: Physical illness and deficiency has influence on social relationships of children. When a child is faced with a physical illness or challenge such as muscular dystrophy or conditions that are stigmatized, family members, close friends and peers start to spend less time with the affected child or the individual child may begin to pull away from people for fear of embarrassment, causing withdrawal syndrome.
13. Negative thoughts and feelings: Children's temperaments and feeling of insecurity may cause them onto trajectory toward behavioural inhibition (Buhs& Ladd, 2001; Oh, Rubin, Bowker, Booth-laforce, Rosekrasnor, &Laursen, 2008). Thus, negative thoughts and feelings of inadequacy due to social interactive failure among primary children may result into perceived helplessness; low self-esteem and negative

self-perception of social skills which consequently make the insecure children withdraw from the social worlds and become isolated from the peer group.

14. Unemployment: Children whose parents or guardians are fired or dismissed from jobs or workplaces, they tend to lose their means of livelihood due to financial bankruptcy. This situation has the risk of causing psychological and emotional problems to the children, which if not resolved, the symptoms could be imminent toward social withdrawal (Daniel, 2018).
15. Societal adversity: Adversities and episodes stemming from the society may cause people the desire to avoid dangers, discomforts, and threats. These unpleasant adversities induce hardships in dealing with primary school children, a circumstance that is enough to cause social withdrawal for fear of hostilities.

Effects of Social withdrawal

The following have been found as effects of social withdrawal:

1. Children who are isolated during the early years of their lives are less playful than those who are properly socialized (Miller, Perlman & Brehn, 2007).
2. Children who were deprived of social interactions as babies often suffer maternal deprivation syndrome, which manifests itself in the form of failure to thrive. They are also less responsive to the environment and poor relationship with their mother or caregivers (Woodward, 2015).
3. Children who are raised in isolation or in a setting where there is less human interactions exhibit a tendency of slowed language skills and development. The sensory and social deprivation may cause children to be severely delayed in language acquisition putting them at risk of being permanently socially disabled (Steve & Nicola, 2017).
4. Children who are isolated as infants often develop disturbing behaviour and troubles in connecting and mingling with their peers (Woods & Hollis, 1999). There is also evident of peer rejection, victimization, and poor friendship. (Rubin, Root, & Bowker, 2010).
5. Pupils who are withdrawn may be experiencing depression which can have an impact on their studies such as having difficulty in concentrating or completing work on time, decline in school attendance, and feelings of academic failure (Myklestad, Roysamb, Tambs, 2012).
6. Social withdrawal syndrome may lead individual child to the use of substance and alcoholic abuses in attempt to relieve tension and

frustration (Qualter, Brown, Munn, & Rotenberg, 2010).

7. Social withdrawal can lead to emotional challenges such as feelings of loneliness, shame, guilt, fear of others, negative self-esteem, trouble sleeping, ill-interpersonal relationships, and alienation during childhood (Steve & Nicola, 2017).

Psychosocial Strategies for Managing Social Withdrawal

The following strategies are recommended (Miller, Perlman & Brehm 2007; Scott, 2007; Cardoso & Chronister, 2009; & Rubin & Coplan, 2006).

1. **Psychotherapy:** This is called the talk therapy. Psychotherapy is a technique which individuals, family, couples or group of people sit down and talk with a therapist or other mental health provider to provide solutions to psychological problems. Psychotherapy helps children learn about their moods, thoughts, behaviors and how they influence their lives. Psychotherapy also provides ways to help children restructure their thinking and respond to stress and other conditions appropriately.
2. **Psycho Education:** Psycho education is a strategy that teaches people about their illness and how they will receive treatment. The application of this strategy includes providing education for family and friends, where they learn things like coping strategies, problem solving skills and how to apply same to solve problem of social withdrawal among children. Family psycho education can help ease tension at home, which could assist the child experiencing withdrawal syndrome to recover.
3. **Self - help and support strategy:** Self - help strategy is used to address the feeling of isolation through providing insight for the clients into their mental health conditions. Parents and teachers may apply this strategy by sharing the feelings of frustrations and successes with primary school pupils to provide them with tips on how to manage social withdrawal tendency through formation of emotional ties and friendship to address the syndrome.
4. **Psychosocial rehabilitation:** Psychosocial rehabilitation helps people develop the social, emotional and intellectual skills they need in order to live happily with the smallest amount of professional assistance they can manage. Psychosocial rehabilitation uses two strategies for intervention: these include learning the coping skills so that one can be more successful in handling a stressful environment and developing resources that reduce future stressors. This technique could be used on primary school pupils in order to help them develop coping skills

when faced with stressful situations that can lead them to social withdrawal syndrome.

5. **Social Skill Training (SST):** This involves training in verbal and non-verbal communication skills (Daniel, 2018). Its components include coaching, modeling and training of the individual for solving social problems. Social training skill programmes should be designed specifically to meet particular needs of shy and socially withdrawn children among primary school pupils to enhance their social interaction with their peers.
6. **Use of peer-mediated strategy:** This is a strategy that consists of peer-pairing and facilitated play which incorporates socially withdrawn children to take part and participate in social activities along with other peers to boost their interactions (Rubin, Root, & Bowker, 2010). Peer-mediated strategy should be used by a way of pairing a socially withdrawn primary school child with another peer in a predetermined activity to make he/she mingle with others so as to expand his/her sociability.
7. **Use of Emotional Regulation and Expressiveness:** This is an approach in which children who are withdrawn are coached and regulated to express little negative internalizing emotions such as sadness, anxiety and fearfulness. This approach is used as a protective measure for primary school children who are withdrawn against rejection and victimization by their peers (Degnan, & Fox, 2007).
8. **Education and Training Programmes for Parents and Teachers:** Parents and teachers who are knowledgeable and well trained about developmental challenges and behavioural inhibited characteristics of children are sensitive to their needs. Thus, parents who encourage children's independence, provide opportunities for peer interactions and promote parent-child relationships help their children to become less inhibited and more socially skilled.
9. **School-based Approach:** School-based approach such as warm-supportive classroom, smooth transitions and friendly school environment benefit shy and wary primary school pupils and assist to minimize barriers, difficulties and stress that are associated with meeting unfamiliar peers and unconducive learning environment. (Buhs & Ladd, 2001 & Gazelle, 2006).
10. **Engaging primary school pupils in organized skills and sports that are valued to them and the community:** Engaging primary school pupils who are socially withdrawn to participate in extracurricular activities

such as clubs and sports will improve their positive thinking and make them feel valued about themselves and the social worlds (Coplan, Arbeau, & Armer, 2008).

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered:

1. Children should be trained by parents, teachers and caregivers to get involved in play groups in order to facilitate their play with other peers for better sociability.
2. Parents or teachers should apply talking strategies when they suspect withdrawal syndrome from their school children to find out the reason why they do not want to mingle or play with other children for prompt intervention.
3. Children should be praised or rewarded by parents or teachers for socially appropriate behaviour for better social activities in future.
4. Children should be educated on effects of shyness and isolation through story books or other activities to unlearn them from the symptoms of withdrawal.
5. Social skills training should be organized by parents, teachers and caregivers for shy children to help improve their conversational skills. The children could use these conversational skills during unstructured situations and/or around unfamiliar people for proper adjustment.
6. Children should be encouraged for a high sense of humor. Jokes are a possible way for children to interact and communicate, as long as they are not making fun of others.
7. The classroom or school environment should be designed and organized to support all areas of individual differences among school children.
8. School children should be encouraged to participate in social clubs and activities (e.g., scouts, sports, festivals, etc.) to expand their social interaction among their peers.
9. Parents, teachers and caregivers should build a trusted relationship with their school children by talking relating freely, setting realistic expectations, being supportive, and encouraging to boost social relations among them.

Conclusion

Human being is a product of biological and social factors. As children develop, they interact in a number of various social arenas including the school. Social withdrawn children frequently refrain from social activities. This may result from a variety of causes, including social fear and anxiety,

poor parenting and attachment, and unfriendly school and classroom environments. The effect of social withdrawal on children is systemic and is significantly correlated with school difficulties, lack of close friends or peer difficulties, and negative adjustment outcomes such as emotional or behavioural problems. . Consequent upon this, proffering psychosocial strategies to provide social support for school children to spend time with peers and friends is a strong protective measure toward managing the consequences of social withdrawal among primary school pupils.

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Strengthening Nigeria's Border Security through Policy Restructuring

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Abstract

This paper examines the security situation in Nigerian borderlands. Border communities of Nigeria differ significantly in the sense that the composition of people in western borderlands of the Yoruba as they share cultural identity with their cross-border neighbours, communities in the northern boarders share a lot with the Chadians and the citizens of the Republic of Niger on the ground of religion and other cultural elements. Using the descriptive approach, the paper reveals that trans-border cultural affinity mainly fosters insecurity of lives and properties, being the problem this paper addresses, results from the activities of cross-boarder religious fundamentalists who assist their Kiths and Kin within northern Nigeria, on one hand and to the more realistic views that trans-border smuggling of contraband goods have more to do with people contiguous to Nigeria-Benin border on the other hand. While all these views hold on the subject, that is the nexus between insecurity in Nigeria and trans-border interactions, the paper aims at addressing the present problem of insecurity through re-structuring border-related policies and proffering measures for their adherence. It was discovered that while Nigeria spends huge amount of money to tackle problems posed by the porous borders, both border communities and national security operatives have frustrated this effort.

Introduction

Nigerian society in general, is governed by fear among the citizens and the foreigners. Since two decades, there has been persistent cases of religious and political killings as well as those that arose from social agitations for either self-determination or for a place in national politics. The whole events culminated to the smuggling of light arms and illegal migration of other

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peoples of west and central Africa into Nigeria. The presence of other people in Nigeria, particularly, those with Islamic orientation are believed by some non-Muslim southerners to be responsible for fomenting the various crises that have claimed countless lives in the country. To some southerners, the “Faceless Boko Haram group” and the nascent Fulani herdsmen are migrants, from Chad and Niger across the international boundaries in the north to continue the unfinished Fulani Jihad of the 19th century. These are speculations that lack evidential supports. On the contrary, it may be difficult to jettison this claim on the ground that the targets and larger casualties number among the Christian population of the country and had not received an equivalent measure of security attention that silenced the risen Biafran agitators in the southeast.¹

Besides insecurity resulting from religious fundamentalism, there are economic challenges which are prompted by the porous borders. On a more realistic view on the economy, some comments should be made. The history of the influx of illegal immigrants into Nigeria dates back to the late 1975 following the ratification and coming into being of Economic Communities of West African States (ECOWAS)². For Nigeria, it was the economic boom which doted popular sectors that was the major attraction. People from neighbouring countries of Benin, Togo and others from mainly ECOWAS states were absorbed and adapted at various economic levels, to the extent that their presence constituted no danger to Nigeria and her citizens: “these illegal immigrants were to be found engaged in works ranging from household keepers, teachers to construction site workers”. Part of a season of great opportunities and prosperity for the immigrants came in 1977, when Nigeria hosted the All Black World Festival of Arts and Culture (FESTAC). Immigrants took part in major construction works done in Lagos, in preparation for the Black World event. The construction works done include the works at Festival Town, the National Theatre Iganmu, overhead bridges, the Lagos-Ibadan express way, and other projects too numerous to list. Immigrants gained immensely from Nigeria’s booming economy since the introduction of ECOWAS.

The above social conditions are pointers to the porosity of Nigerian borders that require attention through serious border policy options which may imply borrowing from the past options that were neglected or a restructure from the past options that were neglected or a restructure of present border-related policies. The ideas of this paper are timely and would no doubt boost the security situation of this country. It should be said furthermore, that border security, means building up serious defence measures that could prevent encroachment of illegal immigrants into Nigeria,

stop incessant movement of contraband goods and close up all the bush paths created by border communities for the purpose of unrestricted movement by national security operatives. Policy means decision or law made by National assembly and implemented through the National Boundary Commission (NBC). These policies should be able to address the challenges posed by the international boundaries of Nigeria. Restructuring suggests that a portion or an entire body of border policies is undergoing amendment or needs to be amended. Borderlands are the landmass close to international boundaries that are inhabited by people called border community(ies). The roles of the above variables in determining the depth of Nigeria's border security and the need to restructure any of them for a robust border which guarantees stable society and economic prosperity is the concern of this paper.

Nigeria's Borderlands: Security Warnings

The poor state of infrastructural and other aspects of development in the borderlands to a high degree may account for a poor security situation in these areas. In this case, Asiwaju noted among all things that:

As periphery of the Nigerian State, the nation's borderlands are among the most neglected of the Proverbially Neglected Rural Majority – to use the favourite phrase of a Nigerian scholar and expert. Modern communication and transportation network peter out as one approaches the nation's frontier zones in most localities. There is no provisions of such basic human need as food, water, clothing and shelter beyond the local peoples' own effort: no standard health and medical facilities, no standard educational institutions; for most localities, no electricity, no planned housing schemes, and of course no industries.³

The quest for survival would no doubt, suggest that available lands that had not been fully utilized and yet around the international boundaries offer smugglers and migrants the very opportunity to perpetuate their illicit dealings in the area. Little wonder then that in the borderlands are to be found some of the most primitive cultures in the world, including, e.g. the nudickoma in the Taraba-Benue State sector of the border with Cameroon and the only slightly better developed Ohiri-Ije in the Yewa North Local Government of Ogun State. What border people often get is the rough sides of state as made visible in the activities of its forceful apparatuses, especially the paramilitary border-enforcement agencies, whose conduct generally tends to generate negative attitude to Government. Those attitudes

have the effect of separating rather than integrating the peripheries of the nation to its centres.

The neglect of border regions is a threat to national security, the Sokoto State military Governor, Colonel Ahmed Daku, warned in 1989 in Lagos, "when people are neglected, they tend to lean to wherever they are cared for, said the governor in a comment at the nation conference in that year on the development of border regions. He cautioned that it was necessary to keep close contact with the border regions and provide them with social amenities or "they will be lured away".⁴

Kwara State Governor then, Group Captain Ibrahim Alkali, said to enhance a lasting solution to frequent border clashes between Nigerian border communities and neighbouring states, army, police, customs and immigration officers should be established in the border communities equipped and manned for best results. Governor Alkali called for the provision of a good road network along the nation's border.⁵

In like manner, Colonel Tunde Ogbeha, the Governor of the then Bendel State, said that besides the poor demarcation of Nigeria's international boundaries, economic and political factors had always militated against the success of the programme. Governor Ogbeha argued further that since border communities would always interact socially and economically, every plan for the development of the border areas should always be co-ordinated. He suggested that there was need for accessibility of the nation's coastal regions to ease transportation.⁶ To ensure a satisfactory development of Nigeria's border trade with her neighbours, the then Lagos State Governor, Colonel Raji Rasaki suggested that markets should be established at designated border settlements to complement state and local government efforts within state. He added that the ECOWAS multilateral agreements, bilateral chamber of commerce and banking facilities should be established to encourage trade.⁷

It is worthy of being noted also, that the old Gongola State Governor, Wing Commander, Isa Mohammed mentioned the need for Nigeria's border communities to be declared special areas which would enjoy adequate planning and yearly federal financing.⁸ Navy Captain Mohammed of Ogun State equally called for an enlightenment programme to public functionaries to the region concerned to cement the existing bonds between Nigeria and Benin Republic.⁹

Guardian newspaper of 12 August, 1989 indeed reported that Governors called for Federal Presence in border areas the previous day saying that the states and councils alone could not keep the watch. They

complained that the terrain was usually difficult to police and the areas too far from state capitals, not to mention lack of funds to develop them for an effective Nigerian presence.¹⁰

The Sokoto State Governor Lt, Col. Ahmed Daku, also called for joint effort of the three-tiers of government to redress the imbalance between the centre and the peripheries, adding that border communities were critical areas of security as they first felt the impact of outside influence. He added that when people are neglected, they tend to go to where they can be catered for, hence “the government has to provide social services in border communities so as to pull them to the centre and discourage them from looking across the boarder for the good things of life”.¹¹

On the nexus between Infrastructure and Security, Wing Commander Isa Mohammed, the military administrator of then Gongola noted that:

...existing socio-cultural ties in border communities made it difficult, on occasions to know who is a Nigerian. It is pathetic that all boarder councils headquarters in Gongola State views and listen to the Cameroonian radio and watch their television programmes with ease, while they cannot receive signals from their home states... With the dearth of social infrastructures in the border regions of the state that spans about 960 kilometres, the state could be termed the peripheral state of Nigeria, while its border communities could be regarded as the peripheral communities of the peripheral state.¹²

This situation in the borderlands of the Gongola alienated the communities in the frontier zone of the state or it offered the dual nationalities with approval from the second state. The solution to this problem is infrastructural facilities corroborating infrastructural panacea to border security lapses, Wing Commander, Mohammed, noted the need among other things to:

demarcate and survey the nation's boundaries in order to easily determine the nationality of trans-border communities; regularize trans-border trade as it enhances the economy of the border communities and reduce border hostility; provide social infrastructural facilities to enhance development in border regions; create more border posts to check illegal routes; set up more joint border patrols to check robbery and banditry; and set up joint trans-border commission to ensure peaceful coexistence in the border regions¹³

Boko Haram Offensive and the Trans-border Question

The group's name has always been *Jama'atu Abli is-Sunnah Lid-Da'wativak-jihad*, which implies "Group of the people of Sunnah for Dawa and Jihad". It was briefly known as *Wilayat GarbIfrgiya*, meaning "West African Province", between March 2015 and August 2016 while it was part of the Islamic State.¹⁴ It should be said that the mission of this group is to expand Islamic evangelism and making converts through every effective means in West Africa. The continuation of the 19th Century Islamic Jihad was in view. It should be noted that the restricting State's military would serve as serious inhibition to movement across West African international boundaries and efforts at bringing local people under subjection. So, have at times been penetrated by force through persistent attacks and Southerners living in the northern part of Nigeria have to see reasons to quit the land. Based on the foregoing, since 2008, both ethnic and international boundaries of Nigeria have often been crossed for secret and open attacks of other Nigerian Citizens that bear Western orientation that is highly forbidden by the Boko Haram group.

