



JOURNAL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES (JSS)
Vol. 4 No. 1 December, 2020

Published by
Faculty of Social Sciences
National Open University of Nigeria, University Village,
Plot 91, Cadastral Zone,
Abuja, Nigeria
ISSN 2579-0838

Copyright @ 2020 FSS. All right reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored, transmitted or disseminated in any form, without prior permission request to the Publisher. Authority is granted to individual to photocopy copyright materials for purpose of academic research.

EDITORIAL COMMITTEE

EDITOR-IN-CHIEF

Dr. Moses E. Shaibu

ASSOCIATE EDITORS

Prof Hakeem I. Tijani
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Prof. Dimis I. Mai-Laifia
(University of Jos)

Prof. Mercy Ada Anyiwe
(University of Benin)

Prof. Ganiyat A. Adesina-Uthman
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Dr. Ibrahim Bakare
(Lagos State University)

Dr. Samuel O. Iroye
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Dr. Ebele Udeoji
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Dr. Lateef A. Adelokun
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Dr. Emmanuel I. Ajudua
(National Open University of Nigeria)

Dr. Rakiya Mamman
(National Open University of Nigeria)

MANAGING EDITOR

Dr. Emmanuel I. Ajudua
(National Open University of Nigeria)

EDITORIAL ADVISORY BOARD

PROF KABIR HASSAN
New Orleans University, U.S.A

PROF. S. A. TELLA
Olabisi Onabanjo University, Nigeria

PROF. ANTHONY A. AKINOLA
Oxford University, U.K

PROF. ABDALLAH UBA ADAMU
National Open University of Nigeria

PROF. RISIKATU DAUDA
University of Lagos

PROF. A.S. BANKOLE
University of Ibadan

PROF. SHEHU ABDALLAH
Federal Capital Territory

THE EDITORIAL

The Journal of Faculty of Social Sciences, National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) is a bi-annual peer reviewed journal published by Faculty of Social Sciences, NOUN. The objectives of the journal are to establish a symbiosis among scholars, state and society by providing purpose-driven research as a template for the formulation of problem-solving policies in response to the myriad national and international integration and development challenges. JSS-NOUN is an offshore peer review journal published two times in a year by the Faculty of Social Sciences-NOUN.

Notes to Contributors

The journal operates a double-blind reviewing process; it accepts original articles from fields of Social Sciences and other related fields that have not been submitted anywhere else for publication.

Manuscript Submission Guides

- The language of the journal is **English**
- **Font size** is 12-point type in Time New Romans with double line space
- Manuscript **SHOULD NOT** be more than **5000 words**.

- **Tables and Figures** must be numbered serially, titled and must be inserted under the text explaining them
- **Topic** should not be more than 20 words, written in 14 point font, at the **Centre of A4 paper**.
- **Author(s)' name(s)** should be written in same font as topic; should be in the centre with **email** and **phone number** of the Author. In case of 2 or more Authors, the Corresponding Author should be identified
- The journal style of referencing is APA, 6th Edition
- Authors should submit **soft copy of articles** as MS-Word document electronically to jss@noun.edu.ng

TABLE OF CONTENT

Assessment of the Influence of European Football Viewership on the Betting Habits of Male Youths of Apa LGA of Benue State- Page 1

Dennis Oche ABUTU, PhD and Helen O. C. AMBASSADOR- BRIKINS, PhD.

Assessing the Impacts of Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System on Urban Land Delivery and City Development in Nigeria- Page 26

Kazeem Bolayemi AKINBOLA, PhD. and Taofik Iyanda SALAU, PhD.

“Smokers are liable to die young”: Revisiting and Revitalising the Behavioural-Change Health Communication- Page 51

Lateef Adekunle ADELAKUN, PhD.

Influence of WhatsApp Status Advertising on Consumer Buying Behaviour- Page 62

Semiu KAZEEM, Azeez O. SANNI and Kazeem A. SAHID

Office Manager's Competencies, Ethical Conduct and Organizational Growth of Selected Organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State- Page 80

Tolulope E. ADENEKAN and Kofoworola O. POPOOLA

Rural Farmers Credit Sufficiency from Informal Financial Self-help Groups: Implications for Economic Productivity in Delta State, Nigeria- Page 96

Peter Ifeanyichukwu NWANDU, PhD.

Pseudo-Federalism and Socio-Political Conflicts: An Assessment of the Impact of Military Governance in Nigeria- Page 110

Musibau Olabamiji OYEBODE, PhD and Sunday AKANDE

Correlates of Unemployment, Poverty and Street Crimes in Calabar Metropolis, Cross River State, Nigeria- Page 131

Jacob E. ASHIBI, PhD, Godwin E. OKPILIYA and Stephen U. ANDREW

An Investigation of National Policy Responses to Climate Change Impacts in Lagos State, Nigeria- Page 155

Adekunle AKINOLA, PhD.

Climate Change and Survival of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Nigeria-Page 173
Ganiyat A. ADESINA-UTHMAN, PhD, Tunde Abubakar BAKARE-AREMU, PhD and Rakiya MAMMAN, PhD

The Problem of Compromise in Restructuring Nigerian Federalism-Page 189

Marcel Onyema EZE, PhD and David C. NWOGBO PhD

Impact Of Government Expenditure on Unemployment Rate in Nigeria-Page 199

Abimbola Oluwaseun OLADIPO, Uju Victoria OKOLI and Benjamin Yabanat JOSHUA

Public Healthcare Spending, Human Capital Development and Economic Growth Nexus in
Nigeria-Page 212

**Tunde Abubakar BAKARE-AREMU, PhD, Rakiya MAMMAN, PhD and Bolajoko O.
BAKARE-SALISU**

Operation War against Corruption, Indiscipline, and Governance in Nigeria:
Consequences and Solutions-Page 229

**AHMED, Tanimu Mahmoud, PhD¹, Allah-Dey Jeffrey WILKIE, PhD and Samuel
Chikerenwa ANYAOHA, PhD**

Critical Issues in Offenders' Rehabilitation in the 21st Century Nigeria-Page 239

Philip N. NDUBUEZE, PhD

Assessment of the Influence of European Football Viewership on the Betting Habits of Male Youths of Apa LGA of Benue State

Dennis Oche ABUTU, PhD and Helen O. C. AMBASSADOR- BRIKINS, PhD

Department of Mass Communication
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: dabutu@noun.edu.ng and diplomatsupernatural@gmail.com

Abstract

Football betting has become a communised, growing trend among Nigerian youths in contemporary times. Specifically, the study sought to ascertain the rationale behind football betting among youths of Apa Local Government Area, as well as the most significant prospects and challenges associated with football betting among male youths of Apa LGA. Significantly too, the study was solely anchored on the social exchange theory. Using the survey research method, a sample of 400 respondents was drawn, and a questionnaire was deployed as research instrument. Notably too, data gathered were analysed using simple percentages. Findings revealed that the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA was very high. This was evident from the fact that they watched it twice to thrice a week. It was also found that European football viewership has been influential to sports betting among youths of Apa LGA. This influence ranges from the fact that it popularises sports betting and also goes a long way to serve as guide to sports betters and prospective sports betters alike. Consequently, it was recommended that young people generally should precondition their minds on many other educative, lucrative and creative things to do with their time; and that governmental bodies such as the Ministry of Youth and Sports, related sports authorities such as the Nigerian Football Federation (NFF), as well as credible sports bet agencies in Nigeria, should beef up orientation programmes that will educate and sensitise the youths on the negative effects of addictive football viewership as well as betting and gambling.

Keyword: Football Betting, Youths, European Football, Viewership, and Social Exchange Theory.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The growing popularity of sport betting in Nigeria and the fact that many more youth across the country are getting involved in it daily may prompt several questions, and of course, precipitate a course of concern. According to Sule & Adam (2018), sports betting and other forms of gambling are becoming a phenomenon across Africa and Nigeria in particular. Betting over which sports team may win has become a common practice among young Nigerians. Contemporarily, Nigeria is witnessing a huge expansion in sport betting and other forms of gambling. Lotteries, poker, sport bets, slot machines, casino games, and online gambling are all new trends.

Notably too, sports today like golf, basketball, football are largely capitalistic. Akinlosotu, Imandojemu & Aina (2019) state relatively that there is a large scale subliminal aggressive infusion of capital accumulation into football, particularly in football betting, which is the case in broadcasting and related interests. As football makes incursion into homes and societies, including very remote societies in Africa and Asia, it propagates capitalism in some ways. And many unconsciously embrace capitalism, and its ancillaries, through football. Vidacs (2006) notes that, as people are entertained through various sport like football, baseball, basketball and many others, they gradually become involved in capitalist profit motivated practices like betting.

Football or sport betting as the case may be is more like a predictive gambling and monetisation of football predictions, often by its fans or viewers. According to Tade (2014), sport betting is the game of gambling whereby individuals make gains from sports by successfully predicting the outcome of various sporting events in a competition, tournament or league. For instance, Football betting, in most societies where it is practiced, is fast becoming a popular space for resources exchange within the capitalist remit. This is so since fans take their “fandom” further through expressive economy for gains and loss in the context of Marxian survival of the fittest in the capitalists’ moderated settings.

Football betting has taken a new turn in Nigeria and other nations. In Nigeria, the popular Bet sites most youths are engaged with, as indicated by Akinlosotu *et al* (2019) include: *Naira Bet, Bet 9ja, Sure Bet, Winners Golden Bet, 1960 Bet, Merry Bet, Bet Colony, Stakers Den* while the foreign betting games include but are not limited to: *Bet 360, Bet 365, 1x Bet, 24H Bet, 368 Bet, Apollo Bet, Bet-at-Home*. Typically all the aforementioned betting companies create an open platform for interested persons to predict the outcome of a game – Football, Basketball, Car race, Hockey, Dog race, Virtual among others. Fans that predict correctly are rewarded and those whose predictions were wrong lose their monies. Tade (2014) states that this is fast becoming the order in Nigeria, as fans that are “fan enough” go a step further to “stake” on the higher level of fandom and expertise in the football understanding.

Youths in Nigeria gamble for different purposes. These include ego, recreation and relaxation, resource accumulation, therapeutic purposes, such as showing adherence to group norms to avoid sanction, or demonstrating addiction. According to Akinlosotu *et al* (2019), gambling is a big business globally to the extent that it is now taxable and regulated as a legitimate business. For instance, according to Nigeria Inter-Bank Settlement System (NIBSS, 2017) in Akinlosotu *et al*

(2019), even though it may be difficult to accurately estimate the total value of global sports betting, due to the inconsistency in the regulatory and financing environments, responsible surveys estimate the value of Nigerian sports betting industry at around ₦132 billion accrued from 29 million web payments.

It is worth noting that any figure on the process of betting is only an indicative of the official gambling. Most gambling activities are undocumented and operate on the informal levels among friends, colleagues, spouses, relatives, and even enemies, and can be as much as billions of U.S. dollars globally. Generally, online gambling/betting is a fast growing business with an estimated annual growth rate of 12%, according to Global Betting and Gaming Consultants (2011), and this is driven by globalisation and technology. Akanle (2011) notes that online betting and football betting particularly is best seen as an ancillary of Westernisation and globalisation. Football has become not only a recreational engagement, but also a social and economic activity with a strong appeal across classes, genders, races, sexuality and other social categorisation, especially in Africa and beyond with continuously huge potential for growth. Anderson (2005) observes further that most fans do not know or do not care to know is the capitalist base of the football betting wrapped with recreational norms and values.

Unarguably, the popularity and widespread ownership of satellite television in Nigeria has also precipitated the popularity and love for European football among Nigerian men; more especially, the youths. Relatively, Kombol & Kombol (2015) assert that satellite television centers in Nigeria have grown with the popularity of foreign football, especially international competitions. Subsequently, this phenomenon has popularised the betting of European football games especially, by youths within the country. This then generates the need to make a critical assessment of the influence of European football viewership on satellite television on the betting habits of male youths residing precisely within Apa LGA.

Statement of the Problem

The wide viewership of European football matches on satellite television has kept on growing more popular in Nigeria, in the past decade. According to Kombol & Kombol (2015), satellite television has become very popular in many parts of Nigeria through the numerous viewing centers dotted across the country. Thus, it is pertinent to take stock and ascertain the uses and abuses of satellite television viewing centers. Specifically, these European football games are accessed majorly through *Super Sports*, a foreign (Western) television station.

Football betting in Nigeria, on the other hand, is consequently organised around major European leagues. Akinlosotu *et al* (2019) state that these major European Leagues are mostly in order of popularity among the Nigerian fans: English Premiership, Spanish *La Liga*, Italian *Seria A* and German *Bundesliga*. They stated further that English Premier League Clubs gain the greatest number of fans, Spanish *La Liga* is in the second place, and the Italian *Seria A* in the third. According to Tade (2014), the most widely supported clubs, in order of the number of fans, are: Manchester United, Chelsea, Arsenal, Barcelona, Real Madrid and Liverpool. It must, however, be noted that the “wide fan base” of the clubs is not rigid in Nigeria, but fluid, depending on the overall performance of the clubs over time.

Although, recent studies by scholars such as Tade (2014); Ifeduba (2011); and Omobowale (2009), have been conducted on sports betting in Nigeria, all the studies examined the acceptance of sport betting, gambling behaviour of youths and the proliferation of football betting among youths in Nigeria as a whole. Notwithstanding, this study seeks to cover research gaps on areas such as the rationale behind football betting among youths in Apa LGA, the regularity of these bets among them, as well as the most significant challenges associated with football betting among male youths of Apa LGA.

Objectives of the Study

- i. To ascertain the most popularly subscribed football bet site(s) by male youths of Apa LGA.
- ii. To ascertain the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA.
- iii. To deduce the influence of European football viewership on the sports betting habits of male youths of Apa LGA.

Research Questions

- i. Which is the most popularly subscribed football bet site(s) by male youths of Apa LGA?
- ii. What is the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA?
- iii. What is the influence of European football viewership on the sports betting habits of male youths of Apa LGA?

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Sports Betting

Sports betting are forms of gambling that entails placing a wager, also known as a bet, on the outcome of a sport event. Hamza (2013) stated that the primary intent of sports betting is to win additional money. With the exception of spread betting, ‘draw no bet’ wagers and a few other examples, a bet will have two possible outcomes. Either you win a profit based on the bookmaker odds, or you lose your wager.

While sports’ betting obviously incorporates wagers on sports like football, rugby, and tennis, it also includes betting on entertainment, such as the winner of *Dancing with the Stars*, and finance, such as interest rate changes. Hamza (2013) notes that sporting wagers can be on fixture or tournament results, or on events that take place during a fixture. For example, in a football game between Arsenal and Chelsea, possible bets include Arsenal to beat Chelsea, Arsenal to win 2-1, Arsenal to win by one goal, Arsenal to be leading at half-time, and a particular player to score a goal.

The growth of sports betting and gambling promotion during sporting events is a relatively recent phenomenon. Historically, as stated by Akinsolotu *et al* (2019) sports betting were confined to an individual physically placing a wager on the outcome of a horse (or greyhound) race, two important changes occurred in the mid-1990s. First, some bookmakers moved beyond horse and greyhound racing and started taking bets on the outcome of team sports. Second, in Victoria, some bookmakers began taking bets over the telephone and then the internet, and in 2008, telephone and Internet sports betting became possible in all Australian states and territories following a High Court ruling that found prohibitions imposed by some states were anticompetitive.

One point of difference between sports betting and casino gambling is the probabilities of winning are not known with sports betting – they are only estimated. Unlike a casino game, where the house edge is known with certainty, Sule & Adam (2018) observed that sports betting rewards patience and research, because bookmakers are only guessing the true probability of each possible outcome. While bookmakers provide accurate odds on average, good value can be found for the experienced punter.

European Football Viewership

Globalisation and proliferation of satellite television has transformed the world of football today. In this view, Boyle & Haynes (2004) postulate that globalisation has reshaped the landscape of football, the way in which football is watched and how football clubs are supported have changed. Football is the most popular and globalised sporting activity in the world. Among global televised football competitions and leagues around the world, European leagues such as English *Premier League*, Spanish *La- Liga*, Italian *Serie A*, German *Bundesliga*, French *Ligue 1*, and the UEFA *Champions League* are at the top of quality organisation and coverage. In fact, it has been the dream of most local football players in Africa to play in these leagues and/or tournaments. According to Onwumechili & Oloruntola (2014), local players in developing countries are constantly making ways to reach Europe; therefore, they contact football agents to facilitate their movement to Europe.

On the other hand, non- footballers (fans) in Africa engage in massive support for European football clubs and tournaments. Thus, broadcast of live football matches of European Leagues, as observed by Dogari, Apuke & Shadrach (2018) is generating a massive base of fans of European football clubs across developing countries and Nigeria in particular. This notion is consistent with a nationwide survey which found that only a mere 30% of Nigerians still support the *Nigerian Premier League* (NPL) as against a massive 70% that claim to be fans of the *English Premier League* (EPL) clubs. Similar survey by Onyebueke (2015) further divulged that most of the followers of European leagues often watch live matches in commercial viewing centers.

The proliferation of satellite television has given rise to the viewership of European football leagues. Similarly, a study by Adetunji (2010) found that ever since the proliferation and increasing affordability of Satellite Television or Pay TV broadcast in Nigeria, watching English Premier League (European League) matches has caught the fancy of most Nigerian youths (especially males). On days when games are to be played (usually weekends and sometimes Wednesdays) fans make their way to viewing centers (halls, mostly makeshift, where matches from foreign football leagues are shown live at affordable rates) in their neighborhoods to support their favorite teams or watch the games of rival teams.

Unarguably, youths in Nigeria have developed more fondness for watching European football. This notion is in harmony with Majaro-Majesty (2011) who remarked that European football fellowship is a new “religion”, another kind of “ethnicity”, and other form of “ritual”. This suggests

that in viewing centers, fans categorically display this “religion” or “ethnicity” by knowledge of the clubs’ history and player profiles. Intrinsically, fans have put in place “associations of supporters”, with slogans such as Manchester United – the kings of England or One love, Arsenal - Gunners for life, Chelsea - the Blues, Real Madrid - home of wealth, Barcelona - home of football among others.

Possibly, football fans (of European football) derive some gratifications from their fanaticism. In addition, past studies by Sloan (1979) stressed the reward fans get for the fanaticism toward foreign clubs such as:

- i. A sense of belonging;
- ii. Leisure or break from routine;
- iii. Stimulation;
- iv. Therapeutic relief from tension and aggression; and
- v. Entertainment.

The above stated notion is in concurrence with a study which suggests that sports like football can reinforce the interaction between communities, peoples and societies. According to Dogari *et al* (2018), it plays a part in maintaining open channels of communication among people of different backgrounds, as well as contributing to managing trauma after natural disasters or violence.

A Brief History of Football Betting

One aspect of the football game to have evolved substantially over the last decade or so is betting on football. What once appeared to be a jovial stab in the dark or a bit of fun has become a global obsession based around the best betting sites. Sule & Adam (2018) noted that in days gone by, a British football fan would walk down to the local bookmakers and place a wager by checking boxes on a betting slip. Most towns only had one bookmaker, with the odds on offer the best you could get. Fast forward to the modern day and betting in football is a massive industry. Most Premier League clubs have betting partners, many are sponsored by betting websites and some modern stadiums have had their naming rights claimed by these wealthy organisations.

However, football betting has been taking place for many years, the most popular of which being horserace betting. Since the advent of online sports betting sites, according to Sule & Adam (2018), “soccer betting has increased dramatically and has become a worldwide phenomenon that is worth billions each year”. According to them, it is currently estimated that the sports match betting

industry (online and offline) is worth between \$700 billion and \$1 trillion per annum, and soccer betting accounts for almost 70% of this.

Online football betting was born in the late 1990's when a number of neighborhood bookmakers realised there was a way to reach larger audiences as well as to escape the legal issues that had become a hindrance to their business. According to Stephens (2017), the increasing ubiquity of the internet allowed football betting to become more secure, more accessible, and lastly but not least, more fun. Offshore sports books really started to catch on in the early 2000's and have since become the most popular method for football betting. Online gaming companies took over \$12 Billion in bets in 2005, and those numbers are predicted to grow by at least 20% every year.

The proliferation of new media also aided in popularising sports betting. According to Miller (2001), the advent of the internet brought a spectacular increase to the betting sector. One major change was the introduction of betting exchanges, who act as online intermediaries between individual bettors, allowing them to bet against each other. The punters can either take the traditional role of backing the bet offered by somebody else, or they can also act as "bookmakers" themselves and lay bets.

Today, however, lottery/betting has been re-branded and made more attractive, especially targeting the youth and adolescents. Prominent among the captivating features of today's betting is not only that it is sports-oriented, which often fascinates the youths, but also due to its use of the internet and other hi-tech inputs which makes it easier, accessible and quick. They can be played online or at designated offices. This was unlike before when lottery was analog and only played at designated offices/centres.

Games and Gambles: How Viewership of Football Games Influences Gambling Behaviour in Nigeria

Football is about the world's most popular sport, one which is passionately loved and enjoyed by Nigerians, and globalisation has inevitably resulted in Nigerian football fans being exposed to the activities of foreign clubs which has caused them to move their support and patronage from local clubs to European clubs (Ifeduba, 2011). Ifeduba, Enwefah & Atunrase (2020) citing Wikipedia (2015), noted that since 1992, the English Premier League (EPL) has been widely known for its staggering home and in-stadium audience, making it the most watched football league in the world, with stadium occupancy being held at 92% and a television audience well over four billion people.