The United Nations (UN) has said that the demarcation of the Cameroon-Nigeria border continues to face challenges due to insecurity in area affected by the presence of Boko Haram. There is a video contained in the 'Report of the Secretary-General, Antonio Guterres, on the activities of the UN Office for West Africa and the Sahel (UNOWAS). Guterres also cited the unrest in the English-Speaking region of Cameroon-Nigeria Mixed Commission. He noted further:

Insecurity in areas affected by Boko Haram continued to hinder the activities of the Cameroon-Nigeria Mixed Commission in northernmost regions of the land boundary, between the two countries. Social and political unrest in the English-Speaking northern-Western and Southern regions of Cameroon raised additional security concerns. As a result, the demarcation of the border and the subsequent emplacement of pillars continued to be a challenge.¹⁵

Against the background of trans-border insecurity noted above, parties to the Mixed Commission met in Lagos, Nigeria, on March 19-20, 2018 to finalise the implementation of reinforced security measures for field operations. In this regard, Mr Guterres noted the activities of his special Representative for West Africa and Sahel, Mohammed Ibn Chambas, who also served as chair of the Mixed Commission.

On the performance of his Representative, Guterres mentioned that Chambas, on March 18, 2018 in Abuja and on May 15 in Yaounde, engaged in bilateral consultations with the heads of the Nigerian and Cameroonian delegations to work on outstanding areas of disagreement. He avers:

Overall, the parties reaffirmed their commitment to implementing the judgement of the International Court of Justice, ICJ, of October 2002 and to fully demarcating the land and maritime boundaries shared by the two countries. My special Representative also successfully concluded fund raising efforts to replenish a trust fund for pillar construction along the land boundary. Consequently, pillar emplacement is expected to resume in October 2018 at the end of the rainy season.¹⁶

On the conflicts between herdsman and farmers, he noted that UNOWAS supported the ECOWAS commission in the development of a regional action plan on trans-human. Guterres also said that the office established an informal working group on pastoralism and conflict prevention with the participation of the UN and regional entities working on the issue.

There are reports on joint efforts of Nigeria, Chad and Niger in combating trans-border attacks of Boko Haram militants. On this note, consider:

DIFFA, Niger-Two Chadian army helicopters bombed Nigerian Boko Haram Positions on Sunday, killing several dozen militants near a village on the border with Niger, a senior Niger military official told Reuters. . . Niger and Chadian soldiers have been fighting the Islamist militants in a joint mission with Nigeria and Cameroon since March 2, in a bid to end Boko Haram. . . six-year insurgency in northern Nigeria that is threatening regional stability. The helicopters destroyed several vehicles and motorcycles carrying fighters in the Nigerian village of Djaboullam, which lies east across the border from the Niger town of Diffa. . . Niger and Chad had received intelligence that a group of Boko Haram fighters had gathered in the border village. . . The Niger military officer, who requested anonymity, said Boko Haram fighters had moved to Djaboullam after they were chased from other towns by the Nigerian army. Militants were also gathering in other border towns from where they routinely launched mortar rounds into Niger. . . The regional offensive launched this year comes as Nigeria. . . most populous country and biggest economy, prepares to hold elections on March 28. . . The offensive has succeeded in driving the militants from several towns and

districts they previously held. Chad and Niger forces captured the town of Damasak from the militants last week¹⁷

The media indeed, is a good channel for spreading information; those pieces of information that are generally known to be true and those that are subject to further verification. With this lengthy information on security measures in the borderlands of Nigeria by Boko Haram activities has been forgotten. Realistically, the situation is far beyond what the media paints of it. People are killed persistently in the country with little restraint from the Federal military might of Nigeria. Those who saw how the rising Biafra agitators were suppressed are not skeptic of Nigerian military might being capable of dragging Boko Haram and trans-human activities to extinction.

Ahmed Salkida, a journalist, reported the security situation in Nigeria-Chad borders. He states:

... With the rise of the waters in the Lake Chad basin, military campaigns are heavily limited, but for the insurgents, this has turned out to be the best season for carrying out isolated attacks as the last few weeks have proven. There has been a precipitous increase in Boko Haram attacks recently, yet most of the attacks go unreported. It is important, especially at a time when the government is planning on relocating IDPs for the military to be more transparent and allow independent reporting on the crisis. Those that are going to be relocated must never be misled to do so, they, and the rest of the Nigerian public have a right to independent reporting on the current conflict dynamics in the region, in order to decide whether or not, it is safe for them to return to their villages in north-east Nigeria and Lake Chad region at large.¹⁸

The report of Ahmed shows that not all gruesome atrocities committed by the Boko Haram group is reported. The attack of multinational military base in the Lake Chad area and the killing of ten (10) Nigerian soldiers has been derived.

Borderlands Economy and Unresolved Security Challenges

The history of the influx of illegal immigrants into Nigeria dates back to the late 1975 following the ratification and coming into being of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS).¹⁹ For Nigeria, it was the economic boom which doted popular sectors that was the major attraction. People from neighbouring countries of Benin, Togo and others from mainly ECOWAS States were absorbed and adapted at various economic levels, to the extent that their presence constituted no danger to

Nigeria and her citizens: “these illegal immigrants were to be found engaged in works ranging from household keepers, teachers to construction site workers”. Part of a season of great opportunities and prosperity for the immigrants came in 1977, when /Nigeria hosted the All Black World Festival of Arts and Culture (FESTAC). Immigrants took part in major construction works done in Lagos, in preparation for the Black World Event. The construction works done include the work at Festival Towns, the National Theatre Iganmu, overhead bridges, the Lagos-Ibadan express way and other projects too numerous to list. Immigrants benefited from Nigeria’s booming economy since the introduction of ECOWAS.

However, the sudden, almost overwhelming effects of the world-wide economy recession of the early 1980s brought untold suffering to the Nigerian populace. Nigeria seemed worst hit by the worldwide recession due simply to her apparent dependence only on crude.

Following the commencement of production of the British North Sea Oil ion the late 1970s, there was little hope for Nigeria, seeming that her oil had progressively declined from 2.5 million barrels a day at its peaks in 1979 to 1.3 million barrels today.²⁰

Since the economic recession became a matter of national concern, issues as regards illegal aliens and border security became part of governments priorities, while the question of survival in a foreign land boldly hit by recession drove a majority of jobless immigrants into desperate acts which brought about government interventions at various levels. Among others, two facts promoted the expedition of intervention by governments, namely, the presence of illegal immigrants across Nigerian lands and among Nigerian natives, their alleged involvement in crimes of varying proportions, and the hopelessness engendered by the existence of porous borders. It became certain that all government security initiatives could amount to nothing unless it commences with drastic measures towards border security.

It was such realization and government efforts that led to the institutionalization of the National Boundary commission (NBC), as the actual custodian of the international boundaries. The NBC served also in delimiting and maintaining the integrity of the recognised land and maritime borders of the country, as well as managing the status quo in the border areas to foster peaceful coexistence. “It is also the responsibility of the national boundary commission to keep record of vital geographic and other relevant date defending the respective inter-state boundaries. This entails defining and delimiting the particular contours of the entire stretch of

the boundaries and frequently resolving and managing disputes over boundaries which erupt between communities adjacent to the boundaries.

One of the major causes of border porosity and the alleged failure of government in ensuring maximum security at all borders was invariably the increasing number of illegal routes to Nigeria. A press library clip from the Nigerian Institute of International Affairs (NIIA) reported that government has identified 1,497 irregular routes used by illegal immigrants to gain entry into the country.²¹ This development has made it difficult to, first, determine the actual number of routes used by illegal immigrants who enter Nigeria from time to time as the opening of new routes seemed to be progressive. Secondly, the effort of government would seem useless provided that such efforts had not succeeded in determining the number of routes. The first thing must be a conscious effort by government to prevent further attempts by illegal immigrants to open new routes by which unscrupulous elements and weapons of destruction were smuggled into the country through the borderlands of Nigeria.

The effort by the government at halting the effects of border porosity was deemed short sighted and hopeless unless such efforts are expanded to include a vigorous strive by the government to introduce a policy that would stop illegal border and cross-border criminal activities.

There is hardly any criminal act and violence in Nigeria that could be remotely traced to the relative ease with which armed gangs enter and exit through many of our 149 borders. Smuggling of contraband goods, arms and human trafficking, mercenary activities directly linked to religious violence, are some of the vices attributable to the porous borders.²²

Borders are loosely patrolled by corrupt agencies. It is common knowledge that a subtle slip of cash anywhere around the borders so easily circumvented, it is hard to see how Nigeria will ever be able to control the 4,000-km border it shares with four countries. People and goods are in constant transit at all Nigerian border.

In the southern border areas, especially the Seme-Badagry – Idiroko axis, smuggling activities have continued unabated thereby posing serious threats to the nation's economy. The textile industry for instance is a major casualty as virtually all the leading local textile mills have been shut down since their products could not compete with importes but cheaply priced wax and print materials brought through the borders. Several aspects of Nigeria's once buoyant economy are suffering serious setbacks are result of the challenges of porous, borders.²³

Policy Options on Border Security

Since the 1960s, scholars of African border studies have advanced several ideas regarding what they considered a healthy border and how African borders could look like those in Europe and other regions with highly secured international boundaries. On this note, they were divided by recommendations which were categorized into two – the revisionists and the anti-revisionists perspectives. The revisionists believe that for the fact that Africans were not consulted in the 1884-1885 Berlin delimitation of African lands for the interest of the colonizers and given the enormous conflicts and other challenges that arose from this land demarcations, African borders should be revisited and should be demarcated by Africans themselves considering the cultural and historical background of the people. In this view, the perspective of Mutua gives information on the revisionists dictum. He asserts thus:

... The new map of Africa should hold no more than 15 states as opposed to 50 today. Based on the criteria, the map of Africa creates new countries by abolishing some and combining others. The new Republic of Kusini (which means “South” in the Kiswahili language) would take in South Africa, Namibia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Lesotho, Swaziland and Malawi-nations with shared historical, economic and ethnic interests. The new Egypt would combine Egypt and Arabic Sudan. Nubia the ancient name for Southern Sudan, would bring together Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, and Southern Sudan. Mali-named for an ancient empire would swallow up Mali, Senegal, Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, the Gambia, Guinea Bissau and Cape Verde. Djibouti, the Ogadeen Province of Ethiopia and Kenyan northern province would be merged with Somalia... Congo would continue ethnically. Similar people of Zaire, Congo, Burundi, the Central Africa Republic and Rwanda, while Ghana, another ancient kingdom would consist of Ghana, Ivory Coast, Togo, Benin, Nigeria, Cameroon, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, and Sao Tome and Principe. Benin-named for a sprawling ancient kingdom-would take in Chad, Burkina Faso and Niger. Algeria and Angola remain the same while Libya takes over Tunisia. Morocco, Western Sahara and Mauritania becomes Sahara. The new State of *Kiswani* – which means “island” in Kiswahili – brings together Madagascar, Mauritius and the Comoros...²⁴

The idea of Mutua as stated above, may not be considered the right model for boundary revision in Africa. Instead of solving the unresolved problems associated with ethnicity, it would certainly widen the horizon, thereby making it a complex situation. The region has ways of resolving

internal ethnicity prone challenges within African States, merging the states by the Mutua's formula would, no doubt, increase the ethnic groups in the new states and increase inherent challenges therein.²⁵

The anti-revisionists perspective disproves the need to restructure the African international boundaries inherited from colonization. In this view, the cost of redrawing the borders might be far reaching, but the integration of cross-border people would solve the problem of disharmony and integrate them. Instead of border being seen as a potential source of disharmony and dispute, it could be regarded as a potential source of harmony and cooperation. Speaking on the integration roles of border, Aguibou mentions among other things that,

Establishing cross-border areas could help strengthen sub-regional integration. The process should certainly benefit from a partnership framework to coordinate efforts between states, local authorities, private actors and aid agencies, collectively manage border areas and implement development plans. Cross-border areas could also be focal points to harmonize sectoral policies between countries and endow the idea of a West African community space with greater coherence. As part of cross-border cooperation, the cross-border areas would certainly allow greater flexibility in addressing such problems as: Regulating migration, environmental management, security...²⁶

The reality on ground is a sharp contrast to the idea of Aguibou. If international boundaries in Africa could truly be the potential source of regional integration, it should be expected that since the past three decades that the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) was established, problems such as transborder religious offensives, cross-border criminal activities and smuggling of contraband goods should have received joint solution by the states affected. This situation, however, suggests that any invention which fails to take recourse from a people's historical background would ever remain foreign and would continually pose problems. Among the colonizers, the belief that the boundaries they made without visiting those lands could result to irredeemable challenges was there. On this note, Lord Salisbury observes,

We have been engaged in drawing lines upon maps where no white man's foot ever trod; we have been giving away mountains and rivers and lakes to each other, only hindered by the small impediment that we never knew exactly where the mountains and rivers and lakes were.²⁷

The question succeeding generation has failed to ask regarding the international boundaries of Africa is whether the works of an arm-chair commentator has ever yielded any historical dividend. In like manner, how do we expect the decisions of arm-chair boundary – makers in Europe who never visited the land to offer any historical importance to present generation of African soil. Corroborating the view that the Organization of African Unity (OAU) was betrayer, professor Wole Soyinka's interview with *The Guardian* becomes timely in this paper.

One hundred years ago at the Berlin Conference, the colonial powers that ruled Africa met to divvy up their interests into States, lumping various peoples and tribes together in some places, or slicing them apart in others like some demented tailor who paid no attention to the fabric colour or pattern of the quilt he was patching together. One of the biggest disappointments of the Organization of African Unity when it came into being more than 20 years ago was that it failed to address the issue... (We) should sit down with square rule and compass and redesign the boundaries of African nations.²⁸

Based on the forgoing debates whether to retain or to redraw African map, it could be observed that opinions favour revision or redrawing African map.

Conclusion

This paper is indeed a paradigm of an idea that has been neglected in the country. It is a paradox that even those who have advocated for national integration, a number of them have frustrated their efforts by their actions when they were given administrative positions. If this assertion is wrong, then, the following questions require critical answers. How could a Professor of History in Nigeria suggest the removal of History from secondary school curriculum when he has taught the utility of history in nation building? What are the implications of the difference in tuition fees of States Universities between their indigenes and non-indigenes? What does it imply for a political leader to watch people from other ethnic groups massacred without obvious reactions that can permanently stop the instigators of these atrocities?

All these are pointers to the fact that national integration has failed and that a more realistic approach should be advanced. Unrestricted killings of fellow nationals by militants whose claims are vague and the obvious inability of the government to stopping this situation, marks the burial of national

integration in Nigeria. Based on these realities on ground, the paper firmly suggests that Nigeria's international boundaries should be re-drawn to divvy up the north and south into independent states. The south could further be divided into three; south-east, south-south and south-west. This suggestion, indeed, does not imply tribal mindfulness of the writer, but, precipitated by the gruesome and persistent killings of nationals which may be linked to cross-border terrorist networks. By this approach, the emerging states created through ethnic line, could run their affairs and would be responsible for the consequences of their actions. Blood of nationals who had died for no clear cause supersedes the sovereignty of the state that could not protect them.

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The Future of Democracy in Nigeria: Harnessing Nigeria's Youth Potential to Drive Development in the Fourth Republic

Tony Johnson Ekpo

Abstract

Nigeria's democracy is nascent and still undergoing litmus test. However, the slow pace of economic growth and development experienced in Nigeria's democracy could be attributed to the nation's inability to harness the potentials of its youthful population. Nigeria's burgeoning human capital strength if properly utilized can move the country further into the status of a developed nation. This study focused on 'The future of democracy in Nigeria: harnessing its youths potential to drive development in the fourth republic'. The study used both primary and secondary sources of data to establish that Nigeria's youths potential if properly harnessed can drive economic growth and development, because the economic growth and development of any nation is anchored on the quality of its human resources found in its youthful population. This study, however, concludes that the future of Nigeria's democracy and economic development lies in the effective harnessing of the Nigeria's youth potentials in all ramifications, because this is the plank upon which the needed economic growth and development of the nation can be actualized.

Introduction

Despite momentous efforts made by successive governments in initiating economic and social policies aimed at driving development, Nigeria's development has remained slow. The nation had remained a casualty to political instability, social malaise, abject poverty and acute youth unemployment, this in turn had created an environment for social crimes

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to not only thrive but persist. These crimes find expression in the youths who could not find any meaningful economic doings and thus engage in all sorts of criminal activities in a bit to eke a living.

The sphere of Nigerian political economy has been characterized by untapped youth potentials; in governance, mining, agriculture, education, ICT, to mention a few. The inability of government to harness its teeming youth potentials and material resources through viable policies have been hinged on the near absence of democratic institutions and the intermittent intervention of the military in politics in the years that followed Nigeria's independence. Moreso several other factors such as colonial legacy, red tape and corruption, inept leadership, unpatriotic followers, and unfavorable international political environment had contributed to Nigeria's underdeveloped state.

The central theme of this study is that an inclusionary political system alongside an enduring economic foundation are the critical junctures needed to drive development through harnessing youth potential. This paper suggest ways of harnessing Nigeria's teeming youth potentials to drive the desired development, especially in the areas of governance, agriculture, mining, ICT, entrepreneurship, etc. It provide explanations on how these burgeoning youth potentials can be harness efficiently in Nigeria's contemporary democratic era to engender the desired growth and development with government playing the leading role. However, before engaging in any analyses it would be important to clarify some concepts, terms and terminology.

Conceptual Clarification

As a prelude to this discussion, it will be important to offer clarifications on terms that will run all through the discussion in this paper. The terms are, democracy, development and leadership. The classical idea of democracy is "rule by the people" and this is derived from the combination of two Greek words – *demos* (people) and *kratos* (rule). The most widely referred and asserted definition of democracy was that offered by Abraham Lincoln which is that democracy is a government "of the people, by the people and for the people". Joseph Schumpeter defined democracy as "that institutional arrangement for arriving at political decisions in which individuals acquire the power to decide by means of a competitive struggle for the peoples' vote".¹ In the words of Dahl, democracy is a form of "elective polyarchy" which guarantees popular participation and inclusiveness in decision-making.² Przeworski posited that "democracy is a system in which parties lose elections".³ For any system of government to qualify as a

democracy it must “ensure peaceful competitive political participation in an environment that guarantees political and civil liberties”. Scholars had argued that relying on a minimalist definition of democracy cannot quite capture the challenges besetting regimes that had transited but have yet to consolidate their incipient democratic structures.⁴

As a result, a growing number of democratization experts are turning towards a more substantive definition of democracy, one that gives greater prominence to the role and importance of accountability. Three dimensions of accountability are usually distinguished: (i) vertical accountability, which enables citizens to hold their political leaders to account through the electoral channel at specified points in time; (ii) horizontal accountability, which refers to accountability mechanisms that exist within the distinct bodies of government itself, whereby state institutions are authorized and willing to oversee, control, redress and, if need be, sanction unlawful actions by other state institutions; and (iii) societal accountability, which refers to the (ongoing) watchdog functions of civic associations, other NGOs and an independent mass media over the actions of the state.⁵ However, democracy is that system of government which in theory and practice, guarantees periodic free and fair elections, separation of powers, checks and balances, the rule of law and most importantly, respect of the fundamental human rights as well as popular sovereignty exercised directly by the people or through their elected representatives.

Much of the answer to the question about the links between democracy and development will of course depend on how one defines ‘development’. Amartya Sen adopts a definition of development as ‘freedom’ – these incorporates not only economic indicators but also freedoms like human and political rights, social opportunities, transparency guarantees and protective security.⁶ Also, recent debates on a rights-based approach to development had focused on participation, accountability, and other elements that are very similar to those values underlying substantive forms of democracy.⁷ However, Joseph Stiglitz averred that development is understood as a ‘transformation of society’ that goes beyond economic growth alone to include social dimensions like literacy, distribution of income, life expectancy, etc.⁸

The question of leadership comes readily when considering the connection between democracy and development. There is no democracy without leaders and followers. A proper analysis or definition of the term will help. On leadership, various scholars have opined what leadership is, but for the purpose of this paper, leadership will be considered from the purview and discourse of the social scientist. According to ATG Educational

Series, leadership is the process or the ability to motivate others to unite and work towards achieving a common goal.⁹ Nevertheless, in a democracy, leadership is anchored on representation, thus representation is leadership, and true leadership is effective representation. This brand of leadership is anchored on trust. The leaders are servants of the people, and are supposed to exercise their power and authority in the interest of, and on behalf of the people, and most importantly in accordance with the terms of the mandate given to them by the people. In a democracy, it is the duty of the leadership to understand that this is a trusteeship.¹⁰ However, democratic leadership have come to mean group decision-making, active member participation, honest (constructive) criticism, and a degree of comradeship.¹¹

Review of Related Literature

In general, there exist extant literature on democracy and development in Nigeria and the leadership question. Significant number of journal articles and commissioned papers have not focused on harnessing youth potentials to drive development. Though, the current state of literature is a good glean into what has happened and offers a wider spectrum for analyses. Tolu Lawal and Ogunro Victor Olukayode, in their work *“Democracy and Development in Nigeria”* avers that democracy is development imbued. The more democratic ethics a nation is imbued, the higher the dividends of democracy; the better the level of sustainable development. Development can hardly be felt or achieved when democratic ethics are not imbibed and adhered to by the leaders and administrators. This is because the accommodation of ethics of democracy enhances performance and facilitates development. Democracy and development are inseparable. Components of development such as; discipline, commitment, honesty, transparency, accountability peaceful co-existence, integrity, etc are also embedded in democracy. The success of one leads to the success of the other and vice versa. They suggested that the problem of development in Nigeria does not result from lack of competent personnel or absence of adequate financial resources. Rather it is more associated with lack of democratic ethics, which is an ethical lapse in democracy.¹²

Kareem Olawale Bestoyi writing on *“Democracy and Development: A Comparative Analysis of Nigeria and Malaysia”* enunciates that the lack of constitutional order and respect for the rule of law that characterize the actions and inactions of the present crop of Nigerian political elites make one to wonder whether the system we have in place in this Fourth Republic is a democracy or a mere civilian rule. Perhaps apart from the regular

elections, the only difference between the present Republic and the past military regimes is the degree of abuse of the fundamental human rights of Nigerians as well as the use of constitution instead of decrees to govern.¹³ He, however, likened the Malaysian democracy, as one been deliberately and calculatedly sustained, and also creates authoritarian procedures and institutions to hinder the transition of Malaysia to a full-fledged democracy. To understand why the post-independence Malaysian state is semi-authoritarian and at the same time semi-democratic, one has to go back to the events of 1969 whose remote cause dates back to the negative legacy of colonialism. Malaysian democracy, at best, could be described as a benevolent dictatorship however, what endears it to many particularly plural societies where political stability has remain elusive is its ability to achieve over four decades of racial harmony, a cordial ruling coalition comprising major political parties from both the ethnic majority – the Malays, and the minorities, the Chinese and Indians, periodic elections, and above all, political stability and good governance.¹⁴

Abdulhamid Ozohu-Suleiman in his full length research paper on “*Democracy, good governance and development in Nigeria*” identifies Nigeria as a potential trigger of development in Africa, opining that the location of the country on the map of Africa is like the trigger of a short gun which the map of the continent seems to symbolize. In spite of these resource endowments, Nigeria has been plagued by several development bottlenecks. At the heart of the general debates on good governance and its requirements is the urgent call for democratizing societies to combat corruption and promote transparency and accountability.¹⁵ Thus, more than any other single factor or a combination of factors, corruption remains the most outstanding impediment to good governance and sustainable development. The consequences of this social affliction (rising social inequality, unemployment and widespread poverty, plummeting economy, ignorance and disease) are evident in the negative development indicators of Independent Reports, Ozohu-Suleiman noted. He states that, it is common knowledge that corruption and development are strange bedfellows. Since both cannot co-habit, one must give way. Thus, democracy which reflects the will of the people, suggests loudly that corruption must give way for good governance and development. However, after seventeen straight years of democratic rebirth in Nigeria, there is considerable reservation on the gains of the good governance project. At the onset of regime transformation in 1999, democracy raised citizens expectations of a life of contents and fulfillment, it promised to guarantee peoples economic and social rights for the realization of their collective and individual hopes and aspirations. These

promises and expectations were the summation of a people's vision of good governance that has remained largely unfulfilled.¹⁶

Ake, in his *Democracy and Development in Africa*, acknowledged the following as crucial:

... the colonial legacy, social pluralism and its centrifugal tendencies, the corruption of leaders, poor labour discipline, the lack of entrepreneurial skills, poor planning and incompetent management, inappropriate policies, the stifling of market mechanisms, low levels of technical assistance, limited inflow of foreign capital, etc.¹⁷

Although these factors are very useful in explaining the failure of development in Africa in general and Nigeria in particular, Ake observes that political conditions of the continent are the greatest obstacles to the development enterprise. These political conditions which have conspired to trigger a crisis of governance in many parts of Africa lie at the heart of the failure of development in Nigeria. The crises of political governance has led to underdevelopment of Nigeria in various ramifications. This is so because leadership is everything in a democracy. There is the urgent need and attention for leaders to address these institutional gaps. This will in turn entrench the gains of democracy.

Background to Nigeria's Democracy

The formative years of Nigeria's nascent democracy could be said to begin with the intrusion of the colonialist and subsequent amalgamation of the Colony and Protectorate of Southern Nigeria and the Protectorate of Northern Nigeria in 1914 under Sir Frederick Luggard. A major characteristic of this period (1914) was the emergence of a country called Nigeria in the international scene, though as a territory under British colonial rule. The continued pressed for increased participation in the internal affairs (governance) by the elite or nationalist evolved into a period called the years of Nigeria's constitutional development. This period of constitutional development started with the Legislative Council (1914), Nigerian Council (enacted immediately after 1914), to Clifford Constitution of 1922 (first introduced elective principle), Arthur Richard Constitution of 1946 (defined Nigeria along regional lines), John Macpherson Constitution of 1951 (widespread reach in consultation with Nigerians), Lyttleton Constitution of 1954 (it established a unicameral legislature for the federal government and regional government were made independent of the central government in respect of subjects and legislative powers allocated to them.¹⁸ This was

followed by the 1957/58 London Constitutional Conference, where the federal constitution for an independent Nigeria was drafted.

After the 1959 general elections, the NPC and NCNC formed an alliance, in order to form the government at the centre, and Sir Tafawa Balewa became the first Prime Minister (i.e the head of government) and Dr. Nnamdi Azikiwe became the Governor-General (i.e ceremonial head).¹⁹ Gaining its independence on 1st October 1960, Nigeria's first independent democratic republic was birthed. The democratization processed in the First Republic (1960-1966) aroused pity and cost Nigerians pains, as this period was shortly followed by two major events that choke the democratic foundations of the country. These events were a *coup de tat* (1966) and a civil war (1967-1970), which taught Nigerians a bitter lesson after the failed attempt of democratic experiment.²⁰ The country's political system was plagued by religious and ethnic politics which threaten the future of Nigeria's democracy, heightened ethnic suspicion among the major ethnic groups (Hausa-Fulani, Yoruba and Igbo). Although the death toll of the Nigeria civil war was not well documented, it is estimated that about 3 million to 6 million people lost their lives as a result of malnutrition, disease etc.²¹ With democratic principles shielded, the military continued in power long even after the civil war.

The military, subsequently, held on to power for almost 33 years after the 1966 coup (1966-1999) except for some flashes of civil rule between 1979 and 1983. In 1979, there was a major institutional shift in Nigeria's democratic process, as the country moved from a parliamentary system of government to an American modelled presidential system of government. According to Elaigwu, Nigeria's short-lived democracy could be attributed to the following reasons among others: there was complete breakdown in the rules of politics, gross misuse of power among public officers, issues of human right abuse, blatant rigging of elections, and relative strong regional government as against weak federal centre with widespread corruption.²² The military under the Murtala/Obasanjo's regime was faithful to a transition to civilian rule. Consequently, the Olusegun Obasanjo regime handed over power to Alhaji Shehu Shagari whose electoral victory was contested by Chief Awolowo and roundly condemned as a farce by other political parties. The election was petitioned by Chief Awolowo on the grounds that Alhaji Shehu Shagari was not duly elected by a majority of lawful votes in contravention of section 34A (i) (c) (ii) of the Electoral Decree 1977 and section 7 of the Electoral (Amendment) Decree 1978 (210).²³ The second republic failed due to the loss of faith in the electoral umpire, the Federal Electoral Commission (FEDECO) declared Shehu Shagari winner even

after pulling majority of his votes from the North. Under Shagari's administration political office holders were corrupt, ruined economy, inter/intra party rivalries and the 1983 electoral fraud which returned Shagari for a second term was instrumental to the military coup of 31st December, 1983.²⁴

The incessant incursion of the Nigerian military in politics was no longer a surprise. Nigerians groaning in pains had gotten use to the reign of generals in a replete of coups and counter coups. The General Buhari regime was sacked in a palace coup by General Ibrahim Badamosi Babangida, who urgently took over the realms of government. Under IBB's regime, Nigeria's democratization process was again stalled. Evidence of this suppression was the annulment of the 12th June, 1993 general elections, which was said to be devoid of ethno-religious sentiments won by Chief M.K.O Abiola. It is tempting to make the correlation that, since military *coups* terminated Nigeria's democratic administrations in 1966 and 1983 and frustrated the 1993 transition, Nigeria therefore has a military problem, that the military is "the major obstacle to democracy".²⁵ The military were originally greeted as a corrective instrument, helping to reset Nigeria's democratic clock but military rule in Nigeria had always turned out to personal rule and the regime of both Ibrahim Babangida (1985-1993) and Sani Abacha (1993-1998).²⁶ In the face of intense public opposition to his rule, General Babangida reluctantly handed the reins of government to a non-elected military-civilian Interim National Government on 26th August 1993 which was later ousted from power by the military under the leadership of General Sani Abacha on 17th November 1993.²⁷

The demise of General Sani Abacha in 1998 culminated in the emergence of General Abdulsalami Abubakar, who eventually handed over the reins of government to a democratically elected civilian government in May 1999 after having spent eleven months in power. Through dedicated commitment Abudulsalami Abubakar returned the country democratic rule, with Olusegun Obasanjo emerging as Nigeria's President in the Fourth Republic.²⁸ With return of Chief Olusegun Obasanjo as president, the democratization process in Nigeria was again set in motion, and this process has been plagued by numerous challenges which have continued to threaten the stability of the country. However in Nigeria, the youths are usually relegated to the background because the youths were ignored in the policy making process of government and when listened to, their opinions were not taken serious.²⁹ Some youths who advocated for independence and opportunities for their people, the young Africans who protested against the misery of their people were imprisoned, exiled or even murdered in

cold blood. For instance, Dele Giwa was killed through a letter bomb on Sunday 19th October, 1986 in Nigeria at the age of thirty-six because his journalistic prowess towards democracy was a threat to the survival of the militarily junta.³⁰

Democracy as a system of government has been operational in Nigeria for over a decade now, and for its stabilization and entrenchment, all the stakeholders must be involved especially the youths.³¹ The youths represent a very important stake in any society. They make up the future of any nation, and remain unarguably the best resource to fast track nation-building. With worsening living conditions for the youths in Nigeria, what is the guarantee that the ever increasing army of unemployment youths will not engage in activities that would undermine the stability of democracy in Nigeria? The problem of chronic youth unemployment is very evident in Nigeria. Every year thousands of graduates are turnout to the labour market, for whom there are no jobs. Nigerian streets are littered with vendors who ordinarily would have found gainful employment in some enterprise.³² The self employed youths are in quandary as scant infrastructure and capital makes it impossible for them to ply their trade favorably. Giving the large number of youths who are unemployment, this is capable of undermining democratic practice as they constitute a serious threat if engaged by the political class for clandestine activities.³³

The Future of Nigeria's Democracy

The future of any nation's democracy lies in its youths because the youths have tremendous and towering ambitions. In Nigeria, it has been great wastage of human resource potentials of the youths, as they are not given an opportunity to exercise their talent. The government inability to explore its youth potentials to drive development among other factors is responsible for the forward and backward drift of Nigeria's political economy.³⁴ The government have not been able to expand its educational system to absorbed the ever increasing youthful population, who might intend venturing into scholarship. More so, this will acquaint the youths with skills to do jobs that will fast-track Nigeria's economy. If empowered with the needed education, these youths could read, write, think, understand, analyze and find lasting solutions to the issues faced by their country. Hence it is the government's responsibility to provide the youth with proper facilities for getting equipped with the knowledge of this modern era since the youth forms the work force of any developed economy in the world.³⁵ Youth is the spring of life, the age of discovery and dreams. The youths have the capacity to transform Nigeria into a better place if their potentials

are properly harnessed. The youths have been underplayed in politics, economy and social relations, hence the need to give them some sense of belonging or a chance to prove themselves.