The subsequent rise in English Premier League viewership all over the world has led to some speculation that the current gambling trend might be as a result of easier access to football matches via the internet (Olagunju, 2014), affordable Pay-TV bouquets with numerous sport channels, access to viewing centres (Omonisa, 2015) gambling advertisement and promotions among other factors. The gambling industry in Nigeria has also experienced corresponding growth in terms of size and importance over the last few years. An investigation conducted by the News Agency of Nigeria (NAN) as captured in Vanguard (2014) as cited by Ifeduba *et al* (2020), revealed that about 60 million Nigerians spend N1.8 billion on gambling daily; and that gambling revenue of some betting companies increased to N20 million monthly.

Gambling firms, however, claim that it creates an opportunity to test the knowledge and loyalty of fans, boost tax payment, drive sport followership (Omoragbon, 2015) create job opportunities (Akpodonor, 2015), and serve as a form of investment. It is also speculated that interest in the live broadcasting of football matches is driven by the gambling market, which leaves us with the conjecture that there is a relationship between football viewership and gambling (Olagunju, 2014). Ifeduba *et al* (2020) succumb to this view when they asserted that gambling is on the increase in Nigeria and suggest that this could be associated with several factors, including increase in the viewership of the English Premier League (EPL), but there is hardly any empirical evidence to support these claims.

Gambling has been traditionally perceived as a vice rather than a virtue, and a source of considerable harm to gamblers and their families as well as the society in general, but recent developments suggest that it is fast becoming a major global industry and a valued source of revenue to governments and private establishments (Omoragbon, 2015). Explanations offered in literature speculate that football viewership is one of the major drivers of this gambling outbreak on the one hand. On the other hand, the proliferation of sport betting outlets has been mentioned as the reason for the gambling boom (Olagunju, 2014). Specifically, access to numerous viewing centres, affordable pay TV with numerous sport channels and promotion of gambling have been suggested as factors contributing to the upsurge in gambling (Omonisa, 2015).

Assessment of Football Betting among Youths and Sports Viewers in Nigeria

Betting on football games among the youth and sports lovers and viewers is big business in Nigeria. According to the News Agency of Nigeria (NAN) as cited in Sule & Adam (2018, p.5),

“N1.8 billion is spent on sports betting daily in Nigeria”. It is not surprising that Nigerians in the youth demographic are heavily involved in football fandom and betting alike. The poll states that 60 million people within this age range are into online betting and gambling. This is not surprising. It also implies why Ayomide (2017) asserts that Nigeria is a football crazy country that has a huge youth population.

Football gambling/betting is a business which is very common among the world of young adult and the rate at which people are engaging in the activities every day is increasing. Today among Nigerian youth, *1960 bet*, *Bet 9ja* and *Bet King* are very popular gambling platforms where people have to predict the outcome of matches. The higher the number of matches individual predict the higher the expected outcome if the prediction is right at the end of the match. Oyebisi, Alao & Popoola (2012) stated that due to technological development, the emergence of new forms of gambling such as online gambling like *1960 bet*, has increased the prevalence of this behaviour in the society as people just need to sit in their room and apply online for match prediction, this, in turn, has increased various implication of gambling among this population.

Some prevalent sports lottery played today are *Bet9ja*, *Naira bet*, *Cash bet*, *360 bet*, *Fast bet*, *Sure bet*, *Sahara bet*, *1960 bet*, *Access Bet*, *Bet king*, *Bet revolution*, among others. According to Daily Trust (2016) in Sule & Adam (2018), some of the criteria for winning include: predicting the team that will win a match or the person that will win a race; predicting the team(s) that will qualify for a competition or the first to qualify; predicting the player who will score/amount of goals to be scored in a match; predicting the player who will receive the first yellow/red card and/or the number of cards that will be received; predicting the expected number of corner kicks to be played, and so on. All of these relatively contribute to increased viewership of these competitions by the prospective betters.

Online football betting was notably born in the late 1990's when a number of neighborhood bookmakers realised there was a way to reach larger audiences as well as to escape the legal issues that had become a hindrance to their business. The increasing ubiquity of the internet as well as the widespread establishments of football viewing centers and bet shops allowed football betting to become more secure, more accessible, and lastly but not least, more fun (Sule & Adam, 2018). Offshore sports books really started to catch on in the early 2000's and have since become the most popular method for football betting.

Patterns and Prevalence of Football Betting among Viewers of European Football Leagues in Nigeria

Bets can be placed on any sport ranging from football, basketball, tennis, golf, baseball, handball and pools. This has overtaken all other forms of gambling in Nigeria. According to Ifeduba *et al* (2020), football, which is the most popular sport in the country, is the sport that has attracted the highest betting patronage, and is perhaps the only sport Nigerians wager on. Football fans not only bet on the English Premier League, which is the focus of this paper, they also bet on other national and international football leagues like the Nigerian Premier League (NPL), UEFA Champions League, French Ligue 1, Spanish La Liga, Dutch Eredivisie, Italian Series A, Europa League and German Bundesliga (Omonisa, 2015).

Online betting has diversified the practice, and most of the sport betting companies in the country are now online, some strictly online, making it possible for people to place bets without stepping out of their homes (Odulaja, 2014). In the same vein, physical bet shops are currently modifying their business models by giving gamblers the opportunity to watch live matches and interact with other gamblers who go into their viewing rooms. By the 2016 league season, betting companies had begun to kit football clubs by way of promotion (Ekejiuba, 2014).

Up until 1992, the most popular league in the U.K. was the Football League. However, the English Premier League (EPL) according to Ifeduba *et al* (2020) citing Wikipedia (2015) was established in that year with 22 inaugural members: Chelsea, Arsenal, Leeds United, Aston Villa, Nottingham Forest, Sheffield United, Norwich City, Ipswich Town, Crystal Palace, Blackburn Rovers, Coventry City, Liverpool, Oldham Athletic, Sheffield Wednesday, Tottenham Hotspur, Queens Park Rangers, Everton, Middleborough, Manchester City, Southampton, Wimbledon and Manchester United. The EPL is currently at the top of the English football system and operates on a relegation and promotion format, with 380 games per season. According to Ebner (2013), the EPL is the most watched football league in the world, being broadcast in two hundred and twelve territories to over 600 million homes and a potential television audience of over 4 billion people.

According to Ohaegbulam (2015), football is arguably one of the most popular sports in the world, and also the most followed sport in Nigeria. Some of the reasons for this level of followership and patronage as witnessed with its viewers and betters are the wide broadcasting coverage of the league, its unpredictable nature and its inclusion of African players (Ajayi & Uzebu, 2014).

Related Empirical Works

Oluwatoni (2020) conducted a study titled, “Viewership of Football Games/Leagues and its Perceived Influence on Gambling among Viewers in Nigeria”. The main purpose of this research study was to examine the viewership of English Premier League and how it influences the gambling behaviour of Nigerians. Survey research design was triangulated with interviews and website observation. Data were analysed using simple percentages and frequencies computed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Findings indicated that gambling is on the increase and there is a significant relationship between gambling behaviour and perceived viewership of football games as the literature suggests. However, the results also indicate that gambling advertisements in the media influence gambling behaviour. It is, therefore, recommended that access to league matches featuring sport betting and gambling advertisements should be regulated to curb the escalating incidence of gambling and its damaging effects on the social, economic, psychological and moral health of the society.

Toyosi, Imandojemu & Babatunde (2019) conducted a research study titled, “Sports Betting and Nigerian Youths: A Study of Sports Betting in Edo State”. The specific objectives of the study were to examine various sport youths take bet on in Edo State, how often youths take bet on various sport, reasons why youths of Edo State engage in sport betting, perceived social-economic contributions of sport betting in the society. This study adopted the descriptive survey research design. It specifically covered one hundred and eighty-two (182) youths drawn from selected 5 region of Edo State. Result showed that the majority of the youths noted that high youth unemployment, high tendency for risk taking among the youths, increased passion for sports among others are the factors responsible for their involvement in sport betting.

In a similar vein, Bankole (2019) conducted a research work titled, “Patterns and Prevalence of Gambling Behaviour among Youths in South-West Nigeria: A Case Study of Youths in Oyo and Ekiti State”. Broadly, the study sought to examine the pattern, prevalence and associated risk factors of gambling behaviour among youths in South West Nigeria. Findings revealed that the common pattern of gambling the youths engage in is sport betting and lotto and the associated risk factors are depression, personality trait “neuroticism” and gender. It was also revealed that monetary gain and excitement are the potent motivating factors for gambling among youths. Consequently, the study recommended the need to create awareness on the rate at which gambling activities are increasing and its negative consequences.

Theoretical Framework

Social Exchange Theory

This study is anchored on the *Social Exchange Theory*. In the order provided by George Homans in his work *Social Behavior as Exchange*, exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, are more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two people or groups. This view was also supported by later orders of Peter M. Blau and Richard M. Emerson. According to Blau (1964), human exchanges are dyadic and have sociological and anthropological appeals as involving both small and large groups within kinship and larger society, as in the case of global and national football betters. Emerson (1976) further notes that Social Exchange Theory hinges on three basic propositions of success, stimulus, and deprivation-satiation.

According to the success proposition, when individuals relating with others are rewarded for their actions, they tend to repeat the action. According to the stimulus proposition, the more often a given stimulus has resulted in a reward in the past, the more likely a person will respond to it. According to deprivation-satiation proposition, the more often in the recent past a person has received a particular reward, the less valuable any further unit of that reward becomes.

Notably, Homans (1958) enlists the tenets of the Social Exchange Theory are as follows:

- i. Most gratification among humans comes from others.
- ii. People have access to information about social, economic, and psychological aspects of their interactions that allows them to consider alternative, more profitable situations relative to their present situation.
- iii. People are goal oriented in a freely competitive system.
- iv. Exchange operates within cultural norms.
- v. Social credit is preferred over social indebtedness.
- vi. The more deprived the individual feels in terms of an act, the more value the person will assign to it.
- vii. People are rational and calculate the best possible means to compete in rewarding situations.

The same is true about punishment avoidance situations. Namely, humans as rational actors will engage and continue to engage in rewarding actions, especially if they meet their social, cultural, psychological and economic goals.

The social exchange theory is very significant to this study. The success proposition of the theory states that when individuals relating with others are rewarded for their actions, they tend to repeat the action. This implies that when a better(s) wins any game gambled, he is more likely to try next time. According to the stimulus proposition of the theory, the more often a given stimulus has resulted in a reward in the past, the more likely a person will respond to it. By implication here, the more likely an individual earns a reward on football bet, the more possible it becomes for others to react/respond to it by affirming the practice.

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The survey research method was adopted for this study. Nwodu (2006, p.7) states that, “the survey research works on the premise that a given population is too large for any researcher to realistically observe all the elements of the population”. The method, which is quantitative in approach, is one in which a group of people or items are studied by collecting and analysing data from only a few people considered to be representative of the entire population. The target populations for this study are male youths of Apa LGA; and the population of Apa LGA residents as provided by the National Population Commission (NPC, 2006) is 200,300. Nevertheless, the sample size from this given population was arithmetically determined using the Taro Yamane formula. The formula as provided by Owuamalam (2012, p. 110) is as follows:

$$S = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$$

Where S = Sample Size

N = Given population

E = Margin of error (0.05)²

1 = Constant

Hence; S = 200,300

$$\frac{200,300}{1+200,300(0.05)^2}$$

$$S = \frac{200,300}{200,301(0.0025)}$$

$$S = \frac{200,300}{500.75}$$

$$S = 400$$

Apa LGA notably comprises 11 council wards, but for the sake of even distribution and reach, the researchers wrote the names of these council wards on separate slips of paper, folded each slip of paper and placed them all in a box in a bid to randomly select 8 council wards. One of the researchers shook the box vigorously and the other picked a slip of paper from it while looking away from the box. The selected slip of paper containing the name of the council ward was placed aside. A repetition of this process produced 8 selected council wards. Below is a tabular presentation of the 8 council wards selected and the copies of questionnaire allotted to each of them.

Table 1: Selected Council Wards

S/N	Council Wards	Copies of Questionnaire Administered
1	Akpete	50
2	Igah	50
3	Ugbokpo	50
4	Auke	50
5	Ikobi	50
6	Oiji	50
7	Oba	50
8	Igoro	50
	Total	400

Notably, a multi-stage sampling technique was adopted for this study. The selected wards were stratified according to streets. Specifically, five (5) streets were selected from each ward, and ten (10) copies of the questionnaire were randomly administered to football viewing centers and bet shops/outlets in each of the streets, using the simple random sampling technique. A total of 50 questionnaire copies were administered to each of the eight selected council wards of Apa LGA as illustrated above. Primary and secondary sources of data collection were used in this study, while simple statistics was used for data analysis.

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The total copies of questionnaire administered were 400 but only 394 were valid and used for data analysis. The remaining 6 copies were not appropriately filled and thus, were not used. Consequently, a total of 394 copies of the questionnaire were used for data analysis.

Table 1: Gender

Sex	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Male	394	100%
Female	-	-
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 1 presents a distribution of respondents according to sex; and as seen from the table, all the 394 respondents (100%) were male as the subject matter of the study strictly concerns them.

Table 2: Age

Age	Respondents	Percentage (%)
18-25	204	51.8%
26-35	178	45.2%
36-45	12	3%
46 years and above	-	-
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 2 presents a distribution of respondents according to age. As seen from the table, 204 respondents (51.8%) fell within the range of 18-25 years; 178 respondents (45.2%) ranged from 26-35 years; while 12 respondents (3%) ranged from 36-45 years. The above presentation of respondents' age distribution is lopsided because the targets of this study are virtually young people (youths).

Table 3: Occupation

Occupation	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Trader	98	24.9%
Farmer	32	8.1%
Civil servant	12	3%
Student	252	64%
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 3 presents a distribution of respondents according to occupation. As evident from the table, 98 respondents (24.9%) were traders, 32 respondents (8.1%) were farmers, 12 respondents (3%)

were civil servants, while 252 respondents (64%) were students. Significantly, an absolute majority of 252 respondents (64%) were students because the study is strictly targeted at youths.

Table 4: Respondents’ most popularly subscribed football bet site(s)

Football Bet sites	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Naira Bet	38	9.6%
Bet9ja	138	35%
Sure Bet	5	1.3%
Bet King	132	33.5%
Access Bet	71	18%
360 Bet	10	2.5%
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 4 presents a distribution of respondents according to their most popularly subscribed football bet site(s). As can be seen from the table, 38 respondents (9.6%) indicated that it was *Naira Bet*, 138 respondents (35%) indicated that it was *Bet9ja*, 5 respondents (1.3%) indicated that it was *Sure Bet*, 132 respondents (33.5%) indicated that it was *Bet King*, 71 respondents (18%) indicated that it was *Access Bet*, while 10 respondents (2.5%) indicated that it was *360 Bet*. Therefore, the football betting site(s) most popularly subscribed by the respondents are *Bet9ja* as indicated by a marginal majority of 138 respondents (35%) and *Bet King* as indicated by a marginal majority of 132 respondents (33.5%).

Table 5: Respondents’ level of viewership of European football on satellite television

Response	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Daily	41	10.4%
Once a week	125	31.7%
Twice to thrice a week	199	50.5%
Once a month	-	-
Twice to thrice a month	29	7.4%
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 5 presents a distribution of respondents according to the level of their viewership of European football on satellite television. From the responses on the table, 41 respondents (10.4%) indicated that they watch it on daily basis; 125 respondents (31.7%) indicated that it was once a week; 199 respondents (50.5%) indicated that it was twice to thrice a week; while 29 respondents

(7.4%) indicated that they watched European football twice to thrice a month. Given the above data, an absolute majority of 199 respondents (50.5%) watch European football via satellite television twice to thrice a week.

Table 6: Respondents’ specific classification of their level of viewership of European football

Response	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Very high	182	46.2%
Above average	101	25.6%
Average	86	21.8%
Below average	25	6.3%
Very low	-	-
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 6 presents a distribution of respondents according to the specific classification of their level of viewership of European football. As seen from the table, 182 respondents (46.2%) classified it as very high, 101 respondents (25.6%) classified it as above average, 86 respondents (21.8%) classified it as average, while 25 respondents (6.3%) classified it as below average. Thus, a marginal majority of 182 respondents (46.2%) classified their viewership level of European football as very high.

Table 7: Most significant Influence of European Football Viewership on Sports Betting

Response	Respondents	Percentage (%)
Serves as a guide to betters	159	40.3%
Induces relationship with betters	9	2.3%
Precipitates interest in betting	52	13.2%
Makes clarifications about betting	11	2.8%
Popularises sports betting	163	41.4%
Total	394	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020.

Table 7 presents a distribution of respondents according to the most significant influence of European football viewership on sports betting. From the table, 159 respondents (40.3%) indicated that it serves as a guide to betters; 9 respondents (2.3%) indicated that it induces relationship with betters; 52 respondents (13.2%) indicated that it precipitates interest in betting; 11 respondents (2.8%) indicated that it makes clarifications about betting; while 163 respondents (41.4%) indicated that it popularises sports betting. From the above tabular data, it is evident that the most significant influences of European football viewership on sports betting are that it popularises

sports betting as indicated by a marginal majority of 163 respondents (41.4%), and serves as a guide to betters as indicated by a marginal majority of 159 respondents (40.3%).

Answering Research Questions

Research Question One: Which is the most popularly subscribed football bet site(s) by male youths of Apa LGA?

Table 4 provides answer to the above research question. The table specifically presents a distribution of respondents according to their most popularly subscribed football bet site(s). As seen from the table, the football betting site(s) most popularly subscribed to by the respondents are *Bet9ja* as indicated by a marginal majority of 138 respondents (35%) and *Bet King* as indicated by a marginal majority of 132 respondents (33.5%). Therefore, the most popularly subscribed bet sites among male youths of Apa LGA are *Bet9ja* and *Bet King*.

Research Question Two: What is the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA?

Table 5 and 6 provides answers to the above research question. Table 5 presents a distribution of respondents according to the level of their viewership of European football on satellite television. From the responses on the table, an absolute majority of 199 respondents (50.5%) watch European football via satellite television twice to thrice a week. Table 6 presents a distribution of respondents according to the specific classification of their level of viewership of European football. As seen from the table, a marginal majority of 182 respondents (46.2%) classified their viewership level of European football as very high. Therefore, the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA is very high. This is evident from the fact that they watch it twice to thrice a week.

Research Question Three: What is the influence of European football viewership on the sports betting habits of male youths of Apa LGA?

Table 7 provides answer to the above research question. Table 7 presents a distribution of respondents according to the most significant influence of European football viewership on sports betting. From the table, the most significant influences of European football viewership on sports betting are that it popularises sports betting as indicated by a marginal majority of 163 respondents (41.4%), and serves as a guide to betters as indicated by a marginal majority of 159 respondents (40.3%). Therefore, European football viewership has been influential to sports betting among

youths of Apa LGA. These influences range from the fact it popularises sports betting and also goes a long way to serve as guide to sports betters and prospective sports betters alike.

Discussion of Findings

This study basically sought to make an assessment of the influence of European football viewership on the betting habits of male youths residing within Apa LGA of Benue State. In the course of the study, three major findings were made.

The first objective of the study sought to ascertain the most popularly subscribed football bet site(s) by male youths of Apa LGA. Findings revealed that it was *Bet9ja* and *Bet King*. It was established earlier in the literature review that among Nigerian youth today, *1960 bet*, *Bet 9ja* and *Bet King* are very popular gambling platforms where people have to predict the out of matches. Oyebisi, Alao & Popoola (2012) state that due to technological development, the emergence of new forms of gambling such as online gambling like *1960 bet*, has increased the prevalence of this behaviour in the society as people just need to sit in their room and apply online for match prediction. Sule & Adam (2018) noted that some prevalent sports lottery played today are *Bet9ja*, *Naira bet*, *Cash bet*, *360 bet*, *Fast bet*, *Sure bet*, *Sahara bet*, *1960 bet*, *Access Bet*, *Bet king*, *Bet revolution*, among others.

The second objective of the study sought to ascertain the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA. Findings revealed that the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA is very high. This is evident from the fact that they watch it twice to thrice a week. Ifeduba (2011) agrees with this finding when he stated that football is about the world's most popular sport, one which is passionately loved and enjoyed by Nigerians, and that globalization has inevitably resulted in Nigerian football fans being exposed to the activities of foreign clubs which has caused them to move their support and patronage from local clubs to European clubs. Ifeduba, Enwefah & Atunrase (2020) citing Wikipedia (2015), noted also that since 1992, the English Premier League (EPL) has been widely known for its staggering home and in-stadium audience, making it the most watched football league in the world, with stadium occupancy being held at 92% and a television audience well over four billion people.

Similarly, Ohaegbulam (2015) found that football is arguably one of the most popular sports in the world, and also the most followed sport in Nigeria. Ajayi & Uzebu (2014) observed further that

some of the reasons for this level of followership and patronage as witnessed with its viewers and betters are the wide broadcasting coverage of the league, its unpredictable nature and its inclusion of African players. These reaffirm the high level of viewership of European football among Nigerians.