Leadership, Development and Youths: Interrogating the Nexus

Irrespective of the differences that prevail in respect of the theoretical formulation of leadership, development and the youths, there is a growing consensus on the nexus amongst them. However, Nigeria has had a chequered political history since independence. Over the years, inept leadership has been a recurring decimal in the Nigerian state. It is with this, the late literary giant, Chinua Achebe once decried that “the trouble with Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership”.³⁶ The political culture of flagrant disrespect of the constitution among the Nigerian political elites had reared other anti-democratic characters such as ethnicity and nepotism, corruption, religious bigotry, electoral tampering and political intolerance, etc. The implications of these are escalation of social vices which are unhealthy inter-ethnic rivalry, religious crisis and political instability.

Sanusi L. Sanusi opines that, it is essential for the political leaders in Nigeria to be visionary and transformational, to be able to see, project and assemble a vision of a desired future for the nation. In addition, they should be selfless, engaging and motivational as these are the fundamental prerequisite for mobilizing followership, particularly in a multi-ethnic, multi-religious and multicultural society like Nigeria. As a motivator, leadership vision must be clear, attractive and attainable. An engaging leadership would be able to build bridges across divides, and as such be able to foster necessary harmony for collective good. Leadership that would be effective in a setting like Nigeria must also be courageous to take radical and progressive decisions.³⁷ This is because leadership is the hub upon which every other thing revolves. Nigeria’s most cherished need now is a visionary, purposeful and persistent leadership who would be able to garner democratic support that will usher the country to another phase of development.

As leadership is important in a democracy, so also is development. Every modern society envisages development for its citizens for better welfare and optimum delivery of the social contract. In the estimation of the World Bank, development implies a qualitative improvement in the living standards of the people as exemplified by levels of industrialization, food production, size and distribution of the labor force, pattern of income distribution, access to education, health facilities, good housing, regular supply of electricity, good drinking water, etc.³⁸ Nigeria still struggles to provide the basic social amenities for its burgeoning population. The spate

of development is far from the expectations of the average Nigerian on the eve of democracy as development has not trickled as expected due to corruption and policy implementation failure. Considering Nigeria's resource endowment, Nigeria's development was expected to be on the trajectory, because, Nigeria is home to rich natural endowment and solid mineral deposits. What can be gleaned from these; however, is that leadership has been weak and unable to recognize viable economic enterprises aside oil wealth and agriculture as sources that can boost economic development. In a democracy, development depends upon good leadership. This is the very one ingredient that has been missing in Nigeria's democratic engagements for the past sixteen years. This, unarguably is the change that can unlock Nigeria's youth potentials.

Just as leadership is critical to development, it is also critical to youth participation and building a civic culture for an enduring democracy. The future of any nation lies in their youths, because youths are the future leaders. An emerging area of great attention in building strong democracy is focusing on youth participation in political governance. A clear litmus test for the strength of a nation's democracy is an active youth engagement in governance and decision making processes. The National Youth Policy defines youth as all young persons of ages 18 – 35.³⁹ Nigeria's burgeoning youth demography readily provides a hub of human capital required to drive socio-political and economic development. But leadership has not harnessed these potentials.

Youth participation in government in Nigerian political space is sequel to the legal requirements for various political offices. Section 65 (1)(a) of the 1999 Constitution (as amended) provides that an aspirant to a senatorial office must have attained the age of 35 years, while section 65(1)(b) provides that those aspiring for the House of Representatives seats must have attained the age of 30 years. The age requirement for the state house of assembly seat under section 106(b) is 30 years. Likewise, aspirants for the office of president and vice president must have attained 40 years while sections 177(b) and 187(2) stipulate that one has to be 35 years of age to contest for governorship or deputy governorship position.⁴⁰ A defining characteristic of youth is dynamism. This encompasses dynamism in thought pattern, perception of issues, orientation, ambition and a certain unbridled passion for change through engagement (peacefully or violently) with the established order.⁴¹

After a decade and a half democratic practice, it is expected that the dimensions of youth political participation in the general elections should extend far beyond the use of NYSC members and students of tertiary

institutions as polling officials, as party agents, as election observers, as security agents and as media personnel. Nigerian youths deserve a better deal in the political process of democratic consolidation.

The debate on leadership, development and youth: interrogating the nexus is anchored on the presence of political conditions that promotes an inclusionary political process - a process that involves the participation of mass organizations such as civil society, labor unions, youth movement and women groups. These will in turn provide the required political space for civil society and other stakeholders to set the agenda and push for the common good by articulating and reflecting the needs of society on a more specific and continuous basis.

Harnessing Nigeria's Youth Potential to Drive Development

Nigeria's greatest asset is not found in the oil wealth or endowed natural resources, but largely in its youth demography. Youths form the core and they remain an indispensable facet of any given society. The task of developing them to enhance societal growth rests squarely on the shoulder of the government that beholds them. For most part of Nigeria's political history, the conventional political propaganda of government has always been youth development as an important economic development strategy in their manifesto. However, it is evident that this has not manifested into reality in many cases, to suggest the least, it has become a regular political rhetoric. It is time we shift from rhetoric to action.

Obviously, there is no universal definition of the youth population. "Youth is conventionally described as a period of transition from childhood to adulthood. According to United Nation Economic Commission for Africa, (UNECA), "youth are defined as people between fifteen and thirty-nine years of age."⁴² For statistical purposes, the UN defines youth as individuals between the ages of fifteen and twenty-four.⁴³ One of the challenges of developing policies for youth in Nigeria is finding the appropriate data/statistics on the youth demography in Nigeria which is not frequently collected by government agencies.

Nigeria's burgeoning youth demography offers a ready pull of untapped human capital, and if properly harnessed has the capacity to jumpstart the economy. Every great democracy that has transformed its economy falls back on its youthful population. A critical turning point for Nigeria will be for leadership to leverage on the human capital available and explore it for sustainable economic prosperity. More than ever, education remains the bedrock of any society and offers the platform for human capacity building and skills acquisition. Education remains key to advancement and

development of Nigeria. The nation's ivory towers were envisaged as centers for incubation of fresh technological and scientific ideas, research and development (R& D), which will in turn spur innovation and creativity thus, leading to development. Critical attention to this sector will not only harness youths untapped potential who fall within the schooling age but, will also create the needed development. Education has the capacity to sustain Nigeria's socio-economic development needs, because education is a continuous investment platform. Investment in education is investment for the future. Education remains the single most important currency contributing to the capacity of young people to live a productive and responsible life. This form of education could be formal or informal with a lifelong learning scheme. For Nigeria to realize its vision of an emerging economy, focus has to be paid on the advancement of science and technology in our educational institutions and young people need be encouraged to access education.

As education is critical to harnessing youth potential for development, so also is investment in health. A healthy nation is a wealthy nation. Sound health not only improves productivity but also increases the supply of labour in the market. A healthier labour force is also expected to be more flexible and adaptable to changes e.g. changes in job tasks, in the organization of labour etc. Therefore, the healthier the youth population, the more productive the workforce. Productivity could increase directly due to enhanced physical and mental strength, which could be reinforced by the efficient use of technology, machinery or equipment.⁴⁴ This government could do positively to drive development.

A contingent path to development for Nigeria through harnessing youth potential is encouraging start-ups and entrepreneurial development. Nigerian economy possesses a pool of both human and social capital found evidently in her youthful population. Start-ups has the capacity to employ a vast number of Nigerian youths who have skills in business, arts and crafts, farming, cobbling, fashion and design, to mention a few. There is therefore the need to set a machinery that would foster the development of start-ups in the communities and urban areas. Government should build partnerships that would identify these skills in the youths and nurture it to full realization. This in turn will spring up small and medium scale enterprises, (SMEs). The place of entrepreneurial skills development amongst the youth as a driver to development cannot be over emphasized. Every industrial and advanced economy leveraged on building their entrepreneurial manpower which advertently spurred industrialization and technology. Entrepreneurship studies should not only end as a course of study in tertiary institutions but

be a life-wire for economic growth and development through the creation of incentives and grants to youths who show commitment to the drive of development.

The type of democracy practiced by a nation can affect the nature of development that springs up in that country. Nations that practice an inclusionary political system also tend to have an inclusionary economic institutions that allows for free market enterprises, efficient use of resources, property rights are not restricted on individuals but protected, economic structures are built based on land, labour and capital productivity. Nigeria's democratic structure is yet to support the inclusion of youths in the decision-making process of governance in the country, however, if found its theoretical on pages of political discourse. Youth inclusion in political participation will build needed capacities for leadership in governance and lead to accountability in public office, confidence and positive self- image.

Conclusion

The future of democracy in Nigeria, squarely rest on the youths, who are the future leaders of tomorrow. For the leaders of tomorrow to have a sound knowledge of their society, the tool of education has to be used to user them into a world of competition and survival. Once education has been completed successfully, the benefits of initial investments in youth starts trickling into the economy. For this reason, human capital formation need to start at an early age. Early investments in education are crucial. Human capital is even transferable to future generations.

In terms of developing youth entrepreneurship, there is a need to ensure that schools deliberately provide sector specific skills necessary for the development of human capital, use professionals and entrepreneurs as instructors and mentors; teach entrepreneurship and creativity at an early age; and community development; plan program to transform Nigerians.⁴⁵ Finally, in order to reposition youth to drive development, there is a need to transform them into confident, aggressive and purposeful individuals. The ideal profile for emerging professionals with respect to entrepreneurial education would include strong scientific, technical and research skills. The individuals who opt for non-degree training in skill acquisition with entrepreneurial background are also not left out. All must have a high level of creativity and innovation and the ability to think about the future and relate these ideas to his/her business. The health of the youth deserves special attention. In addition to the various health programmes by government, the prevalence of HIV and AIDS needs to be addressed to safeguard the army of youth for economic development.

In conclusion, since the youth population is the heart of any economy, it must be restated that investing in youth should not just be seen as end in itself, rather it should be approached with a comprehensive set of policies and programmes coordinated in the form of an economic strategy. While investing in education is a priority in youth development, other areas such as health need to be accorded special attention.

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The Migrant Factor in the Economic Growth of Suleja Town, 1979-2015

Muhammad Awwal Adamu

Abstract

The siting of the FCDA Field Base in Suleja in 1979 presented an excellent opportunity for the economic migrants, who established new commercial activities hitherto unknown in Suleja. These commercial activities did not only enable the economic migrants to advance their economic status, it also contributed to the economic growth of Suleja. Therefore, the paper argues that the siting of the FCDA Field Base was the single most important factor for the influx of additional migrant groups and the economic growth of Suleja. The various commercial activities established by the migrant groups provided job opportunities for the youth and increased the revenue base of Suleja. Thus, Suleja became the economic nerve centre of the area and one of the towns generating the highest IGR in Niger state. The paper shows the economic changes that occur in Suleja by identifying the economic activities conducted in the pre and post 1976 creation of the Federal Capital Territory. The paper identifies the major migrant groups and discusses the various commercial activities they established in Suleja. The paper concludes that the migrant groups were the vanguard of change in Suleja as their economic activities overshadowed those of the indigenous groups.

Introduction

The town known as Suleja today was until 1979 called Abuja. The name was relinquished by the then Abuja Emirate Council to the Supreme Military Council of Nigeria to name the newly established Federal Capital Territory (FCT) in 1979. The town was renamed Suleja after the then Emir, Alhaji Sulemanu Barau and that of the founder, Suleja is the combination of the first four letters of the then Emir, Sule and the last two letters of the

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founder, Ja, which connotes red or light in complexion, as the then Emir himself was light in complexion. Historically, the town was founded in 1828 by the pre-Jihad rulers of Zazzau Kingdom. It is predominantly peopled by the Zage-zagi¹, Gbayi, Koro, Rubawa, Afawa and the Yeskwa groups. It remained undefeated throughout the 19th century despite several attacks by the new rulers of Zaria Emirate, of which the last attack was in 1893.² However, it lost its sovereignty to British forces in 1902 and by 1904, the British established full administration there. During the colonial period, the town hosted other migrant groups, such as the Nupe, Yoruba, Igbo and the Edo. It remained a Division in the then Niger Province of the defunct Northern Regional Government. Following the creation of 12 states in 1967, Abuja was placed under the Northwest State with capital at Sokoto. With the creation of additional states in 1976, when Niger State was carved out from the defunct Northwest state, Abuja became the headquarters of Abuja Local Government Area. Shouldered with the responsibility of developing the town, the new state, through its various ministries and agencies, provided some infrastructures in the town, such as roads, electricity, water, hospital and dispensaries and schools. The provision of these infrastructures attracted influx of more people to the town so much that by 1976, the population rose to 10, 608.³ The siting of the Federal Capital Development Authority (FCDA) Development Base otherwise known as Field Base in the town in 1979 was the driving force for the influx of additional migrant groups to the town from various parts of Nigeria and beyond. These migrants engaged in various commercial activities for the economic growth of the town.

This paper examines the contributions of migrant groups to the economic growth of Suleja from 1979 to 2015. The major migrant groups are the none Zage-Zagi Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Ebira and the Edo. The cosmopolitan nature of the town also attracted some foreigners such as the Chinese who established a modern eatery. The dearth of documented works on the role of the migrant groups in Suleja provides the stimulating impulse for writing this paper.

The Contributions of Migrant Groups to the Economic Growth of Suleja, 1979-2015

The siting of the FCDA Field Base in Suleja in 1979 to facilitate the development of the capital city of the country led to unprecedented influx of fresh migrants into the town. Thus, the population of the town which by 1976 was 10, 608 significantly increased to 13, 795 in 1979.⁴ Consequently, Suleja town became the centre of attraction to diverse groups

from many states of the federation and beyond. These diverse groups included some civil servants who came from Lagos, the former capital, contractors, skilled and unskilled workers including economic migrants. It is worthy to note that the none-Zage-Zagi Hausa, the Yoruba, Igbo, Epira and Edo migrants had settled in the town, at least dating back to the early 20th century. The siting of the FCDA Field Base only triggered fresh migration of members of these groups. A Yoruba migrant of the early 1980s in Suleja town noted that:

The news of the establishment of the FCT in 1976 and more importantly the siting of the FCDA Field Base in Suleja in 1979 sent news of joy to some entrepreneurs in the southwest who quickly migrated to the town to join their kin in early 1980.⁵

It thus appears that the earlier migrants in Suleja facilitated the migration of their family members and friends to the town, who also came to advance their economic fortunes. The influx enabled the economic migrants to engage in a wide range of commercial activities. An Igbo migrant of the early 1980s had this to say:

Most of the Igbo entrepreneurs and traders migrated from their homeland in the east and other places they hitherto inhabited to Suleja after the siting of the FCDA Field Base there in 1979 specifically because of prospects of businesses.⁶

It is instructive to note that the commercial activities conducted by the earlier Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo, Edo and Epira migrants before the siting of the FCDA Field Base such as sale of foodstuff by the Hausa and Gbagyi, sewing materials and fabric by the Yoruba, building materials, households utensils and vehicle spare parts and repairs by the Yoruba and Igbo, electronics and electronic repairs, mechanical and electrical works by the Yoruba and Igbo, significantly increased due to increased demands as a result of population increased after the siting of the FCDA Field Base there. (See Table 1 for the estimate number of some shops in Suleja between 1975 and 2015).

Table 1: Estimate number of some shops in Suleja between 1975 and 2015

Shops	1975	1979	1989	1999	2009	2015
Sewing materials/fabrics	2	2	2	6	12	15
Building materials	3	6	8	11	15	20
Households utensils	2	2	5	8	11	18
Vehicle spare parts	2	2	7	11	14	17
Electronics	2	4	10	21	27	35
Electronic repairs	2	2	7	12	19	28

Source: Field Survey, 2015

From the above table, it is glaring that following the siting of the FCDA Field Base, most of the existing businesses in the town continued to expand, as can be seen in the increase in the number of shops. In terms of revenue generation, from the available records, in 2013, the various shops identified, contributed the sum of N1, 022, 400 which represented 10.4 % of the N98, 000, 000 IGR. In 2014, the various shops contributed the same amount generated in the previous year, which represented 0.8 % of the N121, 400, 000 IGR. By 2015, the generating capacity of the various shops increased to N1, 604, 000, which represented 29.3% of the N140, 850, 000 IGR.⁷ Similarly, the various commercial activities also generated employment in the town. For example, in 1981, out of the estimated workforce of 405, the various shops provided 51 youths with jobs which stood at 12%. By 2015, following increase in commercial activities, out of the estimated workforce of 4646, the various shops employed 287 youths, which stood at 6.1%.

The new economic migrants established new commercial activities, such as restaurants/food canteens and eateries, brothels/beer parlours, bakeries, guest houses/hotels, departmental stores, block industries, private hospitals/clinics, pharmacies, patent medicine stores, petrol stations and some small scale industries and manufacturing companies. Apart from providing services to the inhabitants, making profits and providing jobs to the youths, these new businesses generated revenue to the Suleja Local Government as will be shown subsequently.

Brothels/Beer Parlours

In Suleja, brothels and beer parlours were established by the Igbo and Edo migrants after the FCDA Field Base was sited there. They were located

at UnguwarGwandara and Dawaki areas.⁸The brothels provided rooms for prostitutes who engaged in commercial sex work and beer parlours for the sale of alcohol and other intoxicants.⁹ The brothels/beer parlours were patronized by some immigrants and some of the indigenous population. Each brothel employed between 4 and 6 youths who worked as managers, waiters and cooks, depending on its size. For example, in 1982, out of the estimated workforce of 404, the brothels employed 96 youths which represented 23%. In 2002, out of the estimated workforce of 2612, the brothels employed 100 youths, which represented 3.8%. In addition, they generated revenue to the Suleja Local Government. Shortly before they were closed down in 2003, the brothels paid between N5,000 and N7,000 as annual tax to the Local Government.¹⁰(See Table 2 for the brothel/beer parlours in Suleja, (1979-2003).

Table 2: Brothels/Beer Parlours in Suleja between 1979 and 2003

S/No.	Brothel/Beer Parlour	Location	Year of Establishment	Current status
1.	Indo-city Hotel	BakinKasuwa	1979	Converted to residential
2.	National Hotel	Morocco road	1979	Converted to shops
3.	International Hotel	Morocco road	1980	Converted to shops
4.	City Hotel	Morocco road	1981	Converted to residential
5.	Morocco Hotel	Morocco road	1982	Converted to residential
6.	River valley	Morocco road	1982	Converted to shops
7.	Alheri Hotel	Morocco road	1983	Converted to shops
8.	Igala Hotel	Morocco road	1983	Converted to shops
9.	Starlight Hotel	Morocco road	1983	Converted to residential
10.	Rainbow Hotel	Morocco road	1982	Converted to residential
11.	Standard Hotel	Morocco road	1983	Converted to shops
12.	Columbia Hotel	Morocco road	1983	Computer business centre
13.	Anambra Hotel	Morocco road	1984	Converted to shops
14.	Victory Hotel	Morocco road	1984	Converted to residential
15.	Columbia Hotel	Dawaki road	1982	Converted to residential
16.	Sunny Hotel	Dawaki road	1982	Converted to residential

Source: Field work, 2016.

The brothels ceased to exist as the state government introduced the Shari'a legal system in 2003, were closed down. Some of the brothels were converted to either shops or business centres others were converted to residential accommodation.

Restaurants/Food Canteens

Prior to the siting of the FCDA Field Base in Suleja, the town had no single restaurant or food canteen, except numerous local food spots at the

BakinKasuwa and Unguwar Bare-bari areas. Faced with the rising demand for food, following influx of people, some Edo, Yoruba, and Igbo women migrants established restaurants and food canteens in virtually all the major streets in the town. However, only few of those restaurants and food canteens made their businesses known in the town by providing signboards showing the direction of their shops or on the business premises. The pioneer restaurant in the town was known as Madam Bendel established in 1981 by a woman from the defunct Bendel state at UnguwarZaina at the center of the town.¹¹ The restaurant gained popularity in the town and the capital city between 1981 to 1990. Following the creation of Delta state out of the defunct Bendel state in 1991, Madam Bendel renamed her restaurant Madam Delta in the same year.¹² Following the death of Madam Delta in 1995, the restaurant collapsed in 1997. In 2011, a Hausa migrant from Bauchi, Alhaji Muhammad Zakiru established Zakiru restaurant at Unguwar Kabula, along Market road.¹³ Zakiru restaurant became a household name especially among the local population who frequently patronized it. The restaurant collapsed in 2014 after Alhaji Zakiru relocated to Mararaba/Nyaya in the FCT.

The increasing cosmopolitan nature of Suleja and the absence of an organized modern eatery provided opportunity for some people to establish modern eateries in the town. For example, in 2002, a Yoruba migrant established Mr. Biggs beside First Bank, along Usman Faruk road. In 2005, a Hausa migrant established Daula Restaurant opposite the Tribunal, off Sulemanu Barau road. In 2007, an Igbo migrant established Chicken “N” Side adjacent to Mr. Biggs. In the same year, Chinese traders with their base in Abuja joined the competitive business and established Oceanic Bakery near the General hospital, along Usman Faruk road. In 2012, an Ebira from Kogi state established Fine Day Restaurant and Pasteries near Rahama Schools, along Sulemanu Barau road. In the same year, an Igbo woman established Mummy’s Kitchen along Hassan Dallatu road. These modern eateries sold varieties of foods such as white rice and stew, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, potato chips, chicken, beef, fresh fish pepper soup and varieties of soft drinks including ice cream, in addition to the provision for take-away. It is worthy to note that these eateries were not only patronized by the migrants but also the local population, even though they did not abandon their local food menus. (See Table 3 for Modern Eateries in Suleja, 2000-2015).

Table 3: Modern Eateries in Suleja, 2000-2015

S/N	Name	Location	Year of Establishment	Variety of Food
1.	MR. BIGGS	Along Usman Faruk road, beside First Bank, Suleja	2002	White rice, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, etc. chicken, beef, snacks and soft drinks, etc
2.	Daula Restaurant	Along Sulemanu Barau road	2005	White rice, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, etc. chicken, beef, snacks and soft drinks, etc
3.	Oceanic Bakery	Near the Suleja General Hospital, along Usman Faruk road	2007	White rice, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, etc. chicken, beef, snacks and soft drinks, etc
4.	Chicken "N" Side	Usman Faruk road	2007	White rice, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, etc. chicken, beef, snacks and soft drinks, etc
5.	Fine Day Restaurant and Pasteries	Along Sulemanu Barau road	2012	White rice, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, etc. chicken, beef, snacks and soft drinks
5.	Mummy's Kitchen	Hassan Dallatu road	2012	White rice, jollof rice, salad and salad cream, pounded yam, semovita, etc. chicken, beef, snacks and soft drinks, etc

Source: Alhaji Dauda, Head, Suleja Tenement Rate office, along Usman Faruk road, List of Eateries in Suleja, 2002-2012.

The various eateries provided employment in the town. Each eatery employed between 4 and 8 persons who work as cooks, waiters, cashiers, cleaners and security guards, depending on its size and customer base. For example, in 2015, out of the estimated workforce of 4499 in Suleja, these eateries employed 78 persons which represented 1.7 %. In terms of revenue generation, the various eateries also contributed revenue to the Suleja local government. For example, in 2015, out of the N130, 610, 000 annual IGR the eateries contributed N119,000, which represented 0.091%.¹⁴

Bakeries

The business of bread is very lucrative in Suleja as its demand has always been on the increase. Various households use bread especially for breakfast. Prior to the siting of the FCDA Field Base, there were only two bakeries in the town, the Farin-ruwa bakery, a subsidiary of the FarinRuwa Trading and Investment Company established in 1968 at UnguwarWaje and Amana bakery established in 1974 by a Hausa migrant at Unguwar

Gwari.¹⁵ These earlier bakeries enjoyed the patronage of not only the inhabitants of the town but also the surrounding villages. The increasing demand for bread after the siting of the FCDA Field Base in the town motivated some Hausa, Yoruba, Igbo and Yoruba entrepreneurs to establish more bakeries in various parts of the town, bringing their number to 18 in 2013.¹⁶

Table 4: Some Bakeries in Suleja, 1980-2012

S/N	Bakery	Location	Year of Establishment	Current status
1.	Nakowa	UnguwarMagajin Mallam, Suleja	1980	Closed down in 1998 due to shortage of funds to remain in the business
2.	Hassan	UnguwarZariyawa	1983	Operational
3.	King best	BakinKasuwa	1983	Operational
4.	Basira	Along Morocco road, Suleja	1985	Operational
5.	Nasara	UnguwarAho	1986	Operational
6.	Alheri	UnguwarDaudugyara	1990	Operational
7.	S.T.K Bread	Victory road, Suleja	1990	Closed down in 1999 due to shortage of funds
8.	Al-Bushar	UnguwarMagajin Mallam, Suleja	1992	Operational
9.	Yido Bread	Unguwar Mallam Ashehu, Suleja	1994	Operational
10.	Capital Bread	Kwamba	2010	Operational
11.	Zumunta Bakery	UnguwarGwandara, Suleja	1996	Operational
12.	Lamama Bread	UnguwarGwandara, Suleja	1997	Closed down in 2001 after the death of its owner
13.	Bayas Bakery	Morocco road, Suleja	1998	Operational
14.	Express Bread	Eminence	2000	Operational
15.	Fatima Bakery	Dawaki, Suleja	2003	Operational
16.	Oceanic Bakery	Near the General Hospital, along Usman Faruk road, Suleja	2007	Operational
17.	Imperial Bakery and Confectionery	Hassan Dallatu road, Suleja	2009	Operational
18.	Goodluck Bakery	Morocco road, Suleja	2012	Operational

Source: Alhaji Dauda, Head, Suleja Tenement Rate office, along Usman Faruk road, List of some bakeries in Suleja, 1980-2012.

From the above table it is glaring that by 2012, out of the 18 bakeries operating in the town since 1980, only 15 are still engaged in the production of bread, 3 had lost out due to lack of adequate funds to remain in the competitive business. They could not produce high quality bread as produced by some of their business associates.

In addition to meeting the demands of customers, the various bakeries employed 10-20 persons who worked as managers, drivers and those who engaged in the production process. By 2015, out of the estimated workforce of 4499 in Suleja, the various bakeries employed 78 person, which represented 1.7%. Similarly, the bakeries generated revenue to the Suleja Local Government. By 2015, out of the N130,610,000 annual IGR, the bakeries generated N100,000 which represented 0.076%.

Guest Houses/Hotels

Guest houses or hotels are normally houses or establishments offering accommodation to visitors or guests who pay certain amount of money to lodge. Prior to 1979, there were only two guest houses in Suleja. These were the Catering Rest House/Niger Motel (Government owned) established in 1978, opposite the Awwal Ibrahim Township Stadium and Sa'ida Guest-Inn owned by Alhaji Sa'ida (an indigene of Suleja). With the siting of the FCDA Field Base in 1979, other hoteliers joined the business and established more guest houses and hotels in the town. For example, in 1981, Alhaji Kuspa, established Kuspa Guest-Inn at UnguwarJuma and. In 1982, Alhaji Abubakar Sadiq, another Sadiq Guest-Inn at UnguwarMagajin Mallam both were indigenes have listed also within the ancient settlement. The profitability of the business made Alhaji Sa'ida to establish an Annex in 1984, near the State low cost, off Sulemanu Barau road, Suleja. These earliest guest houses mostly serviced the indigenous contractors who came in search of contracts in the new capital territory. Since there were no guest houses or hotels in the capital territory, these contractors lodged in the various guest houses in Suleja. By the early 1980s, these indigenous hoteliers were joined in the business by the migrant hoteliers, most of who are of Igbo, Yoruba and Edo extractions. For example, in 1981, an Igbo migrant popularly called Morocco, established Morocco Guest-Inn at UnguwarGwandara, along Morocco road. In 1983, another Igbo migrant established Sunny Guest-Inn opposite the former Bank of the North at Dawaki. In 1996, a Yoruba migrant, Alhaji AbdulKarim established Cosco Guest House at the hill-top, near the Government lodge. The entrance of these migrant hoteliers into the business increased the number of guest houses/hotels in Suleja from 4 in 1982 to 60 in 2015.¹⁷ Apart from providing

accommodation to visitors, the guest houses/hotels also served as venues for public functions, such as meetings, socialgatherings, recreation and catering services. The guest houses/hotels also provided jobs in the town. Each guest house and hotel employed between 6 and 10 youths who work as managers, receptionists, cooks, cleaners and security guards. For example, by 2015, out of the estimated workforce of 4499, the guest houses/hotels employed 580 youths, which represented 13.1%. With regards to revenue generation, in 2015, out of the N130,610,000annual IGR, the guest houses and hotels generated N726,000, which represented 0.55%.¹⁸(See Table 5 for the Guest Houses/Hotels in Suleja, from 1980-2015 and their status)

Table 5: Guest houses/Hotels in Suleja, 1980-2015

S/N	Guest Inn/Hotel	Location	Year of Establishment	Current Status
1.	Indo Hotel	At Biba road, later relocated to UnguwarGwandara as Indo Guest Inn	1980	Converted to a private school in 2003 and residential in 2010
2.	Kuspa Guest Inn	UnguwarJuma	1981	Converted to residential accommodation in 1999
3.	Tommy Hill Hotel	Church road	1981	Operational
4.	Morocco Hotel	UnguwarGwandara	1981	Converted to residential in 2003
5.	Eddy Vic Hotel	Opposite Unity Bank (Formerly Bank of the North)	1981	Converted to residential in 2003
6.	Silver Port Hotel (Formerly Agudu Guest Inn)	Kwamba	1982	Operational
7.	Abdullahi Hotspot	Opposite Unity Bank	1982	Converted to residential in 2003
8.	Badaru Guest Inn	Near Kantoma bridge	1983	Operational
9.	Sunny Guest Inn	Opposite the former Bank of the North (now Unity Bank) Dawaki	1983	Converted to residential in 2003
10.	Sadiq Guest Inn	UnguwarMagajin Mallam, along Hassan Dallatu road	1984	Operational
11.	Sa'ida Guest Inn (Annex)	State Low cost, Off Sulemanu Barau road	1984	Operational

12.	Jumet Hotel	Kwamba	1984	Converted to residential in 2003
13.	Best Way Hotel	Near Sunny Guest Inn, Dawaki	1986	Converted to residential in 2003
14.	Eminence Hotel	Off Morocco road	1986	Operational
15.	Suleja Club	Hill top	1990	Converted to residential in 2009
16.	Nadama Guest Inn	Sulemanu Barau road	1990	Converted to residential in 1999
18.	Serenity Guest Inn	Along Kaduna road	1990	Operational
19.	Alheri Guest Inn	UnguwarGwandara, Morocco road	1990	Converted to residential in 2003
20.	Top line Hotel	Madalla	1990	Converted to residential in 2003
21.	De-limit	Sulemanu Barau road	1990	Converted to residential in 2003
22.	Osato Holiday Inn	Kwamba	1991	Converted to residential accommodation in 2003
23.	Jubilee Hotel	Kurmin Sarki, off Minna road	1991	Operational
24.	Ochukwu Guest House	Kwamba	1991	Converted to residential in 2003
25.	Blessed Guest Inn	Along Kaduna road	1991	Operational
26.	Lura Guest Inn	Along Kaduna road	1991	Operational
27.	National Guest House	Morocco road	1991	Converted to residential in 2003
28.	Hill Side Motel	Along Bakinlku	1991	Converted to residential in 2003
29.	Seacord Guest House	Kwamba	1992	Converted to residential in 2003
30.	KudauFrnil Hotel	Gwazunu, off Abuja-Kaduna express way	1992	Converted to residential in 2003
31.	Round House Hotel	Along Bakinlku road	1992	Operational

32.	Jim Inn Guest House	SaniAlhassan Drive, along Bakinlku/Kaduna road	1992	Operational
33.	Pioneers Guest Inn	Along Bakinlku road	1992	Operational
34.	Polygon Guest Inn	RafinSanyi, along Madalla road	1992	Converted to residential in 2003
35.	Sarafina Guest House	Along Sulemanu Barau road	1992	Operational
36.	Topline Guest House	Morocco road	1993	Converted to residential in 2003
37.	Red Bricks	Along Bakinlku road	1993	Operational
38.	Mahuta Guest Inn	UnguwarGwandara, Morocco road	1993	Converted to residential in 2003
39.	Fawcett Guest Flouse	UnguwarGwandara, Morocco road	1993	Converted to residential in 1999
40.	Beauty Hotel	Church road	1994	Converted to residential in 1999
41.	Easy way Guest House	Bwari junction, near Zuma Barracks	1994	Converted to residential in 2003
42.	Cocoa Hotel	Kasuwan Dole, Pangamu	1994	Converted to residential in 2000
43.	Abuja Motel	Along Abuja-Kaduna Express way	1994	Operational
44.	Capy Hotel	Behind former SDP Office, Kurmin Sarki, off Minna road	1995	Converted to residential in 1999
45.	De Royal Guest House	Kwamba	1995	Converted to residential in 1999
46.	J. B. Y. Guest Inn	Behind Awwal Ibrahim Stadium, Kurmin Sarki	1995	Converted to residential in 2003
47.	COSCO Guest House	Hill top	1996	Operational
48.	Abdullahi Bisalla Guest Inn (Local Government owned)	Opposite the former FCDA Field Base	1997	Converted to the office of Nigeria Security and Civil Defense Corps
49.	NNPC Club House (Formerly NNPC Guest House)	SaniAlhassan Drive	1997	Operational

50.	Double Tee Guest House	SaniAlhassan Drive	1998	Operational
51.	West end Apartment	Sulemanu Barau road	1999	Operational
52.	Oyus Guest Inn	Off SaniAlhassan Drive	2000	Converted to residential in 2003
53.	De-Ploo Hotel	Madalla	2001	Operational
54.	Gold Torch	Off SaniAlhassan Drive	2001	Operational
55.	City Link Guest House	RafinSanyi	2001	Operational
56.	Kristos Guest	RafinSanyi, along Madalla road	2002	Operational
57.	Sandaco Guest Inn	Along Madalla road	2005	Operational
58.	City Link	Off SaniAlhassan Drive	2005	Operational
59.	Cecco Guest Inn	Opposite Sulemanu Barau Technical College, Kwamba	2006	Operational
60.	Masfala Guest House	Kwamba, Off Minna road	2008	Operational
61.	Agenda Suites and Restaurant	Kwankwashe, along Madalla road	2008	Operational
62.	Yankees Hotel	Sulemanu Barau road	2009	Operational
63.	Madalla Resort	Madalla	2009	Operational
64.	Premier Guest House	Sulemanu Barau road	2009	Operational
65.	Primeview Guest House	Along Sulemanu Barau road	2009	Operational
66.	Lawson Guest House	Kwamba	2010	Operational
	Dato Hotel	Madalla	2010	Operational
67.	Hylina Guest Inn	Madalla	2010	Operational
68.	Gresa Guest Inn	Madalla	2010	Operational
69.	Primeview Guest House (Annex)	Along Kaduna road	2011	Operational
70.	Fidmac Hotel	Morocco road	2012	Operational
71.	Mac Anthony	Kwamba, Minna road	2015	Operational

Source: Alhaji Dauda, Head, Suleja Tenement Rate office, along Usman Faruk road, List of Guest Houses/Hotels in Suleja, 1981-2015.