The third objective of the study sought to deduce the influence of European football viewership on the sports betting habits of male youths of Apa LGA. Findings here revealed that European football viewership has been influential to sports betting among youths of Apa LGA. These influences range from the fact it popularises sports betting and also goes a long way to serve as guide to sports betters and prospective sports betters alike. The increased viewership and popularity of European football has increased the practice of sports betting. This implies why studies by Olagunju (2014) & Omonisa (2015) attested that the subsequent rise in English Premier League viewership all over the world has led to some speculation that the current gambling trend might be as a result of easier access to football matches via the internet, affordable Pay-TV bouquets with numerous sport channels, access to viewing centers, gambling advertisement and promotions among other factors.

Ifeduba *et al* (2020) similarly observed that football, which is the most popular sport in the country, is the sport that has attracted the highest betting patronage, and is perhaps the only sport Nigerians wager on. According to Omonisa (2015), football fans not only bet on the English Premier League (EPL), they also bet on other national and international football leagues like the Nigerian Premier League (NPL), UEFA Champions League, French Ligue 1, Spanish La Liga, Dutch Eredivisie, Italian Series A, Europa League and German Bundesliga. The social exchange theory stipulates that when individuals relating with others are rewarded for their actions, they tend to repeat the action. This implies that when a football viewer watches a co-viewer who is also a better win any game gambled he is more likely to try next time.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Football betting has become a communised, growing trend among Nigerian youths in contemporary time. This study basically seeks to make an assessment of the influence of European football viewership on the betting habits of male youths of Apa LGA in Benue State. Findings reveal that *Bet9ja* and *Bet King* are the most commonly subscribed betting outlets by youths of Apa LGA. More so, it was found that the viewership level of European football on satellite television among youths of Apa LGA is very high. This is evident from the fact that they watch it

twice to thrice a week. Furthermore, European football viewership has been influential to sports betting among youths of Apa LGA. These influences range from the fact it popularises sports betting and also goes a long way to serve as guide to sports betters and prospective sports betters alike. The study therefore, recommends the following:

- i. Youths and young people generally should precondition their minds on many other educative, lucrative and creative things to do with their time. Sports viewership at leisure is good, but strenuous efforts should be made by them to avoid making it habitual thus, precipitating the tendency of habitual betting too.
- ii. Governmental bodies such as the Ministry of Youth and Sports, related sports authorities such as the Nigerian Football Federation (NFF), as well as credible sports bet agencies in Nigeria, should beef up orientation programmes that will educate and sensitize the youths on the negative effects of addictive football viewership as well as betting and gambling.
- iii. In the same way, owners and sponsors of different bet agencies in the course of their advertisements should make specifications of age discretions for prospective betters, and also point out the impending dangers of habitual betting to youths of different social compositions and status.
- iv. Parents and guardians must understand they have a daunting responsibility of monitoring and cautioning their wards from making football viewership as a habitual practice. While in schools too, teachers equally have a role to play in this regard.
- v. Government should legislate against uncontrolled reception of televised games from abroad and regulate gambling advertisements more constructively.

REFERENCES

- Adetunji A (2010) Nicknaming Soccer Players: The Case of Nigerian Supporters of English Premier League club sides. *California Linguistic Notes*, 35.
- Ajayi, S. and Uzebu C. (2014). *English Premier League: Between Fanaticism and Loyalty*. The Union.
- Akanle, O. (2011). Post-Colonial Nation Building, Global Governance, Globalisation, and Development in Nigeria and Africa. *Africa Insight*, 41(3), pp. 1–15.

- Akanle, O. and Fageyimbo, K.T. (2016), “European Football Clubs and Football Betting among the Youths in Nigeria”. *Journal of Soccer and Society*, pp. 1-20.
- Akindes, G.A. (2011), “Football Bars: Urban Sub-Saharan Africa’s Trans-Local Stadiums”. *The International Journal of the History of Sport*, 28(15), pp. 2176-2190.
- Akinlosotu, N. T., Imandojemu, K. & Aina, B. J. (2019). Sports Betting and Nigerian Youths: A Study of Sports Betting In Edo State. *International Journal of Business Marketing and Management (IJBMM)*, 4(9), pp. 23-35.
- Anderson, E.M. (2005). *In the Game: Gay Athletes and the Cult of Masculinity*. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Apuke, O. D & Dogari, K. A. (2017). Western Television Programmes and its Influence on the Cultural Values of Students in Taraba State University, Jalingo, Nigeria. *Canadian Social Science*, 13 (1), pp. 21-32.
- Armstrong G., & Giulianotti, R. (2004). *Football in Africa: Conflict, Conciliation and Community*, London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and Power in Social Life*, New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Boyle, R. & Haynes, R. (2004). *Football in the New Media Age*. London: Routledge.
- Dogari, K. A., Apuke, O. D. & Shadrach, I. (2018). Comfort or Conflict?: Investigating the Attitude and Experiences of European Football Fans in Television Viewing Centers in Nigeria. *Global Media Journal*, 16(30), pp. 1-10.
- Ekejiuba, A. (2014). Sport Betting and Agony of Influence in Football. *The National Mirror*. Retrieved from <http://nationalmirroronline.net/new/sport-bettingand-agony-of-influence-in-football/>.
- Emerson, R. (1976). *Social Exchange Theory* (in): A. Inkeles, J. Coleman, N. Smelser (eds.), *Annual Review of Sociology*, Palo Alto: Annual Reviews.
- Flood, M. (2007). Exposure to Pornography among Youth in Australia. *Journal of Sociology*, 43, pp. 45-60.
- Hamza, S. (2013). Betting: Deathtrap Youth Must Watch. *The Muslim News*. Friday, 22-March, 1 (2).
- Homans, G.C. (1958). *Social Behavior as Exchange*, *American Journal of Sociology*, 63 (6), pp. 597–606.
- Ifeduba, E. (2011). European Football Club Newspapers in Nigeria: Gratifications Or Media Imperialism? *Journal of Research in National Development*, 9 (1), p. 331–340.

- Ifeduba, E., Enwefah, C. & Atunrase, O. (2020). Games and Gambles: How Viewership of Football Games Influences Gambling Behaviour in Nigeria. *JORIND*, 18(1).
- Kombol, M.A. & Kombol, E.S. (2015). Significance of Satellite Television Viewing Centers in Makurdi, Nigeria. *News Media and Mass Communication*, 39, pp. 63-75.
- Kumar, A. (2012). *The Effect of Billboard Advertisement on Consumer: A Study of Kurukshetra and Kaithal Cities of Haryana State. A Journal of Science, Technology and Management*, 1(1).
- Majaro-Majesty, H. O. (2011). Ethnicity, Conflict and Peacebuilding: Effects of European Football Support in Nigeria. *Soccer and Society*, 12, pp. 201-211.
- Miller, L. K. (2001). Online Sports Gambling - Regulation or Prohibition?. *Legal Aspects Sport*, 99.
- Nice K, and Harris, T. (2005). *How TV Satellite Works*. Newbury Park, C.A: Sage.
- NPC. (2006). *National Population Commission 2006 Survey Catalog*. Abuja: National Population Commission.
- Nwafor, K.A. & Onyekachi, E.M. (2015). Viewership of Big Brother Africa Reality TV Show and its Influence on the Moral Conduct of Undergraduate Students in Ebonyi State University, Abakiliki, Nigeria. *Global Journal of Arts, Humanities and Social Science*, 3(5).
- Nwodu, L. C. (2006). *Research in Communication and Other Behavioral Sciences*. Enugu: Rhyce Kerex Publishers.
- Odulaja, A. (2014). *The Rising Colony of Sports Betting Enthusiasts*. The Daily Independent. Retrieved from <http://dailyindependentnig.com/2014/07/risingcolony-sports-betting-enthusiasts>.
- Omobowale O. A. (2009). Sports and European Soccer Fans in Nigeria. *Journal of Asian African Studies*, 44 (6), pp. 624–634.
- Omonisa, O. (2015, June 26). Desperate times as Nigerians Turn to Gambling. *Vanguard*. Retrieved from <http://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/06/despearatetimes-as-nigerians-turn-to-gambling>.
- Onwumehili, C. & Oloruntola, S. (2014). Transnational Communications, Attitudes and Fan Identity: Studying Nigeria Post-Media Reform. *Soccer & Society*, 15, pp. 389-410.
- Onyebueke, V. U. (2015). Globalisation, Football and Emerging Urban ‘Tribes’: Fans of the European Leagues in a Nigerian City. *ASC Working Paper 120/2015*. African Studies Centre Leiden, the Netherlands.

- Owuamalam, E. O. (2012). *Data Analysis and Research Project Writing*. Owerri: Top Class Agencies Ltd.
- Oyebisi, E. O., Alao, K. A., & Popoola, B. I. (2012). Gambling Behaviour of University Students in South-Western Nigeria. *IFE Psychologia: An International Journal*, 20(1), pp. 252-262.
- Petry, N. M. (2005). *Pathological Gambling: Etiology, Comorbidity, and Treatment*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Philip, O. (2014). Why Youths are Addicted to Gambling. *The Nation*, 4th Edition, pp. 26.
- Sloan, L. R. (1979). The Function and Impact of Sports for Fans: After Review of Theory and Contemporary Research. In: Goldstein, J. H. (Ed). *Sports, Games, and Play: Social and Psychological Viewpoints*, Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, pp. 219–262.
- Stephens, W. (2017). Football Betting: A Quick and Dirty History. *Journal of Gambling Studies*.
- Sule, M. M. & Adam, Y. A. (2018). The Interface of Footballing and Gambling Saga among Muslim Youths in Nigeria Contemporary Challenges and Islamic Solution. *International Journal of Humanities, Art and Social Studies (IJHAS)*, 3 (4), pp. 1-16.
- Tade O. (2014). 'He is a Father Christmas when Man-U Wins': UEFA League and the Dynamics of Spousal Relations in Nigeria, *Soccer and Society*.
- Temitope, B. E. (2019). Patterns and Prevalence of Gambling Behaviour among Youths in South-West Nigeria: A Case Study of Youths in Oyo and Ekiti State. *British Journal of Psychology Research*, 7(2), pp. 22-46.
- Vidacs, B. (2006). Through the Prism of Sports: Why Should Africanists Study Sports? *Africa Spectrum*, 41, p. 331–349.

Assessing the Impacts of Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System on Urban Land Delivery and City Development in Nigeria

Kazeem Bolayemi AKINBOLA, PhD, FCIPM¹ and Taofik Iyanda SALAU, PhD, FNITP²

¹Department of Estate Management and Valuation
The Federal Polytechnic, Ilaro, Ogun State
Email: kazeem.akinbola@federalpolyilaro.edu.ng

²Department of Urban and Regional Planning
University of Lagos, Lagos State
Email: salauti@gmail.com

Abstract

Land's invaluable relevance to the survival and development of human race can never be over-emphasised, especially and more than ever before, due to geometrically-soaring competition that heralds land's increasing scarcity and costliness, thus clogging real estate and urban development, with more disturbing experiences within urban and supra urban milieus, due to cumbersome process of its acquisition. The situation was caused and being fuelled by such factors, among which is the enmeshing of formal land management system in adversities of socio-political and economic dimensions, leading to poorly impacted urban land delivery mechanism, with aggregated consequential outcomes on city development; reversing these unwholesome scenarios through cutting-strategies is the crux of this research. Purposive and convenience sampling techniques were deployed to administer 250 copies of 5-point Likert scaled questionnaire among land officials, land consultants and various categories of land users. Out of the 223 copies of questionnaire that were retrieved, and subjected to screening, 206 were found to be valid, translating to 89.20% distribution-retrieval rate, upon which analysis took place, using AMOS 18.0 version of structural equation modelling. With Cronbach Alpha value of 0.791 and inter-item correlation cumulative mean value of 0.729, 73% of the 206 research responses said that 85% of urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by soaring governmental interference which always hoodwinks officials on their statutory roles in respect of the delivery of urban lands and thus resultantly affects city developments. It was concluded that urban land delivery and city development stand to be continually challenged, unless recommendation such as separation of powers through decentralisation of land titling approvals is implemented.

Keywords: Land Management, Land Delivery, Political Economy, City Development, Nigeria.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Meaningful city development in terms of spatial and infrastructural components, relies on availability and accessibility of land, the hitchless supply and delivery of which are determined by how elegant the process of acquisition is, as it is overall being dictated by how the responsive and

well-functioning the formal land management system is. Every single developmental activity across all cities, be it real estate and / or any other type of urban development, relies on land in its sufficient quantum and with less or no stress, the availability and possibility of which depends on a highly responsive formal land management system, through which lands in all its various characteristic sizes, titular extent and durational magnitude, are being delivered, but which sadly, is almost inexistent as we speak (Ashaolu and Akinbola, 2019). Of importance is the fact that the multiplicity of issues that are involved in the dysfunctional performance of formal land management system to truly supply land in such a manner and with such speed that are required for fast-paced urban development generally and real estate in particular, are besotted with challenges of socio-political and economic dimensions, which had engulfed the system and the entirety of stakeholders therein, leading to sub-optimal performance in the land delivery functions and thus mars urban development(Furuholt *et al*, 2015).

Meanwhile, it is not illogical or out of place for one to ponder on the lingering nature of the ugly situation that surrounds urban development's stagnation, which is at the instance of poor state of land delivery that is occasioned by appalling health of formal land management system, which is driven by factors of socio-political and economic dimensions, which seem to defy all comprehension, especially when contextualising the ugliness surrounding land delivery as well as associated *snailing* urban development activities against the backdrop of the fact that, Nigeria's land management system like any other systems of the country's MDAs are left in the hands of competent and trustworthy individuals (Agunbiade *et al*, 2014) Hence, and to align in a way with existing data-driven and empirically-verified early positions and previous submissions of quite a number of experts and scholars on this and other closely-related aspect of challenges of land management spectrum and its numerous adverse effects on land delivery on the one hand, as well general urban development on the other.

Thence, it becomes a necessity to confront underlie issues that are inherent in the above background in respect of the worrisome situation of formal land management system on the one hand, as well as how its socio-political and economic masterminded challenges have made it to adversely affect the urban land delivery spectrum and urban development in general, by evolving queries through which the cross-cutting challenges can be best periscoped for proper understudy, so as to clearly understand them through the following latent ponderings, viz: 'what are the socio-political and economic adversities plaguing formal land management system? What reasons are responsible for formal land management system being plagued with such adversities? How has

formal land management system been affected by these adversities? In what dimension has the urban land delivery and city development been resultantly affected by this unfolding anomaly? To what degree is the effect of socio-political and economically plagued land management system on urban land delivery and city development?

Therefore, it is with the focus and resolve to address the situation by answering the numerous queries that raised above, as well as achieving the main aim and objectives of this study, that assisted in establishing the existence of socio-political and economic adversities and gauging their impacts on formal land management system, as well investigating their resultant effects on urban land delivery and by extension urban development in Nigeria, this is the fulcrum that acts as the essence of this research.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Land management system, as it was opined, is an amalgam of array of frameworks by which foursome of lands' accessibility, be it within urban, supra urban and rural milieus are being guaranteed (Zevenbergen, 2013). These foursome must be understood from the contexts of land availability, land affordability, land tenure security and ease of transaction, with other revolving goals such as ensuring that every developable piece of lands is not only available but at the right location and in sufficient quantum, as well being within the affordable price regime, among other factors, the essence of which is to ensure efficiency, equity, equality, fairness and justice among the citizens of the society, regardless of their respective socio-political, cultural, ethnic or economic leanings, for the purpose of attainment of all-round development and growth for the people (Johannessen & Hornbæk, 2014), which is being driven via land administration roles that are being delivered through the following trajectories, viz:

- i. Dynamics of Land Management System.
- ii. Basics of Well-functioning Land Management System.
- iii. Benefits of Efficient Land Management System.
- iv. Socio-Political and Economic Adversities Affecting LMS

i. Dynamics of Land Management System.

To begin with, it, it is most imperative to acknowledge the need for a very elegant land administration and regulation machinery, if responsive land management system, that is of requisite virility to drive the expected level of vibrancy with which today's society's lands needs

have come to be known, lest such land management system is thus described as being irresponsible towards the growing realities of the society, especially as demographics of citizens continues to soar (Akinbola and Md Yassin, 2016a). Thence, it is sort of being mandatory that government at relevant levels of responsibilities, including all MDAs, must endeavour to make enduring provision for a system that ensures sustainable supply of land real-field driven and practically deployable information and data storage and retrieval base station. It is needless to state that land and its vast resources are most veritably cared for, on the logic that, responsive and cost effective management relies on how well managed the information about its ownership, limitations in physical and abstract terms, as well its overall existence is, as such aspects will to a very great extent support government and all associated stakeholders to largely attain the desired results (Whittal, 2014; Yilmaz *et al*, 2015).

ii. Basics of Well-functioning Land Management System

It is with no ground for any prevarication, that it is being opined by scholars and professionals alike, that, among the various statutory functions of any well-run government, is the consistent discharge of well-functioning land management system, as well as its associated benefits to every eligible citizen, regardless of socio-political, economic and ethnic leanings, as this is basic to the overall and collective socio-political and economic development of such society (Enemark, 2012). Meanwhile, the timelessness of the asset called land, against which the pride of every human being is gauged, in terms of its possession by such individuals, as well as the basis of the extent of survival of every citizen and upon which the continuity and even expansion of their prosperity relies, cannot be over-emphasised (Alli *et al*, 2013), as such characteristics plays a very tangential role in the lengthiness of existence of citizens, as well as contributory to sustainability of every land-based activity, be it at micro, meso or macro scale, by any of such users of land and land resources, be it individuals, groups and / or government at any level (De Zeeuw & Lemmen, 2015).

iii. Benefits of Efficient Land Management System.

In copious terms, it is of immense importance to aver that favourable democratic experiments of settled countries of the world, have been made possible through a number of factors and situations, the chief among them, which has in its central, land and its precious exploitation and exploration, which are guided and superintended by land management system, as the driving force (Barry & Roux, 2012). It then stands to reason, that unhindered delivery of every resource including land,

as well as its inexpensive access by all manners of eligible citizens of such democratic nation, is a hallmark of well-balanced society and thus a bastion for ranking how good and a favourable a machinery of governance is, which underscores the integrity of land, as well land management system as twosome through which complete realisation of the socio-political and economic yearnings of the citizens are measured (Akinbola & Fidudusola, 2020). By extension to this is the fact that, land as an all-time asset of immeasurable quantum, has in its core, the concept of ownership, around which such state-mandated aspects of statutory powers of all units of government, identity of citizens, existential status of individual citizens and agencies of government, as well as duties and benefits of citizens (Steudler *et al*, 2010), revolve, as they superimposed on upon the philosophy of lego-insitutional and politico-economic arrangements and their hierarchies, as determinants of leadership-followership dichotomies of many societies (Simbizi *et al*, 2014).

iv. Socio-Political and Economic Adversities Affecting LMS

A series of efforts were marshalled in combing through intensive literature search, the outcome of which copiously revealed some salient issues and background factors that are responsible for the lingering and protracted non-possession of needed capacity and requisite capability of formal land management system to measure up with rising expectations of array of stakeholders (Hull, 2014), especially various categories of land users in their quest to seek and secure unhindered accessibility to developable land in a their preferred location and at affordable price, on the other hand are undercurrents of trauma and loss of esteem on the part of the drivers of government agencies that are responsible for delivery of urban land as well, as they tend to find their being hoodwinked in optimally performing their statutory functions, as a case of irrelevance or put better still, inexistence (Griffith-Charles & Sutherland, 2013)

Therefore, it is quite imperative to opine that an in-depth literature excursion helped to shape the focus of this research by establishing its trajectories within the streamflow of existing body knowledge and research and thus assisted in deepening the relevance of this study. The novelty of this research therefore is respect of the fact that its numerous findings have revealed quite well, those benefits that society are derive if the numerous suggestions that are incubated are implemented. Hence, it is of high importance that the issues of socio-political and economic adversities, with which formal land management system is being badly affected, and by which the urban land delivery which is a statutory function of government and for which it performed through

its relevant MDAs, be brought into clearer focus through taxonomy, so as to further assist the researcher’s efforts at *empiricalising* those inherent issues of grave concerns, with which the formal land management system had been moribund and by which urban land delivery functions have been called to question, leading to huge denial of deserving benefits by the citizenry (Gonzalez Garibay & De Cuyper, 2013; Barry& Roux, 2013).