The table above shows the proliferation of guest houses and hotels in Suleja since 1981. By 2015, the number of guest houses and hotels had dropped to 39 after 31 of them had been closed down and converted to other purposes. Most of the hotels that were converted to private residence and schools was as a result of the fact that their owners could not remain in the competitive market, especially as new hotels sprung up providing efficient services. Another reason explaining the high rate of conversion of hotels to private purposes was because of the death of their owners when the buildings became inherited property for the families of the deceased who sold them to private individuals.

Departmental stores

What operates as Super markets in Suleja are not super markets in the real sense of the word. This is because the buildings are small in size compared to super markets in the major cities in Nigeria and some parts of the world. At best they could be regarded as departmental stores even though those who established them called them super markets. These departmental stores offered some products ranging from canned or packaged foods-meats, fish, dairy products and non-food items such as kitchen utensils, cloth wears, and gift items. Unlike the traditional shops, the departmental stores have fixed prices. Prior to the siting of the FCDA Field Base in 1979, the only outlet the elite in Suleja used for shopping was the Farin-Ruwa Trading and Investment Company established in 1969 along Usman Faruk road. Within the township, some local shops were established which the local population patronized. The metamorphosis of Suleja into cosmopolitan led to the establishment of departmental stores. These departmental stores were exclusively established and controlled by the Igbo migrants who employed one or two members of their families or relations as sales boys/girls. Most of these departmental stores were named after their owners. For example, in 1980, Mr. Egwuagu established the first departmental store in the town, which he named Egwuagu super market, along Morocco road. In 1981, Mr. Sunny established the second departmental store which he named Sunny stores, along Hassan Dallatu road. Subsequently more of such departmental store were established. (See Table 6 for the departmental stores in Suleja, 1980 and 2014)

Table 6: Departmental stores in Suleja, 1980-2014

S/N	Departmental Store	Location	Year of Establishment	Current Status
1.	Egwuagu Super Market	Morocco road, Suleja	1980	Closed down in 2002
2.	Sunny Stores	Hassan Dallatu road, Suleja	1981	Operational
3.	Cyril Super Market	Morocco road, Suleja	1982	Closed down in 2000
4.	God's Link Super Stores	Sulemanu Barau road, Suleja	1987	Operational
5.	Unique Super Stores	Sulemanu Barau road, Suleja	2009	Operational
6.	Silva Stores	Sulemanu Barau road, Suleja	2014	Operational

Source: Alhaji Dauda, Head, Suleja Tenement Rate office, along Usman Faruk road, 2016.

The table above reveals that by 2014, only four of those departmental stores established in the town were operational. As the table shows, two of the earliest departmental stores have closed down due lack of funds to remain in the business. These were Egwuagu 2000 and Cyril in 2002. These departmental stores generated revenue to Suleja Local Government. To the tune of , N270,000 in 2015.¹⁹

Petrol (Filling) Stations

Sale of petroleum products such as petrol, kerosene and gas has been one of the lucrative businesses in Nigeria since the oil boom period. In Suleja, the first filling station was as Shell, was established in 1967 at BakinKasuwa.²⁰ By 1978, Alhaji Mustapha acquired the Shell petrol station and renamed it National filling station.²¹ The establishment of Kaduna refinery in 1980 and the NNPC depot at Maje, Suleja, in 1994 gave additional impetus to the oil marketers to establish petrol stations in Suleja. The petrol stations in Suleja enjoy the monopoly of the Yoruba, Igbo, Hausa, Ebira and Edo migrants. For example, in 1981, an Igbo migrant, Jibeco established the Agip petrol station near G.S.S. Suleja.²² In 1991, a Hausa migrant, DahiruGarba established a filling station Kwamba, along Minna road. In 2004, an Ebira migrant established Ohinoyi Oil and Gas filling station, at Kwankwashe, along Madallaroad. In 2010, a Hausa migrant, Alhaji MajeSalisuSullubawa, established a filling station that bears his name at Kwamba, along Minna road. (See table 7 for petrol stations in Suleja, 1981

to 2015). Apart from serving the inhabitants with fuel, Liquid paraffin and Gas/Diesel, the petrol stations employed between 6 and 15 youths, depending on their sizes and services offered. For example, in 2015, out of the estimated workforce of 4499 in Suleja, the petrol stations employed 554 youths, which represented 12.31%. Other services offered in most of the petrol stations include sale of lubricants, vehicles wheel balancing and alignment and servicing of vehicles. The petrol stations also generated revenue to the Suleja Local Government. For example, in 2015, out of the N130,610,000 IGR, the petrol stations contributed 1,015,000, which represented 0.077%.²³

Table 7: Petrol (Filling) Stations in Suleja, 1981-2015

S/N	Petrol Station	Location	Year of Establishment	Current status
1.	Agip	Near GSS, along Madalla road	1981	Closed down in 2000 and relocated to Gwagwalada
2.	Mobil	Madalla, by Express way	1987	Operational
3.	DahiruGarba	Kwamba, along Minna road	1991	Operational
4.	Shemako	Kwamba, along Minna road	1991	Operational
5.	Aiton	Adjacent First bank, along Usman Faruk road	1994	Operational
6.	Conoil	Kwankwashe, along Madalla road	1998	Operational
7.	ASCON	Madalla	2001	Operational
8.	Kotorima Merchant Nig. Ltd	Kwamba, opposite the former NRC office	2002	Operational
9.	Total	Maje	2002	Operational
10.	Mobil	Berger Paint, Chaza junction	2004	Operational
11.	Isra	Berger Paint, Chaza junction	2004	Operational
12.	Total	Near GSS, along Madalla road	2005	Operational
13.	Baura Global Co. Ltd	Maje	2005	Operational
14.	Salkab Petroleum investment	Madalla	2006	Operational
15.	NNPC	Madalla	2006	Operational
16.	Ohinoyi Oil & Gas	RafinSanyi	2006	Operational

17.	Amton Global	Kwankwashe, Madalla road	2006	Operational
18.	MRS (formerly Texaco)	Kwamba	2006	Operational
19.	Mobil	Bakin-Iku	2006	Operational
20.	Mohafiya	Kwankwashe, Madalla road	2008	Operational
21.	Peace Oil & Gas	Near Abbatoir, Madalla road	2007	Operational
22.	HaliduGegu	Hill top, near the former FCDA Field Base	2007	Operational
23.	Alhali (HaliduGegu)	Kwamba	2007	Operational
24.	Global	Bakin-Iku	2007	Operational
25.	HaliduGegu	Kwamba, Opposite Sulemanu Barau Technical College	2007	Operational
26.	Felande Petroleum Ltd	Maje	2008	Operational
27.	EDEWA & Sons	Kwamba, along Minna road	2008	Operational
28.				
29.	AP	Kwamba, along Minna road	2009	Operational
30.	Awwaleem Petrol & Gas Company Ltd	Kwamba, along Minna road	2010	Operational
31.	ZAMSON Global Resources	Kwamba	2010	Operational
32.	Alh. MajeSalisuSulubawa Nig. Ltd	Kwamba	2010	Operational
33.	Alh. AbdulKadir & Sons Ltd	Opposite Zuma FM, Maje	2010	Operational
34.	Fort (formerly AP)	RafinSanyi, along Madalla road	2011	Operational
35.	NNPC	Adjacent the Local Government Secretariat	2013	Operational
36.	Ifiene filling station	Kwamba, along Minna road	2014	Operational
37.	Alhaji Mustafa	Maje	2014	Operational
38.	Poosab	Kwamba, along Minna road	2014	Operational
39.	Krona Resources	Gwazunu	2015	Operational

Source: Field Survey, 2016.

It is glaring from the above table that the petrol stations in Suleja were geographically spread. Apart from the National filling station established within the township, all the other petrol stations were established at the outskirts of the town on the northern, eastern and southern axis, except the western axis which lacked any entry or exit point due to the difficult terrain characterized by hills and rocks.

Sachet water

Prior to the establishment of the sachet water business otherwise called pure water in the year 2000, some local water vendors packaged water locally on ordinary white polythene bags and sold to members of the public. The business thrived during the hot season. Even though the process of packaging the water was not hygienic members of the public at public places such as markets and motor parks patronized the local water products. The emergence of the sachet water business in 2000 undermined the activities of the local water vendors, who gradually lost out. In order to remain in the business, most of the local water vendors patronized the various sachet water companies for sale to members of the public. The sachet water companies used machine and chemicals to treat or purify the water before packaging it into 50 CL polythene bags. Most of these sachet water companies used vehicles to supply their customers. The various sachet water companies generated employment in the town. In 2015, out of the estimated workforce of 4499, the sachet water companies employed 132 persons which represented 2.93%. Similarly, the sachet water companies also generated revenue to the Suleja Local Government Council. In 2015, out of the N130,610,000 annual IGR, the sachet water generated N110,000, which represented 0.084%. (See Table 8 for some sachet water companies in Suleja, 2000-2015).

Table 8: Some Sachet (Pure) Water Companies in Suleja, 2000-2015

S/N	Sachet water	Location	Year of Establishment	Current Status
1.	De-Great table water	Eminence Hotel, Morocco road	2000	Operational
2.	Nice water (sachet and table water)	Behind Goben chemist, Off Morocco road	2003	Operational
3.	Supreme pure water	Morocco road	2003	Operational
4.	Demand pure water	Victory road	2004	Operational
5.	F. C. Blessed table water	Kurmin Sarki	2004	Operational
6.	Samsoko table water	Church road	2005	Operational
7.	Amaneem pure water	Kwamba	2005	Operational
8.	Supa pure water	Hassan Dallatu road	2008	Operational
9.	Edyrowl table water	Victory road	2009	Operational
10.	Al-Makus pure water	Hassan Dallatu road	2010	Operational
11.	Kudo table water	Kwamba	2010	Operational
12.	NUSEAM table water	Kurmin Sarki	2011	Operational
13.	De-Prime pure water	Behind Abuja Hotel, Abuja-Kaduna express way	2011	Operational
14.	S. K. S. Table water	Sulemanu Barau road	2012	Operational
15.	De-Grace pure water	Kilometer 10, Abuja-Kaduna express way	2012	Operational
16.	Biljim pure water	B Division, Gwazunu road	2013	Operational
17.	De-Scan table water	Off SaniAlhassan Drive, near Oyus Guest Inn	2014	Operational
18.	Inspiration table water	Off Sulemanu Barau road	2014	Operational
19.	De-Provider pure water	Off Sulemanu Barau road	2014	Operational
20.	Blessed water	Morocco road	2015	Operational
21.	Talent pure water	Behind Berger paint, Chaza road	2014	Operational
22.	Sowelab pure water	Paulosa, along Madalla road	2015	Operational

Source: Alhaji Dauda, Head, Suleja Tenement Rate office, along Usman Faruk road, List of Super markets in Suleja, 1980-2014.

From the above table, it is clear that by 2015, all the 22 sachet water companies remained in operation.

Other commercial activities, 1979-2015

Other commercial activities established in Suleja between 1979 and 2015 included photographic studios firstly established in 1960 and became widespread as from 1979, Tyre stores in 1979, printing presses, furniture works and boutiques all in 1980, electronics and electronic spare parts in 1980, vehicle spare parts in 1981, fashion/saloon/laundry/hairstyling and barbing in 1985, security services in 1989, motorcycle dealers and car wash in 1990, Computer business centres in 1990 and GSM shops in 2004. Thus, Suleja emerged as a hub for commercial activities. These services were not only patronized by the inhabitants of the town and its neighbouring communities but also by the inhabitants of the Federal Capital Territory, including Jere and other communities in Kaduna State. Therefore, it would not be an exaggeration to say that every street in the town became a market side because of the presence of shops for various commercial activities.

Suleja Mechanic village

The Suleja mechanic village was established in 1983 behind the First Bank, off Usman Faruk road. it became known as the First Bank Unit. Prior to the establishment of the Suleja mechanic village, mechanics were found along the major entry and exit points of the town. The mechanic village brought together mechanics different after and that specialized in vehicles. They also cut across different ethnic groups with igbo and yaruba being majority. Some mechanics in Suleja did not however relocate to the mechanic village. Many mechanics have their workshops at various sections of the town. In addition to repairing and refurbishing of all types of vehicles, the Suleja mechanic village also offered other services such as mechanical panel beating, auto-electrical welding, alignment and wheel balancing, fabricating upholstery and interior and motor spare parts for all vehicles new or fairly used. By 2015, there were a total number of 72 persons engaged in various works in the mechanic village.²⁴ This figure represented 1.71% of the estimated workforce of 4499 in Suleja. The mechanic village is also an important source of revenue to the Suleja Local Government Council. For instant In 2015, the Suleja mechanic village generated the sum of N115,000 to the Local Government, which represented 0.088%.²⁵

In 2002, the Suleja Local Government Council established a permanent site for the mechanic village at Dumez, Gauraka, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way. Subsequently, many mechanics relocated from the mechanic village in the town to the permanent site, while others remained at the First Bank unit.²⁶ Like the first bank unit, the Igbo dominated the Dumez unit.

According to the Chairman of the unit, by 2015, the number of persons working in the Dumex unit was 145.²⁷ and generated N409,000 as annual revenue to the Suleja Local Government Council, which represented 0.31%.²⁸

Suleja Aluminium Village

In 1994, the Suleja aluminium village was established at Gauraka, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way. The market was owned by some Igbo and Hausa migrants, who in 1980 acquired the land from the Suleja Local Government.²⁹ Prior to the establishment of the aluminium market, the site was a building material market with about 10 shops owned by the Igbo. In 1993, three aluminium dealers, Build-well, Law-mark and Masters established aluminium business there.³⁰ By early 1994, seeing the prospects of the aluminium business there, other aluminium dealers joined the earlier dealers. By late 1994, the aluminium business dominated the building material business which forced the building material business to relocate to Dei-Dei, which is the largest building material market in the FCT. The leading aluminium dealers constructed their respective plazas and side shops for rent by the other dealers. Thus, by 2015, there were six plazas in the aluminium village. These are Habitat, Build-well, Law-mark, Masters, Ojukwu and Oraka plazas respectively. Big dealers imported the aluminium products from China while others got their supplies from some aluminium manufacturing companies in Nigeria, which included Onyishialuminium manufacturing company in Imo state and Nagalisaluminium manufacturing company in Lagos state. The total number of shops at the Suleja aluminium village was put at 420 including the side shops.³¹ Similarly, the aluminium market provided jobs to 1080 persons.³² This figure represented 24% of the estimated workforce of 4499 in Suleja. About 70 per cent of the aluminium dealers are Igbo, while the Yoruba and Hausa constitute 15 per cent and others 5 per cent.³³

Tax force office, Suleja Aluminum village, Number of Shops at the Market, 2018 By 2010, the aluminium business had become a lucrative industry employing a large number of persons and generating income to the owners and revenue to the Suleja Local Government Council. Each dealer employs between 6 and 7 persons who worked as sales girls and errand boys. The workers are paid between N15, 000 and N25, 000 monthly. In addition, the dealers employed the services of the technicians who specialized in fixing the aluminium products into different shapes and sizes.