Thence, the attempt at calibrating the underlie adversities of socio-political and economic dimensions, is to evolve a set of readable notations and statements of constructs, that are recognised by appropriate statistical instruments that being deployed to analyse the data gathered from surveys, essentially to be able to completely understand the innate issues and to strive in correctly place them into proper context, so as to attain the overall aim of this research. The check-listed socio-political and economic adversities were birthed into the following displayed constructs, which best summarised and represented the exactitude of the inherent issues affecting formal land management and impacting negatively on urban land delivery in particular and city development in general, as thus contained in the table 1, viz:

Table1: Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System Affecting Urban Land Delivery and City Development

Variable	Constructs	Calibrated Statements of the Constructs
Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System	SPED1 _{FLMS}	Formal land management system is infilled with insufficient independence which impacts adversely on the efficiency of officials and hampers urban land delivery functions and resultantly clogs city developments activities immensely.
	SCBD2 _{FLMS}	Formal land management system’s ill-direction of the financial and other categories of burden to land developers brews low incentivised supply-demand spectrum and lowers urban land delivery tempo which affects overall city development activities.
	SPED3 _{FLMS}	Formal land management system is hit hard by an unbecoming apathy of un-capturing of society’s general economic wherewithal in the drafting land instruments

	which warps urban land delivery functions and resultantly overall city development.
SPED4_{FLMS}	Formal land management system is debaced by misdirecting of government’s financial priority being sourced from the budgetary accruals from land agencies and thus affects urban land delivery functions and ultimately constricts city development activities.
SPED5_{FLMS}	Formal land management system is fraught with the culture of accepting the finality of lands advisory committee’s decisions on land matters which laces urban land delivery assignments with dogmatism and thus hinders city development decisions.
SPED6_{FLMS}	Formal land management system is being dominated by egregious and overzealous political party-loyalists who are cascading as land officers and this impacts adversely on urban land delivery and slows down the tempo of city development greatly.
SPED7_{FLMS}	Formal land management system is adversely impacted by huge socio-political preferences and thus being ill-considered in the allocation of specific zones of the state for developmental requests of the few selected and this retards urban land delivery and resultantly city development.
SPED8_{FLMS}	Norm of conferring infinitesimal consideration upon formal land management system in government economic policies impacts so much on urban land delivery in terms of insufficient econo-financial booty to bankroll some statutory functions without government behest and this resultantly affects city development greatly.
SPED9_{FLMS}	Formal land management system is characterised and fully consumed by soaring governmental interference which ultimately beclouds the officials’ judgement and impinges greatly on delivery of urban lands and thus resultantly affects city developments.
SPED10_{FLMS}	Formal land management system’s hijacking through unbridled but silent mingling of political gladiators promotes mismatches in supply transactionalism and

distorts the process of land allocation thus retards city development generally.

Source: Authors, 2020

3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Research Setting and Data Collection

The setting within where the geography of this research falls, is the south-western geopolitical zone of Nigeria. This setting, which is comprised of six states of Lagos, Ogun, Oyo, Osun, Ondo and Ekiti states, was chosen as the study area, partly due to the fact that multi-dimensional land matters, in terms of vibrancy of development activities that require constancy of land's availability and affordability, coupled with expected ease and cost efficiency in respect of transactions, as well as being comparatively of highest level of tendencies towards being socio-political and economically undertoned by all sectors, among other factors, with the overall propensity for them to adversely impact upon available arrangement of land management on the one hand, together with hampering urban land delivery and thus resultantly posing threat to city development, were chief of the reasons.

Also, for graphical understanding, the map below shows further, the geospatial setting of the research's case-study, within where the study was conducted, for clearer appreciation of the length and breadth of the immediate area of influence, to which the outcomes of the research may be applicable. This is brought to the fore via the map of Nigeria that is contained in figure 1, which is thus being presented as follows:

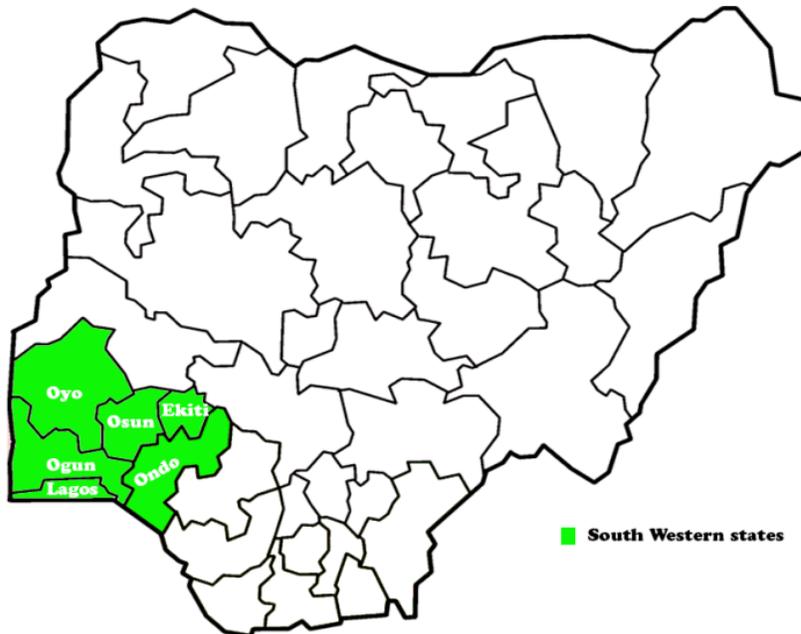


Figure 1: Map of Nigeria showing the setting for the case-study and the study areas of the research (Areola *et al*, 2014).

Along the same vein, it is important to state that there was a need evolve variable(s) as well as constructs, with which the inherent issues involved in the study are being deeply understudied for the sake of clearer appreciation of their back and front end implications, so as to afford the researcher the opportunity to gauge them against the overall aim of this study. Hence, in attempt to achieve this, main independent and dependent variables, that is the formal land management system and urban land delivery and city development respectively; while description quotients that are in the form of research queries as displayed in table 1 above are the latent constructs. Appropriate data were gathered via the administration of 250 copies of well-structured 5-point Likert scaled questionnaire, which were distributed among tenured and career land management officials on the one hand, as well as consultants on land matters and various categories of land users and city infrastructure developers on the other hand, through admixture of convenience, simple random and purposive sampling techniques,. Out of the 223 copies of questionnaire that were retrieved, after normality and reliability screening were performed on them, 206 were found to be valid, translating to 89.20% distribution-retrieval rate, upon which second order analysis of structural equation modelling was conducted using version 18.0 of AMOS software.

Research Design

For the purpose of achieving the overall aim of this research and all the associated objectives, there was deployment of AMOS' version 18.0 software for the second order analysis via structural equation modelling, with the goal of analysing the data after ensuring that their elegance has been established to confirm their demographics and normality for reliability. To begin with, it is important to state that, all the phases and processes of urban land delivery which are being described as totality of all the components that are combined to make up of what is called the formal land management system, is a variable that is adversely affected by debacle of socio-political and economic factors, as it forms one of the main aspects of this research, with the resultant effects on the delivery of urban land and by extension, the city development as being the second aspect. Thence, it is noteworthy to say that the overall combination of the components of this research needs non-complicated clarifications, which ordinarily will require most available and well known treshold analysis, that deploys a first order confirmatory factor analysis.

Also, it must be stated that the demographics and reliabillity analyses, which were torchlighted as central to the birthing of validity of the ten latent constructs which were made to gauge the socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system as a variable, as well as their requisite internal consistency, togetherwith assessment of the appropriate eligibility of the degree of existence of intercorrelation among the ten latent constructs and the varaible they were meant to measure, so as to attain an desirable output, thereafter shortly, which is followed by conduction of second order analysis of the structural equation modelling. Prejudice about the precept is inconsequential, as it is a fixed numerical condition, which stipulates that every statistical process that is to be performed on any latent construct together with the variable therewith, any specified listing of resolution and capacity notwithstanding, it is most desirable that the output from performing a first order confirmatory factor analysis, be specifically stated. In this research, this is comprised of ten latent constructs, which are evolved as items of socio-political and economic adversities that measured the formal land management system as a variable that is coined and termed *socio-political and econmic adversities (SPED)*, the impacts from which are manifesting as clogs of unquantifiable dimensions in the delivery of urban lands on the one hand, as well as overall city development on the other hand, and thus makes it imperative that a confirmatory factor analysis be performed on them, so as to confirm and establish the extent to which the ten latent constructs impact on formal land management system as the variable and ultimately on the urban land delivery and city development.

In the final analysis, it is of great importance to reveal that the structural model that was produced as output of statistical excursion of this research hugely exudes the extent of multi-directionality that is bellied among the ten latent constructs which were meant to gauge the socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system on the one hand, as well as impacts they so exhibit on the totality of urban land delivery and overall city development, which is being sufficiently depicted through the strength of their respective model paths, the totality of which are taken care of, as well as checklisted under the generated final measurement model in figure 2, together with associated model fit statistics in table 5.

Data Analysis and Presentation of Results

By every stroke of compliance, it is imperative to assert that balanced judgement and logical ordering which are hallmarks of research, especially in the area of serialising all the stages that are involved in the analyses and its sub-analyses that were conducted, which began with normality testing, which was followed by reliability testing and thereafter discriminant testing on the one hand, which was thereafter followed by analyses of the constituent components' demographics. This was made to be important on the bases of a number of reasons, most striking of which is to appropriately contextualise the extent to which the impacts of the socio-political and economic adversities were of acceptance to have made the formal land management system to adversely affect the urban land delivery and city development. It is also imperative to inform that the overall structural equation modelling analysis was conducted, which was focused at generating the structural model which empirically presents the inter-correlational impacts, as well as gauges the exactitude of the adversity that exists among the ten latent constructs of socio-political and economic factors of formal land management system, which is the independent variable on the one hand, and by extension, its front-end effects as the adversity on urban land delivery and city development, which is the dependent variable on the other hand, from where the appropriate set of deductions were made, which certainly assisted in collecting findings and accurately situate them for the overall aim of evolving valid conclusions for the research.

Normality, Reliability and Discriminant Analyses of the Constructs.

a. Normality Analysis

This research's component in the context of independent variable, which is the formal land management system, was being assessed for analysis of its effects on dependent variable, that is

the urban land delivery, as it was made for available for examination by the factors that are driving the former, as they are couched into latent constructs of socio-political and economic adversities on the latter. The outputs in numerical terms, which emanated from the statistical efforts are compiled and displayed in table 2, by representing the values of the research’s three-some of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis, which depicts as that of all the ten latent constructs, as gathered from all the categories of respondents, by which the inter-dependency among the ten constructs of socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, which is shortened and addressed as SPED on one hand, together with that of the urban land delivery and city development, on the other hand, are being showcased, as it also deepened inter-determinacy and multi-spectrality that exist among the 10 latent constructs via the cumulative values of mean which is 3.9 for all of them.

Table 2: Normality Analysis for the Correlation Determinacy of Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System Affecting Urban Land Delivery and City Development

Code	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
SPED1	223	3.91	.668	-.126	-.778
SPED2	223	3.89	.730	-.340	-1.072
SPED3	223	3.94	.683	-.272	-.860
SPED4	223	3.99	.705	-.364	-.939
SPED5	223	3.90	.693	-.279	-.903
SPED6	223	3.88	.715	-.283	-1.015
SPED7	223	3.92	.670	-.288	-.822
SPED8	223	4.95	.723	-.157	-1.071
SPED9	223	3.89	.689	-.254	-.901
SPED10	223	3.93	.681	-.320	-.841

b. Reliability Analysis

For this research, it was deemed necessary that an attempt towards attaining an accurate empirical excursion towards having normality analysis of the independent and dependent variables as well the ten latent constructs was conducted, it is thus important to make sure that the requirements are established, this is believed to include, all the outputs which are the values of the scales of the twosome of skewness and kurtosis, against which descriptive statistics were performed in respect of any measurement and this must be between -1 and +1 (Kline, 2005; Awang, 2012). Thence, as displayed on table 2, the specified conditions have been attained, through the outputs of the values recorded for skewness and kurtosis for all the 10 latent constructs of socio-political and economic adversities which are being listed, as they fall within the threshold of -1 and +1. Therefore, the internal consistency is impressive via the values for the Cronbach Alpha and the cumulative mean of inter-constructs' correlation, which were obtained for the scale of reliability analysis of all the LMS's independent variable for 10 latent constructs of SPED, which are 0.791 and 0.729 respectively, as contained in table 3.

Table 3: Reliability Analysis of the Total Scale of Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System Affecting Urban Land Delivery and City Development

Cronbach's Alpha	Cumulative Mean of Inter Item Correlation.	No of Distributed Item on the Construct.
0.791	0.729	10

c. Discriminant Analysis

Along similar vein, it is imperative to emphasise thus, that before the evolvment of the statistical details for the final measurement model and to further affirm the validity of the afore-generated normality and reliability analyses that were conducted for this study, it thus becomes very important to evolve analysis for discriminant validity. This empirical attempt is most required because it was meant to assess the extent by which all the ten latent constructs, which are socio-political and economic adversities on the one hand, and formal land management system, which is the independent variable, together with urban land delivery and city development as dependent variable, on the other hand, measured entirely different things. The outputs of the results that are captured in table 4 were made to affirm the sufficiency of discriminant validity, with virtually all the results for the outputs as holding for the independent variable correlation, with all the items of

constructs falling in the region lesser than 0.85 for all the outputs, which were for the average variance extracted (AVE) for all the ten latent constructs, which failed to surpass the one-quarter of the correlations among all the ten latent constructs (Paschke, 2009).

Table 4: Discriminant Analysis of the Total Scale of Socio-Political and Economic Adversities of Formal Land Management System Affecting Urban Land Delivery and City Development

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR	SPED 1	SPED 2	SPED 3	SPED 4	SPED 5	SPED 6	SPED 7	SPED 8	SPED 9	SPED 10
SPED 1	0.873	0.553	0.004	0.868	0.076									
SPED 2	0.878	0.627	0.035	0.936	-0.094	0.012								
SPED 3	0.892	0.821	0.007	0.977	0.013	-0.021	0.093							
SPED 4	0.951	0.751	0.038	0.981	0.028	0.067	-0.079	0.089						
SPED 5	0.967	0.718	0.049	0.983	0.025	0.078	0.847	-0.087	0.074					
SPED 6	0.972	0.783	0.021	0.995	0.031	0.023	0.851	0.079	-0.078	0.045				
SPED 7	0.978	0.794	0.055	0.955	0.029	0.061	0.823	0.074	0.069	-0.067	0.087			
SPED 8	0.995	0.795	0.069	0.986	0.063	0.087	0.819	0.083	0.035	0.075	-0.078	0.057		
SPED 9	0.991	0.792	0.073	0.991	0.071	0.081	0.822	0.084	0.057	0.079	0.079	-0.076	0.045	
SPED10 0	0.985	0.763	0.068	0.988	0.069	0.084	0.839	0.087	0.054	0.072	0.071	0.078	-0.064	0.047

Demographic Analysis of the Latent Constructs.

It is important to emphasize that among the ten constructs of independent variable, which are socio-political and economic adversities that measure formal land management system that is denoted as SPED, there is in availability of an impressively strong inter-determinacy link with the dependent variable, which is urban land delivery and city development. Therefore, the following are deductions from the analysis that was performed on constructs 1 to 10, viz:

1. Construct 1 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED1 has 64.08% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 132 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it,

with 32.52% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 67 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 3.40 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 7 persons that are undecided about it.

2. Construct 2 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED2 has 59.71% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 123 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 29.61% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 61 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 10.68 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 22 persons that are undecided about it.

3. Construct 3 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED3 has 66.02% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 136 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 26.70% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 55 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 7.28 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 15 persons that are undecided about it.

4. Construct 4 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED4 has 57.77% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 119 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 38.83% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 80 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 3.40 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 7 persons that are undecided about it.

5. Construct 5 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED5 has 62.14% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 128 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 32.04% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 66 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 5.82 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 12 persons that are undecided about it.

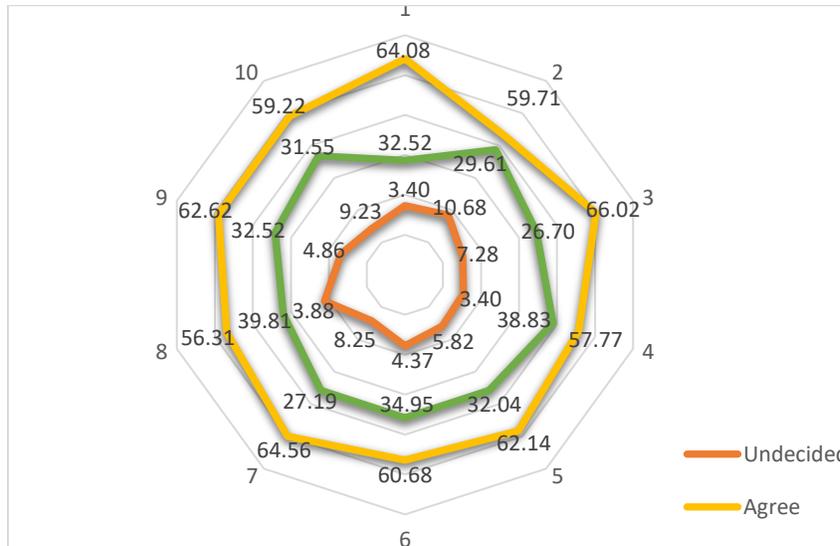


Figure 2: Constructs’ Demographic Analyses of Formal Land Management System (Socio-Political and Economic Adversities) Affecting Urban Land Delivery and City Development.

6. Construct 6 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED6 has 66.68% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 125 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 34.95% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 72 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 4.35 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 9 persons that are undecided about it.

7. Construct 7 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED7 has 64.56% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 133 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 27.19% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 56 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 8.25 % of the 206 respondents, which translates 17 persons that are undecided about it.

8. Construct 8 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED8 has 56.31% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 116 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 39.81% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 82 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 3.88% of the 206 respondents, which translates 8 persons that are undecided about it.

9. Construct 9 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED9 has 62.62% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 129 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 32.52% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 67 persons as those that strongly agreed to it, while 4.86% of the 206 respondents, which translates 10 persons that are undecided about it.

10. Finally, Construct 10 of the formal land management system which is depicted as SPED10 has 59.22% of the 206 valid respondents, which translates to 122 persons, as those individuals that agreed to it, with 31.55% of the 206 respondents, which translates to 65 persons as those that

strongly agreed to it, while 9.23% of the 206 respondents, which translates 19 persons that are undecided about it.

Structural Equation Modelling and Analysis for the Constructs

For this research, it is important to note that, the latent constructs of socio-political and economic adversities which are scripted as SPED constructs, were known to be 15 at the commencement of this research, with each of them being allocated with a notational ID as SPED1 to SPED15. It was at the intervals of the excursion into the research exercise, which went through set of phases, such as baseline survey, as well as some screening phases for the evolvement of the latent constructs, which led to five of the initial 15 latent constructs, that is, the twosome of the socio-political and economic factors, which are coined in SPED11, SPED12, SPED13, SPED14 and SPED15 to become invalid, due to an unimpressive outcomes of the values of their internal consistency, together with loadings of their exploratory factors respectively, thereafter, all the five constructs were made to be dropped.

Furthermore, some of the other set of statistical tasks were conducted, which came to confirm further, the fact that three of the other remaining ten latent constructs were of insufficient components to fulfil the minimum expectations of the stipulated requirements, which are requisite for a measurement model, as specified by AMOS prior to the deploying of this analytical tool for analysis, as they are meant to draw interrelationship(s) among cases with advanced inter-construct correlational multi-spectrality. Therefore, series of model re-specification on the one hand, as well as re-definitional exercises took place, on the other hand, thus latent constructs of SPED1 (*formal land management system is infilled with insufficient independence which impacts adversely on the efficiency of officials and hampers urban land delivery functions and resultantly clogs city developments activities immensely*), 2 (*formal land management system's ill-direction of the financial and other categories of burden to land developers brews low incentivised supply-demand spectrum and lowers urban land delivery tempo which affects overall city development activities.*) and SPED4 (*Formal land management system is debaced by misdirecting of government's financial priority being sourced from the budgetary accruals from land agencies and thus affects urban land delivery functions and ultimately constricts city development activities.*) were reaffirmed to share similar and close similarity with strong inter-determinacy.

Thence, drawn from the foregoing efforts as reported above, it is thus apparent that the three constructs 1,2 and 4 were made to flag down, which puts them at seven surviving ones, which qualified them as components of the final structural model. It is significant to state that the final model of the remaining seven latent constructs (SPED3, SPED5, SPED6, SPED7, SPED8, SPED9 and SPED10), which are schematically diagrammatized, thus presents that there is correlational link between formal land management system’s socio-political and economic adversities and urban land delivery and city development. The ultimate measurement model in figure 3 and resultant model statistics in table 5 are meant to convey the analyses of the surviving seven latent constructs of formal land management system’s socio-political and economic adversities, denoted as SPED.

Thence, the continuous empirical excursions of re-specification, which was birthing a particularly all-encapturing and ultimate final model, was arrived at through series of efforts that resulted to statistical and theoretical cum conceptual underpinnings, in such a manner that all specified conditions are met, with a view to generating a final measurement model that captures the very significance of what surviving seven latent constructs, which are representing the socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, and by which directly, the measurement in exactitude, was done to properly contextualize the impact(s) they have on urban land delivery and city development, as presented in figure 3, thus:

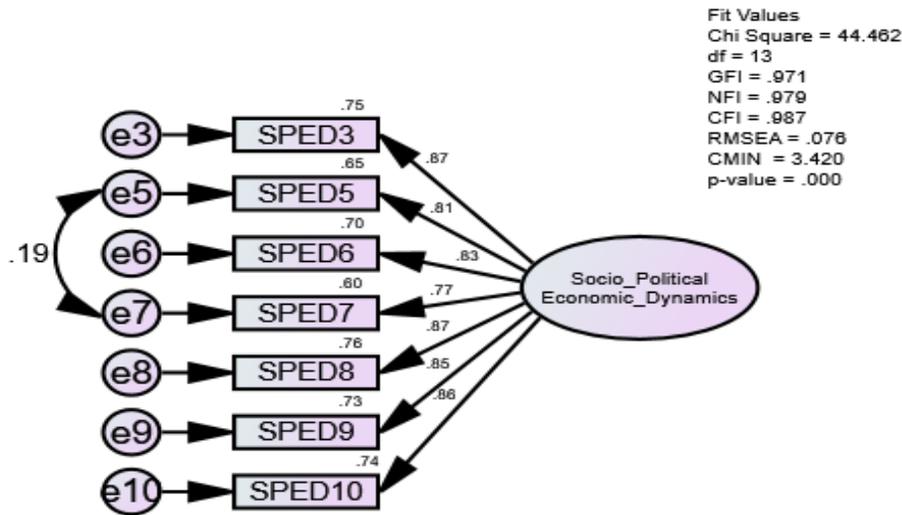


Figure 3: Final Measurement Model for Socio-Political and Economic Dictates.