The big shops at the plazas paid N150,000 as annual rent to the owners of the plazas while the side shops which are smaller in size paid N120, 000

annually. Since 2010, the aluminium dealers have been lamenting the exorbitant annual rent demanded by the owners of the shops they occupied. In 2012, the union leaders appealed to the Suleja Local Government Council to come to their aid and provide them with a government land where they could pay less. Up to 2015, the Suleja Local Government has not provided the aluminium dealers with the land. The aluminium dealers still paid exorbitantly for the rented shops. As at 2015, the annual revenue generated at the aluminium village amounted to N2,520,000, which represented 1.92% of the IGR³⁴

Establishment of Banks and Financial Institutions

Banks and other financial institutions aid the social and economic growth of any society. Socially, the establishment of banks leads to the coming of people of diverse socio-cultural backgrounds who work in the banks, thereby mingling with the inhabitants of the society. Economically, to a greater extent, the presence of banks in the society boosts economic and commercial activities. In their attempt to grab advantage of the sprawling commercial activities some banks established their branches in the town. In early 1979, the First Bank and Bank of the North established their branches at Usman Faruk and Dawaki roads respectively.³⁵ In late 1979, the International Bank for West Africa (IBWA) also established its branch at Hilltop near the Government Lodge.³⁶ The number of banks rose from 2 in 1979 to 22 in 2015.³⁷ It is worthy to note that these banks enjoyed high patronage because of the various commercial activities in Suleja. (See Table 9 for banks in Suleja, 1980-2011).

Table 9: Banks in Suleja, 1980-2011

S/N	Bank	Location	Year of Establishment	Current Status
1.	AfriBank (Formerly IBWA)	Relocated to Unguwar Gwandara, opposite the old BakinKasuwa primary school	1980	Closed down in 2006
2.	United Bank for Africa (UBA)	Unguwar Kabula	1981	Operational
3.	African Continental Bank	Dawaki	1982	Closed down in 2006
4.	Pan African Bank	Sulemanu Barau road	1982	Closed down in 2006
5.	Commerce and Credit Bank	Dawaki	1983	Closed down in 2000
6.	Union Bank	Hill top, near the former FCDA Field Base	1983	Operational
7.	Inter City Bank	Usman Faruk road, opposite First Bank	1984	Closed down in 2006
8.	African Continental Bank	Dawaki	1984	Closed down in 2006
9.	Keystone (formerly Habib Bank and Bank	Along Morocco road	1988	Operational
10.	Access Bank	Sulemanu Barau road	1991	Operational
11.	BankPHB (formerly Habib Bank	Morocco road	1998	Operational
12.	Zenith Bank	Usman Faruk road	2005	Operational
13.	Unity Bank (Formerly Bank of the North)	Usman Faruk road and Dawaki	2006	Operational
14.	Diamond Bank	Market road	2006	Operational
15.	Oceanic Bank (now EcoBank)	Usman Faruk road	2008	Operational
16.	First City Monument Bank (FCMB)	Sulemanu Barau road	2008	Operational
17.	Fidelity Bank	Sulemanu Barau road	2010	Operational
18.	Stanbic IBTC Bank	Usman Faruk road	2010	Operational
19.	Mainstreet Bank (formerly AfriBank)	Market road	2011	Operational

Source: Niger state Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, A Publication of Commercial Department, 2014.

The above table glaringly shows that by 2015, the number of banks in Suleja reduced to 13. The reduction is because six out of the 19 banks

operating in the town closed down due to the fact that they could not meet the target twenty five Billion (25,000,000,00) naira capital found set by the central bank of Nigeria The result effort of this was majour of banks ³⁸. Immediately after the merger, new banks established their branches in Suleja just as they did across the country. For example, in 2005, Zenith bank established its branch in Suleja.³⁸ In 2006, three banks established their branches in the town. These were Unity Bank, after the merger of eight (8) different banks, including the former Bank of the North and Inter City bank.³⁹ Unity bank retained the buildings of the former Bank of the North at Dawaki and Inter-City Bank at Usman Faruk road respectively. In 2006, Diamond Bank and Intercontinental bank established their branches in the town. In 2008, two additional banks opened their branches in Suleja. These were Oceanic bank which in 2009 changed its name to Eco Bank⁴⁰ and First City Monument Bank.⁴¹ In 2010, two more banks established their branches in the town. These were Fidelity bank⁴² and Stanbic IBTC.⁴³ In 2011, AfriBank earlier established in 1980 changed its name to Mainstreet bank⁴⁴ and retained its building along the market road.

In addition to these banks, some insurance companies established their branches in Suleja. These included the Liberty Assurance Company Limited 1980, the Gateway Assurance Company 1981, the Maximum Insurance Company Limited and the International Insurance Group 1984.⁴⁵ These insurance companies covered fire incidence, vehicle accidents, motor vehicles and general insurance policies. By the late 1990s, due to low patronage, these insurance companies had closed down.

The presence of these banks and insurance companies greatly contributed to the growth of commercial activities in Suleja. Most of the banks gave loan facilities to their teeming customers especially young traders and would-be entrepreneurs to either establish a new business or expand an existing one.

Revolution in Information and Communications Technology (ICT) provided the banks with an excellent opportunity to provide more effective and efficient services to their customers. Some of these new services include introduction of the Automated Teller Machine (ATM) for cash withdrawals, transfer of funds, payment of utility bills and online banking service using smartphones, laptops and desktops via the Internet for online transactions such as online shopping through numerous online shops, like Konga and Injoo.

Establishment of Private Companies and Manufacturing Industries in Suleja

In spite of the fact that Suleja is blessed with natural resources, such as granite rocks and wood of various types, prior to the siting of the FCDA Field Base, apart from some block industries, Suleja lacked any medium or large scale industries. This was due to the neglect the town suffered as a result of the politics that characterized the First Republic when both the Regional and later Northwest State Governments respectively were reluctant to locate any industry in the town. However, following the siting of the FCDA Field Base in Suleja, which attracted influx of people, the town was connected to the National grid. In its bid to attract investors in establishing industries in Suleja, in 1989, the State Government created an industrial layout at the outskirts of the town, along Minna road, which is yet to develop, almost three decades later.⁴⁶In addition, there is yet to be any serious commitment on the part of the government to promote industrialization of the state in general, Suleja inclusive. The government is yet to formulate and implement any policy towards the industrialization of the state as a whole. Therefore, only few medium scale industries were established along Kwamba/Maje, Bakin-Iku and Madalla roads respectively. For example, between 1978 and 1982, due to the availability of granite rocks in abundance, various quarries were established in Suleja to meet the demand for the stone products needed mostly by various construction firms engaged in developing the capital city. Thus, in 1978, Dumex construction company established a quarry at Bakin-Iku, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way. In 1979, a Yoruba migrant known as Alhaji Abdullahi Gboyega established a quarry at Kwankwashe, off Madalla road. In 1980, the Nigerian Mining Corporation established a quarry opposite Zuma rock. In 1981, five different companies established their quarries. These were Paulosa, at Rafin-Sanyi, off Madalla road, Army road stone at Madalla, Strabag, Guffanti, ARC, all at Gauraka, along Kaduna-Abuja dual carriage way. In 1982, Stalin Company established a quarry opposite Zuma rock. Quarry activity relied on diesel powered machines to operate. Unlike the other medium scale industries, the quarries did not need electricity to operate. According to AbdurRahimi, quarry activity involves drilling, blasting and crushing of rocks to become chips of various sizes.⁴⁷ The various stone products were mainly used in the various construction sites during the early development of the capital city, including road construction. (See Table 10 for some quarries in Suleja, 1978-1982).

Table 10: Some Quarries in Suleja, 1978-1982

S/N	Quarry	Location	Year of Establishment	Current Status
1.	Dumex	Bakin-lku, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way	1978	Operational
2.	Alhaji Gboyega	Kwankashe, off Madalla road	1979	Operational
3.	Mining Corporation (Government owned)	Opposite Zuma rock	1980	Closed down in 1988
4.	Armey road stone	Madalla	1981	Closed down in 1987
5.	Strabag Construction Company	Gauraka, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way	1981	Closed down in 2000
6.	Guffanti construction company	Gauraka, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way	1981	Closed down in 1995
7.	Paulosa	RafinSanyi, off Madalla road	1981	Closed down in 1999
8.	ARC	Gauraka, along Abuja-Kaduna dual carriage way	1981	Closed down in 1986
9.	Stalin	Opposite Zuma rock	1982	Closed down in 1996

Source: Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, Minna, A Publication of Commercial Department, 2014

It is glaring from the above table that by 2015, only two out of the nine quarries in Suleja are still extant. These are Dumex and Alhaji Abdullahi Gboyega. Seven had left the business since most of them were established to supply the stone products when the capital city was being developed. After much success was achieved in developing the capital city, these quarries shut down their sites and gradually left. Thus, the market base for the two quarries still operating is limited to Suleja, Tafa, Gurara and some parts of the FCT.

Saw Mills

As a medium scale industry, saw mills processed timber into woods of various sizes. Although Alhaji Abdullahi Gboyega, established the first saw mill in Suleja in 1972, at the old Army Barracks, along Madalla road,⁴⁸ the timber business expanded after siting of the FCDA Field Base when the demand for wood increased for various constructions in Suleja and the capital city. In 1979, Alhaji Isyaka Mai-Katako joined the timber processing business and established his saw mill at Rafin-Sanyi, along Madalla road.⁴⁹

In 1981, Alhaji Ibrahim Mai-KwaryaBiyu also established his saw mill at Bakin-Iku, Abuja-Kaduna express way. The basic raw material, which is timber, was sourced in large quantity from some communities near Suleja, such as Kabo, Shaku and Dogon-Kurmi. Timber was also sourced from distant places such as Lapai, Agaie and Baro.⁵⁰ The market base for the various processed woods included Suleja town, Minna, Lapai, Agaie and the FCT. In the early 1980s, the various processed woods were used for some construction works in the new capital city, Abuja.⁵¹

The saw mill business began to decline in the late 1990s due to a number of factors, such as high cost of the equipment, power failure, cost of buying generators and diesel to run the equipment and indeed the entry of some Igbo into the business, who supplied cheap timber to the town from the south.⁵² Consequently, the Igbo timber dealers established a timber shed near the present Suleja modern market. By 2003 an entrepreneur, Alhaji Mohammed Muradadislodged the Igbo timber dealers when he acquired the site. Thus, the timber business was relocated near Eminence along the State low cost housing unit.⁵³ The new site belonged to Alhaji Sai'da who acquired it from the Suleja Local Government Council as far back 1980. A certain Igbo woman is said to have played an important role for acquiring the new site. She is said to have appealed to Alhaji Sa'ida to rent the site to her kinsmen in the timber business.⁵⁴ The Igbo who dominated the timber shade were, from 2010, joined by some other groups such as the Hausa, Yoruba and Epira-Kwoto, leading to the increase in the number of shades from 3 in 2004 to 100 in 2011.⁵⁵ By 2012, the number of the shades dropped to 50 after one Alhaji Hassan Mai-Bulawus, a Hausa migrant bought almost half of the timber shade from Alhaji Sai'da. Outside the town, the various processed woods were patronized by people from Madalla, Zuba in the FCT, and Izom, Lambata, Kwakuti, in Niger state and Jere in Kaduna state. The timber shade is also an important source of revenue to the Suleja Local Government. As at 2015, the annual rent paid to Alhaji Sa'idathe owner of the land was 2,000,000. On its part, by 2015 the Suleja Local Government generated N450,000 as annual revenue from the timber shade, which represented 0.34% of the IGR.⁵⁶

Manufacturing industries

From 1990, some migrant entrepreneurs began to establish some medium scale industries in Suleja. For example, in 1990, an Igbo migrant known as Mr. Tommy established an aluminium company which he named after himself, i.e. Tommy Aluminium, along Bakin-Iku road. The company produces aluminium products and accessories. In 1991, a Hausa/

Fulanimigrant known as Alhaji Hassan established Hassan Modern Turner near the Kwamba layout, along Minna road.⁵⁷ The company specialized in the design and manufacturing of machine parts, reconditioning of engine bloc, grinding of crank shaft, surfacing of top cylinder head, cutting of gear teeth into various sizes, among others. In 1991, in an attempt to boost Nigeria's refining, pumping and distribution of petroleum to various parts of Nigeria, the Nigerian National Petroleum Company established depots across the country. In Suleja, the depot was located at Maje, a sub-urb of Suleja, along the Maje-Diko road. In 2001, a renowned Yoruba migrant, known as Alhaji Abdullahi Gboyega, established a nail production company known as Shukra Global Resources at the old Army Barracks, along Madalla road. In 2002, vitafoam established a depot near the B Division police station and supplied various kinds of foams to its numerous wholesalers and individuals. In 2014, Mr. Tommy expanded his business in the town and established Tommy Poly along Bakin-Iku road. The company produced various agro-polythene bags and sheets. These medium scale industries depended on the National Electric Power Authority (NEPA) to operate. But due to incessant power outage experienced across the country, most of these industries acquired independent power plants and generators to operate in order to remain in the competitive market. (See Table 11 for some small and medium scale industries and depots in Suleja, 1990-2014)

Table 11: Some Companies/Industries and Depots in Suleja, 1990-2014

S/N	Industry/Company/Depot	Location	Year of Establishment
1.	Tommy Aluminum	Near the former FCDA Field Base, along Bakin-Iku/Kaduna road	1990
2.	Hassan Modern Turner	Tagawenqara (Opposite AEDC office), Kwamba	1991
3.	Shukra Global Resources (Nail production company)	The former Alhaji Abdullahi Gboyega and Sons (Saw Mill)	2001
4.	Vitaform Depot	Along Madalla road	2002
5.	Tommy Poly	Along Bakin-Iku/Kaduna road	2014

Source: Field Survey, 2014/2015

The various medium scale industries like the small scale industries discussed above also provided employment and generated revenue to the Suleja Local Government Council. The annual revenue generated by these medium scale industries in 2015 was N1,590,000, which represented 1.22%.⁵⁸

Conclusion

It has been demonstrated in this paper that the siting of the FCDA Field Base in Suleja in 1979 to facilitate the development of the new capital city led to the influx of fresh migrants to the town from many states of the federation and beyond. The influx provided opportunity for the economic migrants to establish a wide range of new commercial activities. These new commercial activities did not only improve on the quality of life of the inhabitants but also provided jobs to the youths. The quantum of commercial activities in Suleja enabled it to become one of the largest economic hubs generating huge IGR in the state. We have equally observed that the various commercial activities discussed have been some of the important source of revenue, paying various taxes to the Suleja local government council.

Endnotes

1. The *Zage-zagi* were the pre Jihad citizens of Zaria who followed the fugitive King, Makau from Zaria when they were overthrown and banished from Zaria by the Jihadists in 1808
2. Hassan and Shuaibu, *A Chronicle of Abuja*, A.U.P., p. 52
3. 1976 Niger State Government Population Estimate
4. 1979 Niger State Government Population Estimate
5. Interview with Alhaji Musbahu Shittu, 72 years, at his residence, Victory road, Suleja, 22/10/2014
6. Interview with Mr. Sunny Stanley, 69 years, at his Supermarket, along Hassan Dallatu road, Suleja, 2/10/2014
7. Interview with Dangana Yahaya, 53 years, former Revenue Officer, Suleja Local Government Council, at his office, Suleja Local Government Secretariat, 3/12/2017
8. Interview with Muhammad Awwal Zakari, Business man, 48 years, at his shop, Dawaki, Suleja, 23/10/2015
9. Interview with Isiyaku Hussaini, business man, 48 years, at his residence, Unguwar Mallam Ashehu, Suleja, 24/11/2015
10. Interview with Mr. Yakubu Bala, 56 years, Former Revenue Officer, Suleja Local Government, at his residence, Bakin Kasuwa, Suleja, 28/10/2017
11. Mr. Emmanuel, Son of the late Madam Delta, interviewed at his business centre, Unguwar Zaina, 25/5/2016
12. Interview with Mr. Emmanuel

13. Interview with Alhaji Zakari Danjuma, a former customer to the restaurant, interviewed at his residence, Unguwar Iya, Suleja, 12/03/2018
14. Interview with Sani Hussaini
15. Interviews with Alhaji Ibrahim Jibrin and Alhaji Musa Hadi, staff of Farinruwa and Amana bakeries, interviewed at their bakeries, 23/10/2016
16. List of bakeries in Suleja from 1980-2013, Collected from Suleja Tenement Rate office, along Usman Faruk road, Suleja, 20/10/2015
17. List of Guest houses/hotels in Suleja, 1980-2015, Social Welfare Department, Suleja, 20/10/2015
18. Interview with Sani Hussaini
19. Interview with Sani Hussaini
20. Interview with Alhaji Mustapha, interviewed at his residence, Bakin Kasuwa, Suleja, 11/8/2012
21. Interview with Alhaji Mustapha, Sarkin Yarbawa and Majidadin Sarkin Zazzau, Suleja, at his resident, Bakin Kasuwa, Suleja, 11/8/2012
22. Interview with Alhaji Musbahu Aliyu, Manager, NNPC Filling Station, near G.S.S. Suleja, at his office, 22/4/2016
23. Interview with Sani Hussaini, Revenue Officer, Suleja Local Government, at his office, Local Government Secretariat, 3/12/2017
24. Interview with Mr. Moses Tochukwu, Chairman, Suleja Mechanic Village, First bank Unit, interviewed at his workshop, 10/04/2018
25. Interview with Alhaji Ahmed J. Bawa, a retired Revenue officer, Suleja Local Government, interviewed at his residence, Unguwar Kabula, Suleja, 10/04/2018
26. Interview with Mr. Mark Sunday, Suleja Mechanic Village, Dumez Unit, interviewed at his workshop, 10/04/2018
27. Interview with Mr. Obi Emmanuel, Chairman, Suleja Mechanic Village, Dumex Unit, at his workshop, 23/3/2018
28. Interview with Sani Hussaini, Revenue officer, Suleja Local Government Council, interviewed at his office, Local Government Secretariat, 3/12/2017
29. Interview with Alhaji Ahmed J. Bawa
30. Interview with Mr. Oluohia Godfrey, a dealer in aluminium and accessories, interviewed at his shop, Habitat Plaza, Suleja Aluminium Village, 12/04/2018
31. Tax force office, Suleja Aluminium village, Number of Shops at the Market, 2018
32. Tax force office, Suleja Aluminium village, Number of person working in the Market, 2018
34. Interview with Sani Hussaini, Revenue officer, Suleja Local Government Council, interviewed at his office, Local Government Secretariat, 3/12/2017
35. This is Suleja: Niger State, a Publication of the Ministry of Information, Minna, p. 6
36. This is Suleja: Niger State, a Publication...

37. Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Tourism, A Publication of Commercial Department, 2014
38. Interview with Mallam MuhammaduSani Toto, a staff of Zenith bank, interviewed at his residence, Unguwar Mallam Ashehu, Suleja, 4/4/2014
39. Interview with Alhaji Sani Lokoja, a staff of Bank of the North, Suleja branch, interviewed at his residence, BakinKasuwa, Suleja, 4/4/2014
40. Interview with AlhajaMuyinatAbdulKarim, a staff of Eco bank, Suleja branch, interviewed at her office in the bank, Suleja, 4/4/2014
41. Interview with Miss Folake, a staff of FCMB, Suleja branch, interviewed at the bank, 4/4/2015
42. Interview with Mallam Umar Musa, a staff of Fidelity Bank, Suleja branch, interviewed at the bank, 4/4/2015
43. Interview with Mr. Emmanuel Kolawale, a staff of Stanbic IBTC, Suleja branch, interviewed at the bank, 4/4/2015
45. Suleja, Niger State, a Pamphlet published by the Ministry of Information, Niger State
46. Interview with Alhaji Ali Shuwada
47. Interview with Alhaji Abdurraheemi Abdullahi Gboyega
48. Interview with Alhaji Abdurraheemi Abdullahi Gboyega
49. Interview with Alhaji Muhammad Isiyaka
50. Interview with Alhaji Mohammed Inuwa, a former timber driver with the late Alhaji Isiyaka, interviewed at his residence, Unguwar Koko, Suleja, 12/4/2016
51. Interview with Alhaji Abdurrahimi Abdullahi Gboyega
52. Interview with Alhaji Mohammed Inuwa
53. Interview with Alhaji Tanko, Chairman, Suleja United Timber Dealers Association, interviewed at his shade, Timber Shade, near the State low cost, 16/3/2018
54. Interview with Mallam Ahmad Madaki, timber dealer, Interviewed at his shade, Suleja Timber shade, 16/3/2018
55. Interview with Mallam Muhammad Sani Toto, timber dealer, Interviewed at his shade, Suleja Timber shade, 16/3/2018
56. Interview with Alhaji Tanko
57. Interview with Mr.Suleman Abdulkarim, Manager at the company, interviewed at the company, 5/3/2016
58. Interview with Sani Hussaini

Relationship between Occupational Self-Concept and Career Interest among Senior Secondary School Students in Suleja Educational Zone of Niger State, Nigeria

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Abstract

This research work investigates the relationship between occupational self-concept and career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger State. The study mainly focused on two occupational environments which constitute the two components of this study. The study adopted a correlational research design. The sample size of this study comprises of 170 respondents; out of which 92 respondents were majored in outdoor occupational environment while 78 were majored in mechanical occupational environment. Modified Version of Occupational Self-Concept Scale and Vocational Interest Inventory were used for data collection. Two hypotheses were tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation statistics at 0.05 level of significance. Results of the analysis revealed among other that significant negative relationship existed between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger State. Based on the findings the researchers recommended among other that guidance counsellors and teachers should help to improve students' mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest most especially those students majoring in mechanical occupational environment by helping them see how mechanical occupational self-concept is connected to mechanical career interest during counselling and teaching.

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Introduction

Self-concept is a popular psychological variable which captivates the mind of many researchers in the field of psychology. Self-concept is a characteristics feature that human beings recognized and expressed themselves with by using personalized terms like “I, me, my, myself” which signify the awareness of oneself as distinct from others. It is this awareness of one’s self or self-perception otherwise known as self-concept that makes each individual to react and respond to situations in distinct ways (Duane in Kagu and Mohammed, 2007). Individuals who are otherwise similar feel differently about themselves and this suggests that people behave in ways that are consonant with their self-concept. Mohammed (2008) sees the self as a composite of thoughts and feelings which constitute a person’s awareness of his individual existence. Bukoye (2010) defined self-concept as a combination of all thoughts and feelings that a person has about himself or how he pictures himself. Both the physical and psychological dimension of self makes up the self-concept. Sternberg (2005) considers self-concept to consist of three components namely: cognitive domain (person’s knowledge about his real self), effective domain (person’s feelings about himself and evaluation of his own behaviour or abilities) and behavioural domain (when a person behaves in ways he wants others to regard him). Occupational self-concept is an aspect of self-concept which refers to the way individuals view, perceive and rate themselves in relation to various occupational activities such as outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service and clerical. Therefore, the way individual perceives and rates himself/herself occupationally may influence his/her career interest, for instance, if an individual viewed, perceived and rated himself/herself high in artistic occupational activities may influence positively in his/her interest towards artistic occupations and vice versa.

Career interests have been defined by many researchers such as Fortune (2011) who says the word ‘interest’ is a term used very often in our day to day life. It may appear to be a very simple term, but it is quite difficult to define and interpret. Interest is an orientation towards certain objects, activities and expressions. It is an expression of our likes and dislikes or attractions and aversions. Interest decides if we would be attentive to a particular stimulus or not. He further described that career or vocational interests reflect individuals’ choices in engaging in tasks and activities of their choices. Balogun (2006) described interests as attitudes that reflect stable personality traits.

Super as cited by Mohammed (2008) believed that career choice and development is essentially a process of developing and implementing a person's self-concept in the world of work. Super stressed that self-concept played significant role in students' career interest and choices. And by choosing a career according to him one is implementing his/her self-concept. Holland (2000) believed that persons obtain satisfaction in performing the particular kind of work activity that closely fits their personality. Holland postulates that individuals reveal much of their personalities through the choices of occupation they made. Holland's theory is based on the notion that an individual's personality characteristics and his/her occupational environment should correspond. Holland believes that there is a relationship between the personality type and suitable working environment. Otta and Williams (2012) stressed that, both self-concept and career interest are function of each other.

Egwuchukwu (2003), Peng (2007), Asika (2011) and Nasir and Lin (2013), discovered in their studies that significant relationship existed between artistic vocational self-concept and vocational choices among senior secondary school students; significant relationship existed between persuasive vocational self-concept and vocational choices among senior secondary school students; significant relationship existed between outdoor vocational self-concept and vocational choices among senior secondary school students; significant relationship existed between scientific vocational self-concept and vocational choices among senior secondary school students and significant relationship existed between computational vocational self-concept and vocational choices among senior secondary school students. Otta and Williams (2012) studied relationship between self-concept and vocational interest among senior secondary school students and found that significant relationship exists between students' self-concept and vocational interest. The results further revealed that those adolescent students with high self-concept and high vocational interest turned to direction of scientific, clerical, persuasive, social services, literary and computational vocational interest areas, whereas those students with low self-concept and low vocational interest turned to outdoor, mechanical, artistic and musical.

Statement of the Problems

Career is an important issue in the life of an individual as it influences one's general life. It determines both the economic and social status of the entire family. As such, there is the need for an individual student to have adequate knowledge of him/herself as well as current information on various occupation/careers before making a career choice. Unfortunately

today, due to lack or inadequate professional career guidance counsellors in our schools, students are ignorant about career choices; many Nigerian adolescents have unrealistic ideas about career to choose in life. This is because it is common to find students who are only good at Arts subjects but wanting to read Medicine or Engineering. It was also observed that through interaction, some senior secondary school students are found indicated their interest to take to career such as medicine, law, pharmacy, engineering, accountancy, psychology and so on without a single thought of the congruence between their career interest and occupational self-concept (Kagu and Mohammed, 2007). These are pointers to the fact that most secondary school students in Nigeria lack adequate information about their self-concept and the information in the world of work available (Mohammed, 2008).

Based on this, the study investigated the relationship between occupational self-concept and career interest among senior secondary school students in two occupational environments (outdoor and mechanical).

Objectives of the Study

The study set out to achieve the following objectives:

1. To examine the relationship between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students;
2. To examine the relationship between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students.

Research Hypotheses

For the purpose of this study, the following null hypotheses were formulated and tested.

1. There is no significant relationship between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students.
2. There is no significant relationship between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students.

Significance of the Study

It has been a common practice among parents/guardians, teachers and society in general to make occupational choice for students and this is hazardous to both students and even the society. In line with this, the researchers' hopes that the findings of this study will provide vital

information that will enable parents, guardians, teachers and others to realize the importance of occupational self-concept in relation to career interest/choice, and also see reasons why they should allow their children or students to choose careers that correlate with their occupational self-concept. This will in turn minimize or even eliminate the problems of dissatisfaction, unproductive and failure in imposed career.

Methodology

This study adopted Correlational design to examine relationship between occupational self-concept and career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger state. The population of this study comprises of all public senior secondary schools students across Suleja educational zone of Niger state. According to the statistical data, about senior secondary school students, which was obtained from Niger State Ministry of Education, Minna (2016) there are eighteen thousand, eight hundred and ninety seven (18,897) students. The size of the sample selected for this study comprised a total of one hundred and seventy (170) respondents which were selected through multi-stage sampling technique. Out of this 170 respondents, 92 were majored in outdoor occupational environment while 78 respondents were majored in mechanical occupational environment. These two occupational environments (outdoor and mechanical) formed the two indices or components of this study. The researcher used multi-stage sampling techniques in order to obtain more accurate representation, and to address the different characteristics of the entire population. In this case, Suleja educational zone was divided into five according to the local government areas that constituted the zone (Gurara, Suleja, Tafa, Lapai and Munya respectively); and one public senior secondary school was randomly picked from each local government area to participate in the study. In each sample school, participants were selected randomly but proportionately, out of which a sample of the respondents for the study were obtained.

However, the two instruments used for this study were Modified Version of James Rounds Occupational Self-Concept Scale (MVJROSCS) by Rounds (2008) of which the reliability coefficient of the scale was: mechanical 0.76 and outdoor 0.82, and Vocational Interest Inventory (VII) by Bakare (1977) which was used for the collection of data about students' career interest and the reliability coefficient was: mechanical 0.84 and outdoor 0.71. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used for testing the null hypotheses at 0.05 level of significance.

Results

The hypotheses formulated in this study were tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-efficient statistics.

Hypothesis 1 There is no significant relationship between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger state.

Table 1: Correlation Analysis between Outdoor Occupational Self-concept and Outdoor Career Interest of Senior Secondary School Students

Variables	No	Mean	SD	r	df	P-Value
Outdoor occasional self-concept	78	79.310	12.699			
Outdoor career Interest	78	75.551	13.114	0.700**	760.00	

**Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 1 above revealed that correlation index r value is 0.700; degree of freedom 76 and P-value of 0.000. This result showed that correlation is significant, because P-value is lower than 0.05 alpha level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis one which states that there is no significant relationship between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger state is hereby rejected. This result indicated that significant positive relationship existed between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students majoring in the outdoor occupational environment. This implies that the higher the outdoor occupational self-concept, the higher the outdoor career interest and vice versa.

Hypothesis 2

There is no significant relationship between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger state.

Table 2: Correlation Analysis between Mechanical Occupational Self-concept and Mechanical Career Interest of Senior Secondary School Students

Variables	No	Mean	SD	r	df	P-Value
Mechanical Occupational self-concept	92	86.262	14.714			
Mechanical Career Interest	92	41.786	13.114	-0.613**	90	0.000

**Correlation is significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 2 above revealed that correlation index r value is -0.613, degree of freedom 90 and P-value is 0.000. This result showed that correlation is significant, because P-value was lower than 0.05 alpha level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis two which states that there is no significant relationship between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger state is hereby rejected. This result showed that significant negative relationship existed between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students majoring in mechanical occupational environments. This means that the higher the mechanical occupational self-concept, the lower the mechanical career interest of the senior secondary school students and vice versa.

Discussion of Findings

The study examines the relationship between occupational self-concept and career interest among senior secondary school students in Suleja educational zone of Niger state. The result from table 1 revealed that significant positive relationship exist between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students majoring in outdoor occupational environment in Suleja educational zone of Niger state. Though, a great number of students who are majoring in outdoor occupational environment rated themselves high in both outdoor occupational activities and outdoor careers interest. A possible explanation for this finding could be that, most of these respondents are from semi urban and rural areas of which outdoor occupations such as farming, mining, marson etc. are common and practiced. This could be due to their observation and identification with adults that engaged in some of these outdoor careers which served as factors that influenced positively on the

responses of the respondents on outdoor occupational activities and outdoor career interest. Super as cited by Sharf (2006) asserted that vocational self-concept develop on the basis of children's observation and identifications with adults in work. He further explained that vocational self-concept requires a person to recognize himself/herself as an individual and to realize his/her similarities with others. Mohammed (2008) stressed that when an individual chooses a career or develops genuine interest for careers that confirmed with his/her self-image and ideal self, he/she is more likely to perform and function effectively in that career. He further explains that success in life is mostly associated with how successful one is in his/her career.

This finding however, agreed with findings of Nasir and Lin (2013) and Peng (2007), who examine the relationship between vocational self-concept and vocational choice of post-secondary school students and found that significant relationship exist between outdoor vocational self-concept and outdoor vocational choice of the students. These findings show the fact that self-concept played significant role in students' career interest and choice. And by choosing a career according to Super in Oluloye (2005) one is implementing his/her self-concept. Otta and Williams (2012) stressed that both self-concept and career interest or choices are function of each other. This finding disagreed with the finding of Oluloye (2005) who reported that negative relationship exists between outdoor occupational self-concept and career choice among students.

The results from table 2 revealed that significant negative relationship existed between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students majoring in mechanical occupational environments. Oluwu (2005) asserted that Nigerian do not relate self-concept with vocation. And this might be due to partly, the traditional African set up and Nigerians like most Africans are more concerned with satisfying communal rather than self needs. He added that most Africans enter into career based on family or societal needs. When a person chooses a career or pushed into a career that conflicts with his/her occupational self-concept, problems are bound to occur. Sababa (2010) maintained that most parents are ignorance and illiterates who do not know much about vocational interest or career choice thereby pushed their children to choose career that suit their minds without considering their capabilities, self-concept and personality type. American Career Resource Network (2010) states that the counsellors and teachers should help to improve students' self-concept and vocational interest by helping them see how education is connected to vocation during counselling, teaching, workshop

or practical work at school. This finding however, confirmed the work of Egwuchukwu (2003), and Asika (2011) who investigated the relationship between vocational self-concept and vocational choice among students and found significant relationship existed between mechanical vocational self-concept and vocational choice.

The finding however, contradicted the study of Nasir and Lin (2013) who investigated relationship between vocational self-concept and vocational choice of students and found significant positive relationship existed between mechanical vocational self-concept and mechanical vocational choice. Also, studies carried out by Nworah (2000) and Peng (2007) revealed that significant positive relationship existed between mechanical vocational self-concept and vocational interest among the respondents.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, the researcher concluded that:

1. Outdoor occupational self-concept correlated positively with outdoor career interest, hence the result indicated significant positive relationship existed between outdoor occupational self-concept and outdoor career interest among senior secondary school students majored in the outdoor occupational environment.
2. Mechanical occupational self-concept correlated negatively with mechanical career interest, hence the result indicated significant negative existed between mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest among senior secondary school students majored in mechanical occupational environment.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made

1. Guidance counsellors and teachers should help to motivate and encourage students most especially those that are on the right path of congruence between their occupational self-concept and career interest so that they will continue to maintain their right decision.
2. Guidance counsellors and teachers should help to improve students' mechanical occupational self-concept and mechanical career interest most especially those students majoring in mechanical occupational environment by helping them see how mechanical occupational self-concept is connected to mechanical career interest during counselling and teaching.

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