Further to the foregoing, is that of the fact that model statistics tremendously appreciates in accuracy, so as to fit into the specified ranges for goodness-of-fit indices required for an acceptable

model, as this as well further improved the attained values of achieved factor loadings in the SMCs, CRs and ML estimates of the surviving seven latent constructs, which are SPED3, SPED5, SPED6, SPED7, SPED8, SPED9 and SPED10, which ultimately led to the generation of an accepted model for the independent variable (LMS) being measured by the seven latent constructs of socio-political and economic adversities in Table 5, viz

Table 5: Model Statistics for Socio-Political and Economic Adversities (SPED) of LMS.

Model Identification				Model Fit Statistics				
Observed Variables	=	2	X ²	=	44.462	CFI	=	0.987
Estimated Parameters	=	9	X ² /df	=	3.420	RMSEA	=	0.076
Degree of Freedom	=	13	P	=	0.000	LO90	=	0.000
Model is Identified			RMR	=	0.015	PCLOSE	=	0.000
Factor Loadings								
S/N	Items		Construct	Estimate	C.R	P	SMC	Remark
1	SPED3	<--	SPED	0.87	0.892	***	0.75	Stipulations are attained
2	SPED5	<--	SPED	0.81	0.967	***	0.65	Stipulations are attained
3	SPED6	<--	SPED	0.83	0.972	***	0.70	Stipulations are attained
4	SPED7	<--	SPED	0.77	0.978	***	0.60	Stipulations are attained
5	SPED8	<--	SPED	0.87	0.995	***	0.76	Stipulations are attained
6	SPED9	<--	SPED	0.85	0.991	***	0.73	Stipulations are attained
7	SPED10	<--	SPED	0.86	0.985	***	0.74	Stipulations are attained
All the Factor Loadings attained required levels and Model Statistics for Goodness-of-Fit Indices are upheld, hence, this Model is hereby Accepted.								

Finally, this research’s model statistics appreciates immensely and thus secured greater strength and thereby fulfilled all the specified conditionalities held for goodness-of-fit indices for an acceptable model, this also contributed to the improvement of an already fulfilled factor loadings to the remaining seven items of queries SPED3, SPED5, SPED6, SPED7, SPED8, SPED9 and SPED10. Thus, without any prevarication of any sort has made the surviving seven latent constructs attain more acceptable values in their SMCs, CRs and ML estimates, and thus ultimately contributed to overall achievement of finally accepted model for the correlational link among the trio of socio-political and economic adversities on the one hand, and the independent variable of formal land management system, as well as dependent variable of urban land delivery and city development on the other hand.

4.0 RESEARCH FINDINGS

Summary and Discussion of Findings

1. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that

was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED3, which says that *‘formal land management system is hit hard by an unbecoming apathy of un-capturing of society’s general economic wherewithal in the drafting of land instruments which warps urban land delivery functions and resultantly overall city development.’*, as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.87 and 0.75SMC. This empirical outcome in simple terms, means that 75% of the 206 respondents, aggregately in their unanimity said 87% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by an unbecoming apathy of un-capturing of society’s general economic wherewithal in the drafting of land instruments which warps urban land delivery functions and resultantly overall city development.

2. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED5, which says that *‘formal land management system is fraught with the culture of accepting the finality of lands advisory committee’s decisions on land matters, thus laces urban land delivery assignments with dogmatism and hence hinders city development decisions.’*, as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.81 and 0.65SMC. This simply means that 65% of the 206 respondents, averagely in their cumulative mutuality said 81% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by the culture of accepting the finality of lands advisory committee’s decisions on land matters which laces urban land delivery assignments with dogmatism and thus hinders city development decisions.

3. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED6, which says that *‘formal land management system is being dominated by egregious and overzealous political party-loyalists who are facading as land officers and this impacts adversely on urban land delivery and slows down the tempo of city development greatly.’*, as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.83 and 0.70SMC. This simply means that 70% of the 206 respondents, averagely in their mutual rationale said 83% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by sheer domination by egregious and overzealous political party-loyalists and faithfuls who are cascading as land officers

and this impacts adversely on urban land delivery and slows down the tempo of city development greatly.

4. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED7, which says that *'formal land management system is adversely impacted by huge socio-political preferences and thus being ill-considered in the allocation of specific zones of the state for developmental requests of the few selected and this retards urban land delivery and resultantly city development.'*, as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.77 and 0.60SMC. This simply means that 60% of the 206 respondents, averagely in their cumulative unison said 77% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by the huge socio-political preferences and thus being ill-considered in the allocation of specific zones of the state for developmental requests of the few selected and this retards urban land delivery and resultantly city development.

5. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED8, which says that *'Norm of conferring infinitesimal consideration upon formal land management system in government economic policies impacts so much on urban land delivery in terms of insufficient econo-financial booty to bankroll some statutory functions without government behest and this resultantly affects city development greatly.'*, as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.87 and 0.76SMC. This simply means that 76% of the 206 respondents, averagely in their cumulative agreement said 87% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by norm of conferring infinitesimal consideration upon formal land management system in government economic policies impacts so much on urban land delivery in terms of insufficient econo-financial booty to bankroll some statutory functions without government behest and this resultantly affects city development greatly..

6. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED9, which says that *'formal land management system is characterised and fully consumed by soaring governmental interference*

which ultimately beclouds the officials' judgement and impinges greatly on delivery of urban lands and thus resultantly affects city developments.', as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.85 and 0.73SMC. This simply means that 73% of the 206 respondents, averagely in their aggregated concurrence said 85% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by soaring governmental interference which ultimately beclouds the officials' judgement and impinges greatly on their statutory roles in respect of the delivery of urban lands and thus resultantly affects city developments.

7. As birthed and revealed through final measurement model that is schematised in figure 2, the statistical values of which are further captured and put in to clearer context in model statistics that was generated and presented in table 5, latent construct SPED10, which says that *'formal land management system's hijacking through unbridled but silent mingling of political gladiators promotes mismatches in supply transactionalism and distorts the process of land allocation thus retards city development generally.'*, as it exhibits a regression weight of 0.86 and 0.74SMC. This simply means that 74% of the 206 respondents, averagely in their aggregated concurrence said 86% of the urban land delivery and city development issues which are driven by socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system, are caused by system's hijacking through unbridled but silent mingling of political gladiators promotes mismatches in supply transactionalism and distorts the process of land allocation thus retards city development generally.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Firstly, it is noteworthy at this juncture to say that judging by the numerous findings of this research, which this study has succeeded in bringing to the fore, it is thus not insensible to draw inference and submit conclusively that the litany of urban land delivery challenges, with which quite a number of other issues are affecting the city development generally, they are being made to befall all categories of individuals, groups, companies and even governments, in their bid to engage in one form of real estate and urban development activities or the other, it is unfortunate that these challenges are not only being caused but also being sustained by a sorts of factors that of the complexions of socio-political and economic adversities of formal land management system. Also, it is important to appreciate the fact that, no matter the degree of complexity of urban land delivery and city development challenges, which are being heralded by formal land management system's socio-political and economic adversities, concerted measures from the sides of all opinion

formers in general and especially government in particular, to comply and implement some of the here-catalogued recommendations, will to a very far reaching extent clip the challenges. Therefore, as a way forward, the following are thus highlighted as veritable suggestions, which are recipes to address some of the findings that have been birthed through this research, viz:

1. Government should be sensitised through her formal land management system on the need to consider very seriously the general economic climate of the country in general and how it affects country's citizens who are ultimate land users in the drafting of land related laws and regulations for compliance while seeking lands for various developmental purposes., with a view to sustain expected demands for land and thus boosts urban development generally.
2. A twenty-first century operated system should not continue with the archaic mode of governance; hence, it becomes imperative that land management system's tasks and statutory roles be decentralised for maximum efficiency and effectiveness, due to reduced workload off the shoulder of a singular person and thus reduce abuse of power and excessive wielding of unbridled influence and thus removes clogs in the path of urban land supply and ultimately improves city development activities.
3. There is urgent need to ensure strict monitoring of incursion of party bootlickers into all spheres of activities of land management system, so as to check their excesses and clip their unwholesome activities towards land requests of citizens that are perceived to belong to either another or no political party in actual sense, so as to have a truly technocratically strong civil service that is committed to the ideals of professionalism in the delivering of statutory assignments and thus brings forth an efficient urban land delivery and city development.
4. More than ever before, there is need to shift from the culture of placing much expectation on income generation from the activities of formal land management system in terms of revenue and rent seeking attitude towards the various government agencies, especially without a commensurate funding of their statutory activities, which thus make them less efficient and cash-struck and leads to stunted urban development activities
4. It is most important to strengthen the carrying capacity of formal land markets, by endowing the officials who are the drivers, with greater level of team spirit, which has the potential of increasing the productivity through removal of ethno-social-cultural partitioning along workforce ranks and files and thus helps in removing the urban land accessibility challenges.

REFERENCES

- Agunbiade, M.E., Rajabifard, A. & Bennett, R. (2014). Land administration for housing production: An Approach for Assessment. *Land Use Policy*. 38:366–377.
- Akinbola, K.B and Yassin, A.M (2016a). Periscoping the factors responsible for poor formal accessibility of urban lands in Nigeria. In *Leading The Way: Innovation in Real Estate. Proceedings of the 8th international real estate research symposium (IRERS2016)*, jointly organised by Valuation and Property Services Department, Ministry of Finance, Malaysia and The National Institute of Valuation, Malaysia, held at Putra World Trade Centre(PWTC) on 26-28 April, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.
- Akinbola, K.B and Fidudusola, O.P (2020). Measuring the Post-pandemic Sustainability of Urban Land Affordability in Nigeria Using MuCompE and DiBAss Matrices. Accepted by Ilaro Journal of Environmental Research and Development, The Federal Polytechnic, Ilaro, Nigeria 4(1)
- Ali, Z., Zevenbergen, J. & Tuladhar, A. (2013). Quality assessment of the land administration system in Pakistan. *Journal of Spatial Science*. 58(1):119–146.
- Ashaolu, T.A and Akinbola, K.B (2019). The Confluence of Land Administration and Land Policy as Determinants of Formal Land Accessibility in Nigeria. Being Paper No 898 Presented in the 2019 edition of *Land and Property Conference* organised by the World Bank and held in Washington, US.
- Areola, C; Ahmed, K; Leong, G.C; Iruughe, O.I; Ikwuyatum, G.O Adeleke, B.O (2014). *Comprehensive Certificate Geography for senior secondary Schools* (Physical, Human and Regional Geography with Maps). University Press PLC, Ibadan.
- Awang, Z. (2012). *A Handbook on SEM Structural Equation Modelling: SEM Using AMOS Graphic*, 5th. Edition, Kota Baru Malaysia: Universiti Teknologi Mara Kelantan.
- Barry, M. & Roux, L. (2012). A change based framework for theory building in land tenure information systems. *Survey Review*. 44(327):301–314.
- Barry, M. & Roux, L. (2013). The Case Study Method in Examining Land Registration Usage. *GEOMATICA*. 67(1):9–20.
- De Zeeuw, K. & Lemmen, C. (2015). Securing Land Rights for the World. In *FIG Working Week 2015*. Sofia, Bulgaria: International Federation of Surveyors

- Enemark, S. (2012). Sustainable land governance: Spatially enabled, fit for purpose, and supporting the global agenda. In *Annual World Bank Conference on Land and Poverty*. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.
- Furuholt, B., Wahid, F. & Sæbø, Ø. (2015). Land Information Systems for Development (LIS4D): A Neglected Area within ICT4D Research? In 48th *Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*. Grand Hyatt, Kauai: IEEE Computer Society. 2158–67
- Gonzalez Garibay, M. & De Cuyper, P. (2013). *An evaluation framework for the Flemish integration policies*. Antwerp: Steunpunt Inburgering en Integratie.
- Griffith-Charles, C. & Sutherland, M. (2013). Analysing the costs and benefits of 3D cadastres with reference to Trinidad and Tobago. *Computers, Environment and Urban Systems*. 40:24–33
- Hull, S. (2014). Analysing the Cadastral Template Using a Grounded Theory Approach. In *AfricaGEO*. Cape Town: CONSAS Conference
- Johannessen, G.H.J. & Hornbæk, K. (2014). Must evaluation methods be about usability? Devising and assessing the utility inspection method. *Behaviour & Information Technology*. 33(February):195–206
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modelling: Methodology in the social sciences*. Second edition. Guilford Press, New York.
- Paschke, J. (2009). Adaptive IT capability and its impact on the competitiveness of firms: A dynamic capability perspective. An Unpublished PhD Thesis. School of Business Information Technology Business College RMIT University.
- Simbizi, M.C.D., Bennett, R.M. & Zevenbergen, J. (2014). Land tenure security: Revisiting and refining the concept for Sub-Saharan Africa's rural poor. *Land Use Policy*. 36:231–8
- Stuedler, D., Törhönen, M.-P. & Pieper, G. (2010). FLOSS in *cadastre and land registration: opportunities and risks*. FAO/FIG
- Whittal, J. (2014). A New Conceptual Model for the Continuum of Land Rights. *South African Journal of Geomatics*. 3(1):13–32.
- Yilmaz, A., Çağdaş, V. & Demir, H. (2015). An evaluation framework for land readjustment practices. *Land Use Policy*. 44:153–168
- Zevenbergen, J., Augustinus, C., Antonio, D. & Bennett, R. 2013. Pro-poor land administration: Principles for recording the land rights of the underrepresented. *Land Use Policy*.

“Smokers are liable to die young”: Revisiting and Revitalising the Behavioural-Change Health Communication.

Lateef Adekunle ADELAKUN, PhD.

Department of Mass Communication
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: ladelakun@noun.edu.ng

Abstract

Having established the unchecked proportion at which smoking and its effects ravage all syndicates of societal development through empirical documentations and theoretical deduction from previous studies, this study conceptually discussed the perspective through which studies justified the awareness, perception and influence of the health warning, “Federal Ministry of Health has warned that smokers are liable to die young” on behavioural change. Attention was concentrated on the empirical justifications that the previous studies through various perspectives employed to establish the current trends in the patterns and rate of smoking. This work also discussed the gaps noticeable in the previous studies submissions on antismoking policies and the media responsiveness to the policies so as to validate the assumptions on unbranded smoking substances. The submissions of this work were theoretically attributed and linked with the recommendations towards restructuring the approaches and revitalising behavioural-change health communication. The study recommends that the health warning be redesigned to include all categories of smoking substances, shared as a public affairs message and made salient across all media outlets including social media.

Keywords: Smoking, Framing, Behavioural-change, Health Warning, Communicating-Development

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Evaluation of the development communication messages in terms of reach, and its potency in behavioural change is part of the essence of message design. Smoking is one of the leading habit-induced challenges facing public health at national and international levels. The challenge has been ravaging the human societal development at various levels and capacity from time immemorial. It remains a persistent challenge as the efforts from stakeholders, healthcare practitioners, policy formulators, and of course the media towards ameliorating the addictive influence and ill-developmental effects of smoking on the society, keep defying all measures and exponentially manifests its immediate and long-term effects. Studies have documented the long historical battle against the menace from different perspectives (Fairweather, 1954). Media across the globe is always at the hub of almost every effort directed at curbing the menace or curing its effects.

Smoking has perhaps undermined the popular development health warning, “Federal Ministry of Health has warned that smokers are liable to die young” and the earlier messages as havocs wrecked on human and societal health have been on geometrical proportion to the smoking rate and habit. The havocs are induced by the level at which the current generation have graduated from smoking the branded tobacco cigarettes to various unbranded substances which do not only provoke their mental health but also are detrimental to societal health. Another amazing challenge is that all categories of people including the aged, the minors and even the lettered, who are assumed, should understand and adhere to the health warning on tobacco cigarettes, are immersed in smoking. Three objectives constitute the essence of this study: examining the awareness of the health warning on smoking based on the submission of previous studies; scrutinising empirical documentations of various perspectives through which smoking manifests its influence; accessing the empirical documentation of public perception of the media health warning; and the potency of the health warning in unbranded smoking substances.

It’s empirically justifiable to conclude that smoking has been mostly a subject of research under four perspectives: the effect on human and societal health; its implication on societal economy; political and social relations effects; and the mass media perspective in terms of media response and the influence of such on other perspectives. Studies that document each of these perspectives were cross examined to establish areas that require policy, research and development communication attention.

2.0 HEATH PERSPECTIVE TO SMOKING

Smoking is a generic term for inhaling and exhaling the fumes from burning plants or other smoking substances. Going by this definition, it could be agreed that its origin or historic antecedence is not peculiar to a particular culture or civilisation (Ogbogbo & Adjekukor, 2020). Although, tobacco smoking was much earlier attributed to American Indians and later introduced to Europe by Christopher Columbus and other explorers, Africans had had their own versions of smoking before the introduction of American Indian version. Before the introduction of branded tobacco cigarette to Africa, Nigeria was one of the leading growers and suppliers of tobacco plants to the world market (Agaku, Akinyele, & Oluwafemi, 2012).

Studies have documented and continue to justify with medical reports and diagnoses the World Health Organisation’s (WHO) claim that tobacco smoking is one of the world most-devastating

causes of deaths and diseases (Health & Services, 2004, 2014; Peter, Joshua, & Daughter, 2017; Peto et al., 1996; Uzundu & Uzundu, 2010; Yanbaeva, Dentener, Creutzberg, Wesseling, & Wouters, 2007). Tobacco smoking has been attributed to diseases like Cancer of various kinds, heart diseases, lung diseases, diabetes, reduction in fertility, cataracts, asthma, pancreas, and chronic bronchitis among others (Egbe, Petersen, & Meyer-Weitz, 2016; Health & Services, 2004). While some earlier studies based on medical evidences limited the tobacco smoking induced ailments and diseases to an average of twenty-five, some latter studies have attributed tobacco smoking not only as the root cause of many diseases but also as a facilitating agent to all others.

Curing tobacco-induced diseases in the patients has been very unattainable as long as the patients smoke. The worst part of it is that tobacco-induced diseases do not manifest only on the smokers but also on non-smokers who are constantly around where tobacco products are being smoked and as a result inhale the fumes consciously or unconsciously. This is the reason why tobacco smoking is considered as one the agents of environmental pollution resulting to deadly health hazard. Unfortunately, tobacco contains nicotine and tar, which are responsible for smoking addiction. Some argue that the two components of tobacco are not really the causes of addiction but rather the preservative substances added during production and branding to make tobacco products inviting and their taste and odours alluring to the end users. All these arguments do not change the fact that addiction occurs in tobacco smoking, which does not only make it difficult for the victims to desist from smoking but also increases the smoking rate. Since the medical effort in curing the tobacco-induced diseases largely depends on the behavioural change tendency in the victims to forsake smoking, media involvement as one of the behavioural change agents through behavioural change messages is always required.

3.0 SMOKING IMPLICATIONS ON THE ECONOMY

Many countries have not been able to formulate policies that make production, distribution and consumption of tobacco impermissible owing to some economic benefits. Empirical evidences have shown that revenue from tobacco contributes immensely to the gross domestic earnings and national income of many countries including Nigeria. Elasticity in the demand and consumption of tobacco products earlier motivated the need to expand the market. Studies confirmed that the argument for the economic value in tobacco blinded various governments and the industry from measuring the weight of economic loss from the same market (Chaloupka & Warner, 2000; Nwakego & Arisa, 2018; Oladepo, Oluwasanu, & Abiona, 2018).

Evidences have pointed out the waste spending on tobacco consumption, which accounted for a substantial part of households' spending (Sloan, Ostermann, Conover, Taylor Jr, & Picone, 2004). The aggregate cost of treating tobacco-induced ailment at national and international levels was estimated higher than the economic gains from tobacco market (Olukayode, 2013). High death rate, resulting from tobacco-induced diseases has also caused significant reduction in the workforce and brings about low per capita income. Owing to this evaluation, some countries have formulated policies that address smoking habits for the heavy smokers. Some of the policies also protect non-smokers from being vulnerable to tobacco-induced diseases due to environmental hazards resulting from the fumes exhaled by the tobacco smokers. In some of the countries where such policies have been formulated and enforced, smoking in public places is prohibited to protect the right of non-smokers and to reduce the consumption rate of the heavy smokers. The media involvement at this level is agenda setting on such policies to ensure that such policies become salient (Adelakun, 2019). Behavioural-change messages are also channelled towards reorientation of people in prudent spending and the cost of health implication on avoidable smoke-induced diseases.

Political and social relations effects of smoking

Governments as the coordinators of other factors related to smoking have been studied through policy formulations that address issues emanating from smoking. The studies are extended to the rate of policy enforcement and challenges tagged along. As the rate of tobacco consumption increases in Nigeria, it questions the potency of the health warning, ‘Federal Ministry of health has warned that smokers are liable to die young’ on the packets of tobacco cigarettes. Insincerity of the sponsor of the health warning (government), was also perceived in the policy implementation and enforcement towards the menace thereby resulting to insignificant behavioural change in the tobacco consumption rate (Ayodele, 2017).

Studies conducted on policy effects have empirically substantiated the influence of such policies on smoking patterns and rates. Policy implementation and enforcement for instance has been linked to a significant reduction in tobacco consumption in the 80s most especially among the adults in the United State (Pentz et al., 1989). Factors such as peer influence, unemployment, parental negligence most especially in the northern part of Nigerian, and loose policy enforcement strategies have constituted sabotage to whatever policy, medical efforts and the media advocacies

against smoking. This has invariably open Nigeria to the demerits of smoking consequences (Adebisi, Faseru, Sangowawa, & Owoaje, 2010; Adeloje et al., 2019).

One of the policies entrenched by Nigerian government is banning of tobacco cigarette advertisements on the media. This is the one of the components of the bill sponsored in the Nigerian Legislature in 2011 to domesticate the World Health Organisation (WHO) Framework Convention on Tobacco Control (FCTC) (Agaku et al., 2012; Nwakego & Arisa, 2018). The banning of tobacco adverts on the media was fully implemented and enforced but yet the number of the youths enlisted in smoking seemed not influenced, questioning the correlation of the ban with the smoking rate and habit. It has been observed that with every tobacco cigarette advert, health warning messages were attached; not to mention other Public Service Announcements (PSA) that defused the influence of such adverts. So, as the adverts were banned, the health warning messages as well as the PSA designed for the purpose died along (Ogbogbo & Adjekukor, 2020; Okolo & Aniuga, 2015). Forgetting that tobacco cigarette packs are parts of advertisement, the health warning messages on the packs to defuse the influence of such adverts are too tiny to be noticed, read, or impactful in the smokers especially the unlettered, who constitutes the bulk in town and villages.

Another questionable component of tobacco adverts ban, promotion and sponsorship is the negligence of the unbranded smoking substances in the policy. Smoking the unbranded tobacco and other non-tobacco substances, the practice which has been populated by the youths across the country, has no specific policy measure other than the health warning on the branded tobacco cigarettes. The ban on tobacco adverts has no significant influence on the unbranded smoking substances since the later are not advertised in the first instance. The unbranded tobacco substances such marijuana popularly known as *Igbo* in the South-western Nigeria has become the most celebrated smoking substance among and across different age categories.

Other components of the 2011 smoking bill, which was aimed at domesticating the WHO FCTC are: banning of tobacco smoking in public places; heavy taxation on the tobacco products which translates to increase in the price of tobacco products; and bans on the sales of tobacco products to the minors and by the minors (Agaku et al., 2012; Barendregt, Bonneux, & van der Maas, 1997; Tomkins, 1966; Wakefield, Flay, Nichter, & Giovino, 2003). Efforts from various studies have faulted the development as a result of what was regarded as policy gap. The challenge is that the

policy failed to make provision for smokeless tobacco. These are tobacco substance that were added to food substances or eaten raw. This form of tobacco use has similar effect on the consumers. The only saving grace about this dimension is that it is moderately free of environmental pollution which medically affects non tobacco smokers.

Another major challenge that requires immediate government policy and implementation is the smoking or inhaling non-tobacco substances. In order to feel high or higher, some youth have graduated from smoking tobacco products to inhaling the odour from pit-toilet, popularly known as latrine, used sanitary pads from menstruating women, fermented urine, and other malodorous substances. This form of smoking is more dangerous than tobacco smoking in term of addiction and environmental hazard-related diseases and viruses that such breed. This habit is quite resistance to the policy already in place on tobacco smoking in all ramifications. First, this form of inhaling substance has no monetary implication attached to it; it can be got or accessed freely. Second, the substances are not advertised and as a result, its use cannot be defused by any form of health warning through their packs or labels. Third, heavy taxation does not apply as its demand does not call for monetary implication. The major way out is reorientation of the victims through behavioural change communication. The media efforts towards designing, framing, positioning and setting agenda on behavioural change communication to ensure reach and impactful influence on the target audience cannot be overemphasised.

4.0 MEDIA AT THE HUB OF POLICY IMPLEMENTATION AND ENFORCEMENT

Framing function of the media could help bring about behavioural change in the addict users of tobacco and non-tobacco smoking substances. Effectiveness of any developmental message depends much on the structure of such health warning and the angles the message emphasised. The most salient angle compels the audience attention and if such favoured angle does not convince the recipients, the objective of the entire message is defeated. Adelakun (2017) discusses various frames the mass media as the designers of development-health messages could adopt to synchronize and reinforce the message influence. The fear appeal frame is commonly used in development messages especially when behavioural-change communication is required yet other form of framing patterns such as awareness and effect frames would have compelled the attentions and reasoning of the target audience. Variations could be noticed in the potency of fear appeal frames employed in HIV/AIDs, 2014 Ebola outbreak and Covid-19 campaign messages. While fear appeal frame employed in Covid-19 was precipitated and reinforced by knowledge-based and

problem-solving alternative messages, taking a cue from the gap in media approaches to 2014 Ebola outbreak (Adelakun & Adnan, 2016), that of HIV/AIDs received different forms of misinterpretations and misrepresentation. Death fear in tobacco smoking health warning, “Federal Ministry of Health has warned that smokers are liable to die young” has not been considered by most of the smokers with all seriousness because message and media mix option was not adhered to despite the level of diffusion of digital media orientation that ensures maximum accessibility and emphasis to development health messages.

The functions of the mass media as carriers of development health messages are entrenched in its Agenda-setting function. Aside that mass media are the vehicles for advertisements and Public Service Announcements (PSA), the level of preference and the functional approach to the treatment of health-related news items by the media, reinforce developments health warnings.

Media involvement in behavioural change communication starts from problem identification; until people perceive an issue a problem, they would hardly yield to the solution (Adelakun & Adnan, 2017). The media could problematise a health issue through constant and steady news reports as well as production of public affairs programmes on such issue until agenda is built around such. When an issue gains public sympathy and as a result becomes the heart of public discussions, whichever way the media frames the issue would mandate frame influence. The media at this point dictates not only what people should think about (First layer of the media agenda) but also how it wants people to think about what it wants them to think about (Second layer of the media agenda). This approach could be applied to smoking. Concentration on similar messages from different media outlets (Media mix) (Chattopadhyay, Dutta, & Sivani, 2010) on smoking would ensure an informed society and build agenda around the menace. Framing perspectives would influence the public perceptions of smoking and would provoke their interests in behavioural-change health messages.

Mass media as behavioural change communication advocates in health related issues testifies to the social responsibility approach through which the “medium remains the message” (Adelakun & Adnan, 2017; Garrett, 2020; McLuhan & Fiore, 1967). Since it has been established that limiting smoking health warnings to those that appear on the packs of the branded tobacco products jeopardises the level of health behavioural-change aspired, engaging the media in advocacies would bring about people-oriented and problem-solving alternative. Once reorientation occurs through the media initiatives in development health programmes, news and PSAs, everyone would

become an agent of change. The orientation would gear them towards: monitoring their neighbourhood to ensure active implementation of the policies on smoking; advocating and agitating for a smokeless society by sharing development health warnings on social media; and reporting the violators of the policies to ensure maximum enforcement of the policy.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Studies on smoking and the media responsiveness to check smoking effects, which is yet unresolved have compelled more attentions from researchers, media professionals as well as the policy formulators. Evidences from researches have unwrapped the degree of havoc that smoking has wrecked in the societal health system and the rate of effectiveness of the measures put in place. Allowing the continuity of this trend in the approaches to smoking, which has not yielded the desire results calls for revisiting and revitalising the major health warning against smoking, “Federal Ministry of Health has warned that smokers are liable to die young”. Aligning with the submission of McLuhan & Fiore (1967) that the medium is the message, it was necessary to study and discuss all the circumstances that warranted that the health warning be scrutinised and assessed. Based on the submissions of previous studies, this work could establish various dimensions through which the studies have linked the persistence of the menace to the gap in the structure and application of the behavioural-change health warning designed for the implementation of the domesticated policies of WHO on smoking.

The good thing about the discussions and deductions herein is that issues around the subject matter were harmonised and reviewed as empirically documented and theoretically attributed from the sources. It therefore implies that the submissions and the recommendations of this work largely depend on the correctness of the findings, proper attributions of the hypothesised variables and the appropriateness in the theoretical justifications in the studies reviewed. Despite that the empirical analyses and the submissions of the studies tend towards confirmation and reinforcement of the evidences in one another, the variance in their approaches and the perspectives of studying the subject matter could be an excuse should the gap not appropriately addressed in the conceptual positions and submission of this work.

REFERENCES

- Adebiyi, A. O., Faseru, B., Sangowawa, A. O., & Owoaje, E. T. (2010). Tobacco use amongst out of school adolescents in a Local Government Area in Nigeria. *Substance abuse treatment, prevention, and policy*, 5(1), 1-5.
- Adelakun, L., & Adnan, H. (2017). *Between Ebola epidemics and Boko-Haram insurgency: Media agenda transition interplay*. Paper presented at the SHS Web of Conferences.
- Adelakun, L. A. (2017). *Newspaper framing of 2014 ebola outbreak in Nigeria: Assessing the nexus between audience perceptions and message influence/Adelakun Lateef Adekunle*. University of Malaya.
- Adelakun, L. A., & Adnan, H. M. (2016). Communicating health: Media framing of Ebola outbreak in Nigerian newspapers. *Jurnal Komunikasi: Malaysian Journal of Communication*, 32(2).
- Adelakun, L. A., (2019). Prioritising news angles through framing patterns: Lessons from newspaper report of 2014 Ebola outbreak. *Nassarawa Journal of Multimedia and Communication Studies*, 1(3).
- Adeloye, D., Auta, A., Fawibe, A., Gadanya, M., Ezeigwe, N., Mpazanje, R. G., . . . Harhay, M. O. (2019). Current prevalence pattern of tobacco smoking in Nigeria: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC public health*, 19(1), 1-14.
- Agaku, I., Akinyele, A., & Oluwafemi, A. (2012). Tobacco control in Nigeria-policy recommendations. *Tobacco Induced Diseases*, 10(1), 1-4.
- Ayodele, A. (2017). The Felicity and Discursive Structure of Warnings on Tobacco Advertisement in Nigeria. *Journal of Pan African Studies*, 11(1), 184-200.
- Barendregt, J. J., Bonneux, L., & van der Maas, P. J. (1997). The health care costs of smoking. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 337(15), 1052-1057.
- Chaloupka, F. J., & Warner, K. E. (2000). The economics of smoking. *Handbook of health economics*, 1, 1539-1627.
- Chattopadhyay, T., Dutta, R. N., & Sivani, S. (2010). Media mix elements affecting brand equity: A study of the Indian passenger car market. *IIMB Management Review*, 22(4), 173-185.
- Egbe, C. O., Petersen, I., & Meyer-Weitz, A. (2016). Knowledge of the negative effects of cigarette smoking on health and well-being among southern Nigerian youth. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 6(3), 184.
- Fairweather, R. F. (1954). Smoking and Cancer. *British Medical Journal*, 2(4879), 100.

- Garrett, L. (2020). COVID-19: the medium is the message. *The lancet*, 395(10228), 942-943.
- Health, U. D. o., & Services, H. (2004). The health consequences of smoking: a report of the Surgeon General: US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease Control and
- Health, U. D. o., & Services, H. (2014). The health consequences of smoking—50 years of progress: a report of the Surgeon General: Atlanta, GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, Centers for Disease
- McLuhan, M., & Fiore, Q. (1967). The medium is the message. *New York*, 123, 126-128.
- Nwakego, O. A., & Arisa, O. N. (2018). Awareness and Response of Smokers to Anti Smoking Campains on Cigarette Packs: A Study of Commercial Bus Drivers in South East Nigeria. *International Affairs and Global Strategy*, 63.
- Ogbogbo, O. G., & Adjekukor, J. A. (2020). An assessment of factors responsible for smoking among individuals. *Innovative Journal of Science (ISSN: 2714-3309)*, 2(2), 32-41.
- Okolo, A. N., & Aniuga, C. (2015). Cigarette smoking and knowledge of health implication campaign on cigarette packs among undergraduate students of Michael Okpara University of Agriculture, Umudike. *Communication Panorama African and Global Perspectives*, 1(2).
- Oladepo, O., Oluwasanu, M., & Abiona, O. (2018). Analysis of tobacco control policies in Nigeria: historical development and application of multi-sectoral action. *BMC public health*, 18(1), 1-12.
- Olukayode, A. (2013). Cigarette pack labeling practices in Nigeria: Implications for policy recommendations. *Journal of Behavioral Health*, 2(4), 353-356.
- Pentz, M. A., Brannon, B. R., Charlin, V. L., Barrett, E. J., MacKinnon, D. P., & Flay, B. R. (1989). The power of policy: the relationship of smoking policy to adolescent smoking. *American Journal of Public Health*, 79(7), 857-862.
- Peter, O. A., Joshua, E. F., & Daughter, O. A. (2017). Smoking Pattern, Reasons, Effects and Other Correlates of Smoking in Yenagoa Council Area of Bayelsa State. *Age*, 18(30), 463.
- Peto, R., Lopez, A. D., Boreham, J., Thun, M., Heath Jr, C., & Doll, R. (1996). Mortality from smoking worldwide. *British medical bulletin*, 52(1), 12-21.
- Sloan, F. A., Ostermann, J., Conover, C., Taylor Jr, D. H., & Picone, G. (2004). *The price of smoking*: MIT press.

- Tomkins, S. S. (1966). Psychological model for smoking behavior. *American Journal of Public Health and the Nations Health*, 56(12_Suppl), 17-20.
- Uzondu, C. N., & Uzondu, A. L. (2010). The psychopharmacological effects of psychotropic drugs on human health and behaviour. *An Interdisciplinary Journal of Communication Studies*(12), 296-307.
- Wakefield, M., Flay, B., Nichter, M., & Giovino, G. (2003). Effects of anti-smoking advertising on youth smoking: a review. *Journal of health communication*, 8(3), 229-247.
- Yanbaeva, D. G., Dentener, M. A., Creutzberg, E. C., Wesseling, G., & Wouters, E. F. (2007). Systemic effects of smoking. *Chest*, 131(5), 1557-1566.

Influence of WhatsApp Status Advertising on Consumer Buying Behaviour

Semiu KAZEEM¹, Azeez O. SANNI² and Kazeem A. SAHID³

¹Department of Mass Communication
Moshood Abiola Polytechnic, Ojere

²Department of Mass Communication
Fountain University, Osogbo, Osun State
Email: segunveteran@gmail.com

&

³Department of Mass Communication
Adeleke University, Ede, Osun State
Email: sahidabiola@adelekeuniversity.edu.ng

Abstract

This study, on the influence of WhatsApp status advertising on consumer buying behaviour reveals that one of the most effective media of advertising which influence buying behaviour is online advertising. WhatsApp advertising offers increased awareness of products and easy method to distribute information, advanced methods of targeting consumers, an immediate and direct line to the customers, and reduces the costs of performing these tasks. The objectives of the study are: to examine the usage of WhatsApp among Abeokuta South residents, to find out the frequency of use of WhatsApp Status by residents of Abeokuta South Local Government, and also to know the perception of consumers towards WhatsApp Status Advertising. Social Marketing theory was considered as relevant to this study, while the research utilized data obtained from survey conducted on social media users among residents of Abeokuta. The study concludes that residents of Abeokuta have embraced buying product advertised on WhatsApp status which is motivated by after sales services, low cost of accessing information and good customer services. It was also discovered that most of the respondents are optimistic that WhatsApp status advertising may override advertising on other platforms.

Keywords: Buying Behaviour, Online Advertising, WhatsApp Status, Influence

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Consumers today are progressively utilizing technology and particularly Social Media as an effective tool in their online shopping process. This process can be defined as an electronic process that allows consumers to deal with business people and meet their purchases' needs. Social Media have played important role in spreading this phenomenon faster (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2010). Interacting with consumers on Social Media may result in increasing potential consumers and the

probability of turning potential consumers into real shoppers. In addition to changing existing potential consumers into buyers, social media encourage those buyers to promote and share their purchases experience among their friends by giving their positive or negative opinions towards a purchased product (Parson, 2013).

Online shopping is growing everywhere and different categories of consumers are influenced by this phenomenon. For instance, the world has 1.92 billion online buyers as the percentage of online buyers is increasing in India, China, Japan and Australia for about 88%, 87% (North Asia and Europe), 85% (North America), 83% (South and Latin America) and 58% (Africa and Pakistan) (Review42, 2020). The overall online purchasing process has enabled 875 million consumers to boost the percentage of other online shoppers to 40% in the recent two years due to the recommendations posted in different social about products. For instance, 72% of women, shop online, 61% of online users go for fashion shopping, and retail e-commerce across the world stood at \$3.53 trillion. It is estimated, also, that by 2040, 95% of all purchases would be online. (Review42, 2020)

The internet, as a communication medium, has broadened the scope of marketing communications considering the number of people who can be easily reached including the locations where they are reached, for example, from desktops to mobile smart phones. It has also increased the richness of marketing communications by combining text, video, and audio content into rich messages. Thus, the web is arguably richer as a medium than some traditional mediums such as the television because of the complexity of messages available, the enormous content accessible on a wide range of subjects and the ability of users to interactively control the experience (Laudon and Traver 2013).

Furthermore, the Internet has succeeded in expanding the information intensity of the market place immensely by providing marketers and customers with well detailed real-time information about consumers as they transact in the market. Consumers are much more available to receive marketing messages due to the “always-on” environment created by mobile devices which results to an extraordinary increase in marketing opportunities for firms (Laudon and Traver 2013).

WhatsApp, unlike other social media platform, has a unique feature which is its personal nature as it requires having users to have mobile contact of each other before they can connect with each other. This implies that for one to connect with any user of the WhatsApp messaging application,

must have the mobile number of such person. Also, to have access to an individual status on the WhatsApp messaging app, one must have such person's mobile number saved on one's phone. This personal feature makes it a trusted medium of communication as users can easily know each other on a personal level. This therefore necessitates the need to carry out this research.

Statement of the Problem

The Nigerian advertising sector is one of the fastest growing sectors in south west Nigeria. However, currently, the Nigerian advertising environment is facing many challenges, the major one being the lack of an advertising model and structure (Salaudeen, 2018).

Generally, advertising aims at reaching a wide range of audience because the higher the audience reached, the greater the chances of getting the right audience to your product, however the cost. The trend of WhatsApp status advertising is on the increase today. Many entrepreneurs are leveraging on the interpersonal nature of WhatsApp to advertise their enterprise to the target audience.

However, despite the effectiveness of this medium in reaching target audience, several problems still persist among which are challenges of getting the right messages to the target audience, growing audience engagement and getting audience to share your messages so as to have a wider reach. Primarily, only few hundreds of people who have number of advertiser can have access to the product advertised thereby affecting the scope of advertisement from heterogeneous to close groups of acquaintances, friends and customers.

These and many other challenges have necessitated the need to carry out a study on this phenomenon. The study is predicated on the gaps inherent in the inadequacy of other platforms and the contribution of WhatsApp to the platforms already in use before its advent.

This study is formulated on the following objectives:

1. To examine the usage of WhatsApp among Abeokuta South Local Government residents.
2. To know the perception of consumers towards WhatsApp Status Advertising.
3. Examine the influence of WhatsApp Status Advertising on buying decisions and purchasing pattern of consumer.

The following research questions provide guide this study

1. Do residents of Abeokuta South Local Government use WhatsApp?
2. What is the perception of consumers towards WhatsApp Status advertising?
3. What is the influence of WhatsApp Status Advertising on consumers buying pattern and decision making?

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Traditional advertising in Nigeria took the form of hawking, word-of-mouth, and the engagement of dance drama. The Town Crier was also the traditional ‘broadcaster’, ‘spot announcer’, political advertising channel for the traditional rulers, and the salesman. “The Town crier was the news reporter, correspondent, news agent, messenger, spokesperson, envoy, contact person, courier, postman, and broadcaster” (Olatunji, 2012, p. 230).

Indigenous advertising in Africa was also very rich in the use of signs and symbols such as colours, emblems, flags and so on. Equally, dance-drama, drums, flutes, horns, and whistles were employed in the forms of advertising prevalent in different societies at the time. This constituted entertainment that was aligned with the cultures of the people and used to gain attention, and to sell goods, services and ideas to the people. As a result, it can be argued that what is now widely celebrate as edutainment, adver-tainment, or infotainment represents a re-birth of indigenous advertising techniques used earlier on in Africa (Olatunji, 2017a). Yet when considering accounts of advertising practice, it is the Westernised full agency practice that is cited.

Capitalism led to mass production of goods, urbanisation and consequently, improvement of living standards (at least for some). There was (therefore) the need for mass production of goods..., which created the need to create mass awareness” (a task that was beyond the capability of the town crier) (Olatunji, 2010, p. 30).

In Nigeria, the Royal Niger Company (RNC), later known as the United African Company (UAC), and Lever Brothers International, incorporated the first advertising agency that ever operated in Nigeria. The company was incorporated in Britain on August 13, 1928 and called West African Publicity Limited, headquartered in Lagos, Nigeria (Bel-Molokwu, 2000; Olatunji, 2003). It later became Lintas (Lever International Advertising Services) operating in the entire British West

Africa, with Nigeria as its base. Other foreign advertising agencies also held sway in the Nigerian marketing environment during the colonial era. Ogilvy, Benson and Mather (OB&M), Graham and Gills (G&G), Advertising and Marketing Services (AMS), Grant Advertising, Auger &Turne, and S. H. Benson have featured over the years (Olatunji, 2003; 2005; 2010; 2013 & 2017).

No sooner had professionals taken over the advertising industry in Nigeria, than the Association of Advertising Practitioners of Nigeria (AAPN) was established in 1973. It was later rebranded as Association of Advertising Agencies of Nigeria (AAAN). There are others whose contributions to the development of the industry in Nigeria were critical. A few of them are Outdoor Advertising Agencies of Nigeria (OAAN), Media Independents Association of Nigeria (MIPAN), Advertisers' Association of Nigeria (ADVAN), Independent Television Producers Association of Nigeria (ITPAN), Association of Voice over Artistes (AVOA), and the association for models. Also on the media side are the Newspapers' Proprietors Association of Nigeria (NPAN) and Broadcasting Organisation of Nigeria (BON). (Olatunji, 2018)

The role of regulatory agencies in Nigerian advertising must be mentioned in view of their contributions towards a standardised practice of advertising. More importantly, they were established to protect consumers of advertising against unwholesome practices. These include bodies with broader remits than advertising practice like the Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC), Nigerian Broadcasting Commission (NBC), Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN), Consumer Protection Council (CPC), and National Agency for Foods, Drugs Administration and Control (NAFDAC). Many of these were established much later in the history of Nigeria's advertising. Advertising Practitioners' Council of Nigeria (APCON) was that agency with monitoring duties exclusive to advertising practice. It was established through the APCON Act 55 of 1988, with amendments in subsequent years. APCON's mandate is to regulate and control the practice of advertising in all aspects and ramifications. (Olatunji, 2018).

Social media marketing otherwise known as internet advertising stems from the innovative application of the social media – online technologies that enable the creation and distribution of contents for promotional purpose. Dury (2008) and Alharbie (2015) attributes this change in marketing strategy, especially in the past few years, to the desire of marketers to explore the new opportunities presented by the social media. The advent of social media has drastically changed the business landscape and evened out the level playing field of marketing. While it previously

required much effort and capital to create and implement marketing strategies, the platforms of social media have broken boundaries to provide a more efficient, yet cheaper form of engaging the customers (Alharbie, 2015).

According to (Khan and Jan 2017), social media marketing is the new marketing strategy which almost every business is adopting to reach their audiences on the virtual networks.(Terfa, Alu, Tarnong and Ogbu 2013) captured the evolution of social media marketing when they submitted that „the impact of social media in global marketing cannot be underestimated.“ They further said that the deregulation policies initiated by various government administrations in the country have opened the door for more competition in Nigeria markets globally. Coupled with the mainstreaming of ICTs (Information and Communication Technologies, Nigerian marketers no longer rely solely on traditional media of mass communication for the promotion of marketing activities alone.

WhatsApp Status is a feature from WhatsApp Messenger application that was launched on February 24, 2017, where users of this application can share text, photos, videos and animated GIFs that will disappear within 24 hours (WhatsApp, 2018). WhatsApp Status allows users to share content not only for individuals or groups but for each contact that saves user numbers in their respective address book (WhatsApp, 2018). WhatsApp Messenger itself is a chat application in the form of Mobile Instant Messaging (MIM) that provides text, images, location, video, and audio messaging services as well as video and audio calls using smartphones based on Android, Blackberry, iOS, Symbian (s60), and Windows Phone (Sahu, 2014).

WhatsApp Status allows WhatsApp users to share content to anyone who saves mobile phone numbers between users so it implies that between WhatsApp Status users are those who know each other. Content on WhatsApp Status is not intended for certain users or groups, and users can choose whether or not to view content.

The following are features of WhatsApp status advertising as identified by Arif (2019): Interactivity, which is a condition where there are two or more parties who can communicate about the messages conveyed in more or less the same time through a media (Liu & Shrum, 2002). Interactivity is an added value of digital media compared to traditional media where this is possible due to the advancement of information technology. Also, multichannel marketing, which is a marketing method using more than one marketing channel where the application of this method is

to use a single strategy on various marketing channels that aims to maximize the possibility of getting consumers. Personalization, which refers to product adjustments and purchasing experience with individual consumer tastes based on personal information and their preferences (Chellappa & Sin, 2005). The use of personalization can increase response rates, but it is necessary to understand the characteristics of attitudes and behaviour of each audience towards the digital media used.

Furthermore, mobility, which is the ability to move or move freely and easily with the presence of wireless devices such as smartphones and the availability of internet networks that allow transactions to be carried out in real time and in any location. Speed, which is related to the progress of information systems and technology that enables marketing communications to be carried out and delivered at a much faster speed than traditional media. Others are efficiency, which is something that refers to doing something right, whatever is done, is done in the most appropriate way, according to available resources; enhanced relationships, which is a matter that allows an increase in the level of a relationship while increasing customer desires for the unique characteristics found in a relationship, thus, in many situations, both sellers and consumers become more interested in conducting business transactions in a relationship and strategic implications, which are influences on the main corporate planning that arise as a result of incomprehensibility and the ability to overcome the impact of the forces and dynamics of diverse changes that can often affect business from the point of view due to technological advances.

Walters (1974: 7) defines consumer behaviour as: " ... the process whereby individuals decide whether, what, when, where, how, and from whom to purchase goods and services." Mowen (1993: 6) provides a different definition by explaining consumer behaviour as: "... the study of the buying units and the exchange processes involved in acquiring, consuming, and disposing of goods, services, experiences, and ideas". This definition focuses on buying units in an attempt to include not only the individual but also groups that purchase products or services. Consumer purchases are influenced strongly by cultural, social, personal and psychological characteristics.

Skolkay (2020) submitted that social media regulatory and ethical consideration is necessary to forestall abuse and unwholesome practices by users as there are numerous instances of online shoppers who have to deal with buying goods online that do not resonate with their expectations or the claims propositioned by the brand ads on social media.

He also argues that there are cases where users due to the open-access nature of social media overtly sexualize products to attract attention, awareness, and conversion. These are critical areas with which the regulatory body should bring its influence to bear to institute normalcy on the practice of social media advertising. He went further to recommend that the regulatory body must intensify proper monitoring of social media advertising in Nigeria.

Relevant Literatures Review/ Findings

The Influence of Whatsapp Advertisement on Purchase Decision To Increase Sales of Local Culinary Products In Covid-19 Pandemic Period Gusti Noorlitaria Achmad1), Doddy Adhimursandi2), Rahmawati3

This study examined the Influence of Online Advertisements Via WhatsApp consisting of attitude towards the ad, ad recall and click through rates, against the decision of the purchase for the increased sales of Local Culinary Products. The purpose of this research was to describe the activity of young culinary entrepreneurs in social media that is WhatsApp the current phenomenon of increased numbers of their accounts as well as how much influence the activity of the young culinary entrepreneurs on WhatsApp can increase sales of local culinary products. With the right marketing activities on WhatsApp can be beneficial against purchasing decisions so that it will enhance local culinary products sales. This research use questionnaire as a research instrument to get the data from the consumer Culinary. In this study the respondent's criteria are that respondents must be followers, and never eat the product by the number of samples planned is 100 people. Analysis tools that will be used Multiple Linear Regression is to test the influence of the dependent and independent variables. The results of the data processing have been done the third factor i.e. attitude towards the advertisement, ad recall and click rates are through to have simultaneous and partial influence against the purchasing decision. Factor Ad Recall is the most dominant factor and Factor Click through Rates is the factor that has the most influence diminished purchasing decisions

Effects of Social Media on Consumer Brand Awareness and Patronage of Nike Lake Resort Services in Enugu: An Innovation Adoption Theory & Hierarchy of Effects Model Exposition. Ikpo Kobi P., Okolo Victor O. and Oranusi Ifeanyichukwu N.

Communication has initiated a paradigm shift from the traditional to new the new social media. This study investigated the influence of Twitter messages and Facebook messages on consumer brand awareness and patronage of Nike Lake Resort services in Enugu: an innovation adoption theory & hierarchy of effects model exposition. The specific objectives of the study were to ascertain the extent of the influence of Twitter messages on consumer brand awareness and patronage of Nike Lake Resort services. Also, to determine the extent of the influence of Facebook messages on consumer brand awareness and patronage of Nike Lake Resort services. This study contributed to the extant gap in marketing literature by using Twitter messages and Facebook messages to promote Nike Lake Resort services in Enugu. The population of the study includes guests of Nike Lake Resort selected through a convenient sampling technique. The survey method was adopted and the sample size of 384 was determined using Freud and William's formula known as the Z-score method. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability of the instrument of 0.870. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to analyse data. Findings revealed a significant positive influence of Twitter messages on consumer brand awareness and patronage of Nike Lake Resort services ($r = 0.937, p < 0.05$). Also, it was revealed that there is a significant positive influence of Facebook messages on consumer brand awareness and patronage of Nike Lake Resort services ($r = 0.943, p < 0.05$). Twitter messages and Facebook messages are effective marketing tools for communicating Nike Lake Resort services to consumers. There is need for Nike Lake Resort to continuously improve on the use of Twitter messages and Facebook messages channels to help boost consumer awareness and patronage in future.

Whatsapp Status Advertising within Social Marketing Theory

Social marketing has the primary goal of achieving "common good". Traditional commercial marketing aims are primarily financial, though they can have positive social effects as well. In the context of public health, social marketing would promote general health, raise awareness and induce changes in behaviour. Social marketing has been a large industry for some time now [when?] and was originally done with newspapers and billboards, but similar to commercial marketing has adapted to the modern world. The most common use of social marketing in today's society is through social media.

However, to see social marketing as only the use of standard commercial marketing practices to achieve non-commercial goals is an oversimplified view. Social marketing seeks to develop and

integrate marketing concepts with other approaches to social change. Social marketing aims to influence behaviours that benefit (or "impact") individuals and communities for the greater social good. The goal is to deliver competition-sensitive and segmented social change programs that are effective, efficient, equitable and sustainable.

Increasingly, social marketing is described as having "two parents." The "social parent" uses social science and social policy approaches. The "marketing parent" uses commercial and public sector marketing approaches. Recent years have also witnessed a broader focus. Social marketing now goes beyond influencing individual behaviour. It promotes socio-cultural and structural change relevant to social issues. Consequently, social marketing scholars are beginning to advocate for a broader definition of social marketing: "social marketing is the application of marketing principles to enable individual and collective ideas and actions in the pursuit of effective, efficient, equitable, fair and sustained social transformation". The new emphasis gives equal weight to the effects (efficiency and effectiveness) and the process (equity, fairness and sustainability) of social marketing programs. Together with a new social marketing definition that focuses on social transformation, there is also an argument that "a systems approach is needed if social marketing is to address the increasingly complex and dynamic social issues facing contemporary societies"

Social marketing (SM) literature stresses the importance of a strong theoretical foundation for successful communication and campaign building. SM theories accumulate massive amounts of evidence about human behaviour and how to change it, however, only a small percentage of SM campaigns advocating changes in behaviour such as quitting smoking, losing weight, and avoiding texting while driving currently rely on findings from previous research, theories or models. Argument for the practicality and usefulness of theory at all the stages of SM campaign development, the method relies on mapping past research, SM theory literature and practical illustrations onto the recommended components of the effective SM campaign. why this theory is important and discuss how the appropriate theory for a given SM context and audience can guide in setting communication and campaign objectives, segmentation and targeting, and Product, Price, Promotion, and Place strategies

Social marketing, in general, is the application of marketing principles to the promotion of socially beneficial goods. These goods might be ideas, causes, behaviours, or perhaps specific services. Implicit in the concept of social marketing is the assumption that an exchange process between the

producer and the consumer is facilitated by the provision of knowledge and product availability. Ideally, the exchange benefits the consumer and producer on a basis such that both obtain an acceptable level of satisfaction.

The theory is relevant to this study in the area of using dynamic social platform for the purpose of presenting goods and services to prospective customers. This assumption of the theory flows in line with the usage of the social application WhatsApp, to drive sales through direct advertisement process.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

Survey method was used for this study. This involved drawing up a set of questions on various aspects of the subject in a questionnaire which was administered to the sample. The population for this study comprises the social media users Abeokuta South Local Government. According to the National Population Commission figures, as posted on the website, the total population of Abeokuta South Local Government is 250, 278. The population of the study was derived from the population of the area based on the 2006 Census figures and the 6% projection of annual growth. The 2006 population figure of the local government was 213, 017. The study adopted the Taro Yamane formula for selecting sample from a population. 213 (two hundred and thirteen) sample size was derived. Questionnaires were used in gathering data for this study. It was structured in such a way that it is understandable to the respondents who were conveniently sampled. Descriptive statistical method of data analysis was adopted. Consequently, the statistical approaches that was employed in the research for the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data are frequency table and simple percentages.

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

The 200 questionnaires designed and administered for this study were all filled and returned. This means that the study has 100 percent return rate.

Research Question One: Do residents of Abeokuta South Local Government use Whatsapp?

Table 1: Usage of WhatsApp by Respondents

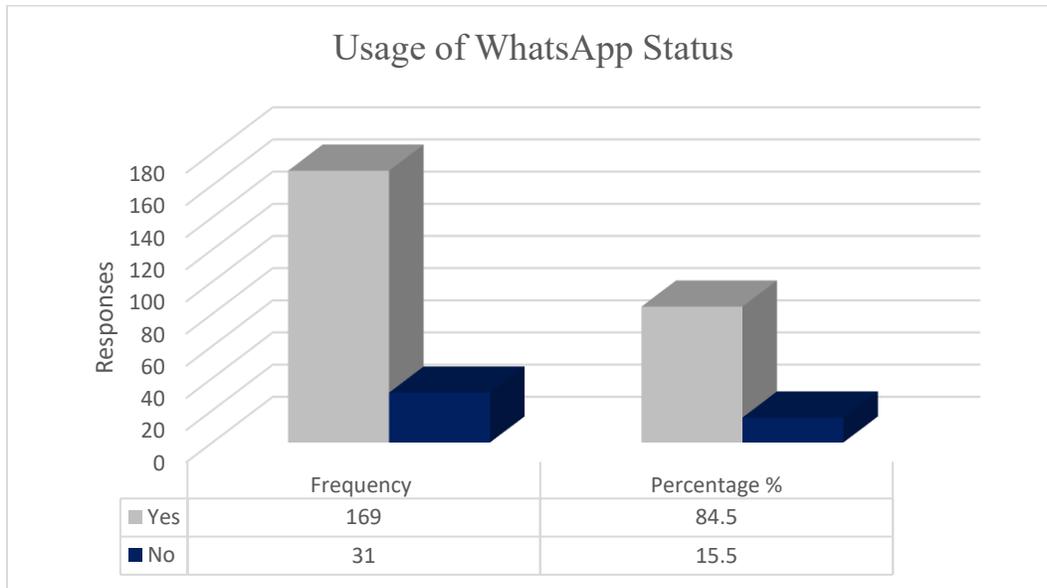
Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	200	100
No	0	0

Total	200	100
-------	-----	-----

Source: Field Survey, 2020

From the table above, it is evident that all the respondents claim to be using WhatsApp application. This shows 100% usage of WhatsApp social application by the respondents.

Research Question Two:



Source: Field Survey, 2020

From the figure above (84.5%) respondents claim to be using WhatsApp status function on WhatsApp. This means that majority of the respondents use the status function of the social media application.

Research Question Two: What is the perception of Residents of Abeokuta South Local Government about WhatsApp Status Advertising?

Respondents' Perception about WhatsApp status advertising?

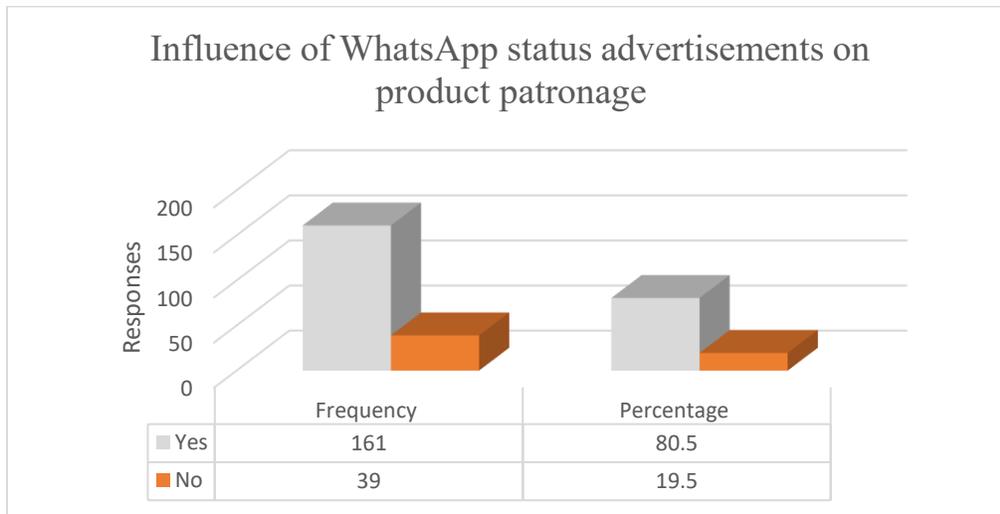
Response	Percentage	
Very High	80	40
High	59	29.5
Neutral	39	19.5
Low	13	6.5
Very Low	9	4.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

From the table above, it shows that majority of the respondents rates WhatsApp Status Advertising high. Of great concern and attention are the respondents that claimed that they are indifferent or don't use see the application as important. They constitute just 30.5% This shows that majority of the respondents like and use the function on whatsApp.

Research Question Three: What is the influence of WhatsApp Status Advertising on consumers buying pattern and decision making?

Influence of WhatsApp status advertisements on product patronage



Source: Field Survey, 2020

From the figure above, majority of the respondents for this study (80.5%) claimed that they are influenced by the advertisements on WhatsApp status to patronize the products so advertised. This signifies the effectiveness of WhatsApp status advertising in the choice of products to buy by users.

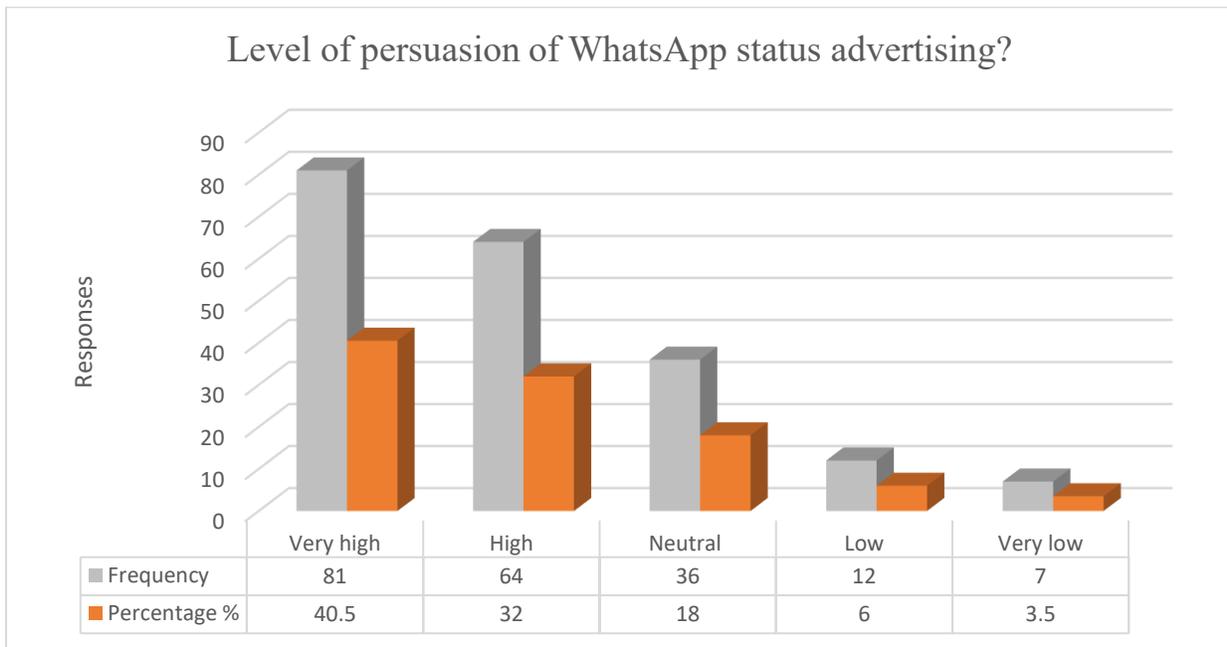
Influence of WhatsApp Status Advertising on purchase pattern and buying behaviour.

Response	Frequency	Percentage %
Agreed	72	36
Strongly Agree	67	33.5
Neutral	32	16
Disagree	22	11
Strongly disagree	7	3.5
Total	200	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Table above shows that 69.5% of the respondents submitted that WhatsApp status advertising affects their purchasing pattern of products and services. Meanwhile, 14.5% respondents, combined, disagreed that WhatsApp status has influenced their purchase pattern and buying behaviour.

Level of persuasion of WhatsApp status advertising?



Source: Field Survey, 2020

The above table shows that 72.5% of the respondents are of the conviction that they have been persuaded by WhatsApp status advertising. This implies that majority of the respondents think that the persuasion power of WhatsApp status advertising is high.

Discussion of Findings

This study found out that many people are drifting and adopting social media to gratify their need. Olatunji (2017) also found a similar pattern. In his study, he discovered that online media advertising is gaining momentum and almost everybody is keying into the drift. This is in tandem with the findings of this study.

Also, as found out in this study, that WhatsApp status advertising has influence on the buying behaviour and pattern of users, this is interesting and instructive, as Chellapa and Sin (2015) also corroborated this finding. In their work, *Influence of Facebook on Buying Habit of Consumers*, they found out that the Facebook has influence on buying pattern of users.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research work provides an investigation on the influence of WhatsApp status advertising on consumer buying behaviour and it reveals that one of the most effective media of advertising which influence buying behaviour is online advertising. WhatsApp advertising offers increased awareness of products and easy method to distribute information, advanced methods of targeting consumers, an immediate and direct line to the customers, and reduced costs in performing these tasks. The research utilized results from questionnaire surveys administered to residents of Abeokuta. The study showed that residents of Abeokuta have embraced buying product advertised on WhatsApp status which is motivated by after sales services, low cost of accessing information and good customer services. It was also discovered that most of the respondents are optimistic that WhatsApp status advertising may override advertising on other platforms.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made for future consideration.

Online marketers (Prospective and existing) should embark on training, self-study and workshops so as to improve their technical knowhow of marketing on the social media. This will enhance their overall efficiency and possibly measure them with their counterparts in other nations of the world. Also, literacy ICT knowledge should be encouraged through robust policies by the government of the day in Nigeria, as well as the involvement of well-meaning individuals, humanitarian organisations and other multinationals while customers should be more careful when it comes to entering into online transactions. Only authentic online marketers should be patronized.

REFERENCES

Alharbie, A. (2015). Business growth thru social media marketing. *International Journal of Innovation and Applied Studies*, 13(4), 873.

- Drury, G. (2008). Opinion piece: Social media: Should marketers engage and how can it be done effectively? *Journal of direct, data and digital marketing practice*, 9(3), 274-277.
- Ekweme, A. C., & Okoro, N. (2018). Analysis of the Use of Social Media Advertising Among Selected Online Business in Nigeria. *European Journal of International Relations, Media and Communication Studies* Vol. 4 (2) Pp 28-43
- Khan, M. & Jan, A. (2017) Social media and social media marketing. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 17, Issue 11 Pp 12-15
- Kotler, P. & Armstrong, G. (2001). Principles of Marketing (Ninth Edition). New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc
- Laudon, K. and Traver, C. (2013) E-commerce 2013, 9th Edition, New York University, Azimuth Interactive, New York University
- Okon A. (2018). Ogilvy makes a debut in Nigeria. The Punch newspaper, Friday Sept 28 2018, p 32
- Olatunji (2016). Managing measurement and evaluation in public relations practice and its relevance for Nigeria's reputational value chain. Guest Lecture at Annual Conference of Directors and Heads of Public Relations in Nigeria, with the theme: "Making Enduring Change for National Reputation and Professionalism", Organized by Nigerian Institute of Public Relations (NIPR), at Academy Inn, Ogba, Lagos, Nigeria, on 26th October, 2016.
- Olatunji R. W. (2010) Advertising, economy and societies in Africa: The Nigerian perspective. Saarbrucken, Germany: VDM Verlag
- Olatunji, R. W. & Thanny, N. T. (2011). Youth culture and new media: A study of telecommunications advertisements in Nigeria. *Journal of Development Communication*, p.14-28
- Olatunji, R. W. (2005). Marketing communication in an inter-connected world opportunities and challenges in the advertising industry in Nigeria. In Demoranville, C. (Ed) Marketing in an inter-connected world: Opportunities and challenges VOL. XII. Miami, USA: Academy of marketing, (pp13-17).

- Olatunji, R. W. (2006). Managing advertising creativity in a deregulating economy. *Alliance Journal of Business Research*, (Spring) 2(1): 83-90.
- Olatunji, R. W. (2017b). Advertising cultures and global influences in sub-Saharan Africa- Nigerian, South African and Kenyan models. in Brennan, L Crawford, R. and Parker, L. (eds) *Glob*
- Olatunji, R.W. (2003). *The impact of the structural adjustment programme on the advertising industry in Nigeria (1986-1996)*.
- Olatunji, R.W. & Aladeyomi, S.A. (2013). Entertainment orientation of advertisements on television and social media: A study of selected brands in Nigeria's telecommunications industry. *The Nigeria Journal of Communications*, 11(1): 243-267 .
- Olatunji, R.W. (2009). Will advertising revenue hurt Nigeria's external broadcasting? *International Journal of Broadcasting and Communication Technology*, (December) (Nigeria), 2(1): 139-153.
- Olatunji, R.W. (2011). Uses of redundancy in print advertisements in Nigeria. *Journal of Promotion Management* (Taylor and Francis) 17 2): 257-272
- Olatunji, R.W. (2013). Communication and social change: A case for cause-related advertising in Nigeria. *Covenant Journal of Communication (CJOC)*, (Maiden Edition), July, 1(1): 27-42.
- Olatunji, R.W. (2017a). Advertising, advertainment and the rest of us! 63rd Inaugural Lecture of the Lagos State University. Ojo, Lagos: Lagos State University, presented on 10/10/17.
- Parsons, S. F. (2013). *Editorial. Studies in Christian Ethics*, 26(2), 133–134. doi:10.1177/0953946813487977
- Pleshette, A. (2020). Advantages and Disadvantages of Various Advertising Mediums: <https://www.powerhomebiz.com/marketing-tips/advertising/advantages-and-disadvantages-advertising-mediums.htm>
- Review42.com/resources/online-shopping. Retrieved August 20, 2020

Salaudeen, K. (2018) Relating with Advertising Environment of South-West Nigeria by Private Universities, *FUO Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol-6, Osun

Skolkay, Andrej. (2020). Social Media Regulation from the Perspectives of National Media Regulatory Authorities in V4. 188-215.

Williams, R. (2010). What is Social Media Marketing. Retrieved October 29, 2018, from <http://orangejack.com/media/what-is-social-mediemarketing.pdf>

Office Manager's Competencies, Ethical Conduct and Organizational Growth of Selected Organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State

Tolulope E. ADENEKAN and Kofoworola O. POPOOLA

Department of Information Management
Faculty of Communication and Information Sciences
Lead City University, Ibadan, Nigeria
Email: kofoworolaolabode@yahoo.com

Abstract

Some organizations get into moribund as a result of lack of growth which could stem from the managers, due to poor ethical conduct and lack of competent skills. The study examined office manager's competencies, ethical conduct and organizational growth of selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State. Descriptive survey research design was adopted in the study. The participants were 43 office managers which included (male = 32, female = 11) who were randomly selected using convenient sampling technique. Questionnaire was the instrument that was used in data collection. Descriptive statistics of frequency counts and simple percentages, mean and standard deviations and Inferential statistics of Pearson's Product Moment Correlation and multiple regression were used to analyze the data at 0.05 level of significance. The result revealed that good relationship with customers, problem solving skill, high supervisory skill, high monitoring of task, equal treatment to all staff, result oriented skill were the competency skills possessed by office managers. Also, regard/attendance to work, punctuality, corruption free, no conflict among staff, alcohol free on duty and honesty were the ethical behaviours/conduct exhibited by office managers that influence organizational growth. Positive significant relationship was found between competencies and organizational growth ($r = 0.210$; $p < 0.05$) and ethical conduct and organizational growth ($r = 0.331$ $p < 0.05$). It was also revealed that competencies and ethical conduct jointly contributed 25.2% to the prediction of organizational growth. It was recommended that more ethics training should be given to employees in order to strengthen their ethical framework. More resources should be devoted to ethics training programs as this would help staff to clarify their ethical frameworks and practice self-discipline when making ethical decisions in tough circumstance within the organizations.

Keywords: Competencies, Ethical conduct, Organizational growth, Office managers,

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Overtime, organizations are concerned about their growth and development as this makes them to survive in the very dynamic business environment. Most organization's objective, either big or small is to progress. Small organizations desire to be big while large organizations want to get bigger. In order to sustain organizational life and continuous growth, organizations face many changes and pressures in today's world. They get the desired results if the organizations put

innovation into their growth processes and accommodate the efficient changes. Organizational growth is a process by which the structure of a multi-agent system increases the number of its roles and connections. In other words, organizational growth is the growing progress and an ongoing improvement of asset of an organization (Adeyeye, Aina & Ige, 2012). Every organization desires to succeed and grow her investments and all employees, especially office managers, are to work towards actualizing the organizational set goals. Office manager is someone who is responsible for organizing all of the administrative, financial and managerial activities that facilitate the smooth running of an office. An office manager is responsible for keeping an office running smoothly and overseeing administrative support which could enhance organizational growth. He/she should be able to hire and fire employees, as well as resolving disputes or any other issues that may come up among employees.

However, organizational growth means different things for various organizations. Indeed, organizations can select several parameters to measure their progress. The most important indicator is one that indicates success with respect to the specified objectives of an organization. Profit is the ultimate objective of most organizations, so net profit, sales, and other financial data are often used as 'bottom-line' indicators of progress. However, to judge organizational growth, other organizations can use sales figures, number of employees, physical expansion, or other metrics. For organization to grow, it depends on the competency and the ethical behaviour being displayed by office managers and other employees (Koufteros, Nahm, Cheng & Lai, 2007).

Competencies are skills that are vital for success at work and in life. Competencies are considered to be an observable performance, the expectations or consistency of the result of the performance of the person and the fundamental characteristics of a person (Lee & Salleh, 2009).

These skills include teamwork, communication, problem solving skill, decision making, trustworthiness among others. The acquisition of technical skills is therefore a vital task in any organization (Puteh, Kaliannan & Alam, 2016). In measurable and recognizable behaviour patterns, linked to work success, these characteristics are exposed and typically include expertise, skills and skills that would consequently boost organizational development. Competencies are defined as being capable of performing a job role to a defined standard with regard to actual working environments (Zaim, Yasar & Unal, 2015). Competencies could be classified in two major aspects which include task or job-based and personal competencies. Personal competencies are seen as an observable performance, the norms or consistency of the outcome of the

performance of the individual and the underlying characteristics of a person.” A knowledgeable employee is a professional individual whose qualities can be assessed and measured internally and externally in a variety of observable ways, such as productivity (Jabar, Sidi, Selamat, Ghani, Ibrahim & Baharom, 2010). Many organizations have implemented skill-based training to enhance the performance of office managers and other workers and evaluate their employees against pre-defined expectations (Maimunah, 2011). This is because enhancement of the skills of office managers and workers has also been shown to generate substantial organizational growth in terms of financial aspects, namely organizational income or sales and efficiency, and while competency has led to an improvement in employee engagement and career advancement in terms of non-financial aspects (Jabar, Sidi, Selamat, Ghani, Ibrahim & Baharom, 2010; Asree, Zain & Razalli, 2010). Competencies increase the employability of individuals and also enhance their productivity which increases the growth of such organization.

In every job organization, ethical conduct and the prevailing system of employment relations are very important for the general development and growth of each organization. In other words, the way and manner organizations observe ethical standards clearly determines the well-being of all stakeholders, the productivity of the organization and subsequent profitability, as well as organizational growth and development (Saeed, Shakeel & Lodhi, 2013). Ethics is the systematic study of the basic concept of moral law or the ethical science of human action (Aniele, 2014). Ethical behaviour involves behaving in ways that are compatible with one's own beliefs and the organization's widely held values. Ethical behaviour refers to the basic principles of right and wrong; behaviour is dependable with those principles (Adeniji, Osinbanjo & Oludayo, 2015). Some of the ethical conduct that are acceptable in every organization include; reporting early to work, good communication, honesty, descent dressing, respect for colleagues among others. Moral principles that are the focus of ethics are about how office managers can act in terms of their job and team commitment; honesty and self-discipline that will, in turn, improve organizational development. Ethical conduct in organizations is essential because business can become disreputable, and there are enormous evidences that depict unethical organizational practices that could inhibit its growth (Saeed, Shakeel & Lodhi, 2013). In spite of the demands and compressions on any organization, it is certain to be ethical by virtue of its nature, for one or two reasons: because whatever the organization does affects its stakeholders, and because every moment of action has paths of ethical as well as unethical paths through which the organization's existence and growth is justified by ethical changes it responsibly selects (Yatich & Musebe, 2017).

Despite the fact that studies have been done on factors that could enhance organizational growth, there are not many studies combining competencies, ethical conduct and organization growth among office managers. This is the gap to be filled in this study as it will provide empirical evidence on competencies, ethical conduct and organizational growth among office managers in organizations in Ibadan South west Local Government, Oyo State.

Statement of the Problem

Overtime, the major concern of most organizations is how to enhance their growth. Unfortunately, most of these organizations do not perform up to their expectation as a result of lack of competencies from the managers and also inability of its employees to work in line with the ethics of the organization. When this happens, the output of the organisation will be affected as its profit margin would drop drastically. The problem that could stem from this is that such organizations could go into moribund. This could lead to organizational restructuring which could breed retrenchment, sack among others. The task of determining the impact of this crucial activity on the success of such organizations is also faced by managers. Again, many office managers operate their task without a keen interest in whether their acts are right or wrong and the degree to which workers grasp the term ethics although the level of enforcement is extremely insignificant. Some office managers tend to exhibit unethical behaviours such as lying, abuse of company's work hours, verbal harassment/abuse, sexual harassment, conflict of interest, theft, kick-backing among others could imping on the growth of organization.

Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study was to investigate the Influence of office manager's competencies and ethical conduct on organizational growth of selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State. The specific objectives of the study are to establish the:

- i. joint influence of office manager's competencies and ethical conduct on organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State;
- ii. relative influence of office manager's competencies and ethical conduct on organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study were:

- i. What are the various competencies possessed by office managers that influences organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State?
- ii. What are the various ethical behaviours exhibited by office managers that influences organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State?
- iii. Is there any relationship between office manager's competencies, ethical conduct and organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State?

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Every organization is mostly concerned about its growth and development. Growth is not extemporaneous, it is a result of choices: decision to employ or not to shoot, choices to raise production in response to demand, choices to boost demand and so on. Relationships between specific decisions and ultimate expansion of the organization may be unsubstantiated, but growth necessarily depends upon some actions and decisions which must be followed. These decisions are, in turn, functions of goals pursued by office managers and other employees of the organization (Iqbal, Ahmad, Ateeq & Javaid, 2013). Thus, organizational growth will only take place if the increased size is positively related to the accomplishment of individual members of the organization's goals or objectives. This is not intended to suggest that organizations and their members make decisions that achieve desired outcomes. Organizational growth may work contrary to the interests of some, or even most, members of the organization. Growth may not be the best way to achieve goals it is intended to achieve (Soltani & Liao, 2010). On occasion, growth may be a transient exploration of an organization's environment that, proving to be unrewarding, is subsequently abandoned. The point is simply that, the growth of an organization is not a random event. Growth is often difficult to accomplish because growing organizations must deal with intra organizational stresses and overcome external forces (Iqbal, Ahmad, Ateeq & Javaid, 2013).

Competencies are skills that are expected for every office manager to possess for the growth of their organization. Main competencies, critical skills, transferable competencies, employability skills, fundamental skills or soft skills can be other words used for core competencies. They are increasingly highly regarded and desired by employers. Through basic education, such as reading and writing, acquiring the technical skills required to perform specific duties, and

professional/personal characteristics such as integrity, reliability, punctuality, engagement and loyalty, core employability skills are developed. Four broad headings categorize the skills: learning to learn, communication, teamwork and problem-solving (Brewer, 2013). A McEnrue (2014) analysis of employee capacity and job performance among 340 managers in public utility organizations revealed that the employee's perceived competence worked to moderate the relationship between clarity of position and job performance. His results indicated that the more competent executives perform their job better than their less competent counterparts, despite the role ambiguity they encounter as opposed to role clarity. Thus, competent managers have the ability to do their job better in many critical situations than those who are less competent, as this would improve organizational growth.

In another similar study conducted by Osei and Ackah (2015) on employees' competency and organizational growth in the pharmaceutical industry in Ghana, a descriptive survey research design was used with a sample size of 280 participants. The finding revealed that there was significant influence of employees' competency on organizational growth. The authors suggested that organizations should take the opportunity to enhance continuous learning in their organizations in order to develop the talents, attitude and actions of employees in order to achieve high performance potential in order to fulfill their individual tasks. Jabbouri and Zahari (2014) conducted a study on the influence of core competencies on organizational growth in private banks in Iraqi using the survey research design and the sample size comprised 200 managers. The result revealed a positive significant correlation between core competencies and organizational growth. The authors affirmed that employees should possess core competences as they are relevant in improving organizational performance. In another similar study conducted by Gorenak, Spindler and Brumen (2019) on the impact of managers' competencies on organizational growth of staff in hotel industry using the descriptive survey design and a total of 346 employees were used as sample size. The result revealed that there was a positive significant relationship between competencies and organizational growth. The authors affirmed that managers' competencies have an influence on employees' job satisfaction with regards to the work itself.

Ethical behaviour or job ethics are the agreed principles for employees' personal and social well-being, their attitudes to work, self-discipline and devotion to their tasks. Work ethics is the philosophy of actions regulating a person or a group in the workplace, which makes them comply with ethical principles, thereby affecting the level of organizational performance and the resulting

level of profitability (Cascio, 2013). In a study conducted by Adeyeye, Adeniji, Osinbajo and Oludayo (2015) on the influence of workplace ethics on employees and organizational productivity in Nigeria revealed that there was a significant relationship between ethical standards and organizational productivity, in Nigeria. Work ethics is the philosophy of actions regulating a person or a group in the workplace, which makes them comply with ethical principles, thereby affecting the level of organizational performance and the resulting level of profitability. In another similar study conducted by Yatch and Musebe (2017) on the assessment of ethical behaviour on organizational performance, the study adopted the survey research design and 151 respondents participated in the study. The result revealed that ethical behaviour had significant impact on organizational performance. In addition, the authors argued that neglect, absenteeism, poor time management, corruption, conflicts, and dishonesty were prevalent in the industry as it affected organizational growth.

In a study conducted by Kehinde (2015) on the influence of ethical behaviour on organizational performance of three service organizations in Lagos, Nigeria, the study adopted the descriptive design and the study population comprised 60 employees. The result showed that ethical behaviour had influence on organizational performance and it was obtained that a positive correlation existed between ethical behaviour and organizational performance. The authors affirmed that in their daily working lives, organization must ensure that their workers know how to deal with ethical problems. As a consequence, when ethical behaviour is consistent and constructive, when the inevitable ethical dilemmas arise, everybody can understand what is expected of him or her, as this will in turn increase organizational growth.

3. METHODOLOGY

Research Design

A descriptive survey research design was adopted to establish joint and relative influence of office manager's competencies and ethical conduct on organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South west local government, Oyo state. According to Popoola (2016), a descriptive survey describes a condition or phenomenon as it occurs naturally without altercation. It entails the systematic and scientific collection of data or information from the sample of the population, with the use of a well-structured questionnaire. This method is desirable because it is found useful in the collection of data on phenomena that cannot be directly observed.

Population

The population of the study comprised 47 office managers who were selected in 14 organizations which included banks, telecommunication companies and hotels in Ibadan Southwest Local Government. The office managers were selected for the study because they determine the growth of the organization due to the level of their competency, leadership skills and ethical standards they set for the organization.

Sample and Sampling Technique

The study sample size comprised all the 47 office managers who were selected using convenience sampling technique. This technique was used as it was not possible for the researchers to have direct access to the entire population in the fourteen organizations that were selected in Ibadan Southwest Local Government. As a result of the size of the office managers, total enumeration was used. Total enumeration technique was used so as to ensure a robust participation of all office managers in the selected organizations. This technique was adopted because the population is not too large and can easily be managed by the researcher. The use of total enumeration technique is in line with the position of Byrman (2003) rule of thumb who posits that, the use of this technique arises when the respondents for the study is not too numerous. Hence, the entire population of the office managers in the selected organizations in Ibadan Southwest Local Government was the sample size.

Instrument

Questionnaire was the instrument used in collecting data. This technique is preferred because of the literacy level of the study population is high. Questionnaire is an acceptable instrument in non-experimental studies. It is tagged “Competencies Ethical Conduct Organizational Growth Questionnaire” (CECOGQ). It consisted of open and closed item questionnaire and is made up of two segments of ‘A and B’. The A segment elicited information on the demographic characteristics of the respondents while segment B consisted of questions on competencies, ethical conduct and organizational growth. It contains 17 questionnaire items, and the response options with values assigned to competencies scale is Strongly Agree = 4 to Strongly Disagree =1, while the response format for ethical conduct is “Yes and No”. The face and content validity of the measuring instrument was done by sending the copy of a questionnaire along with the research questions to two professionals in the Department of Information Management, Lead City University, Ibadan. They scrutinized the items in terms of clarity and adequacy in addressing the

research questions. Their suggestions helped in structuring the final questionnaire that was used in this study. To test the consistency of the measuring instrument, a revalidation was carried out. The reliability of the each of the section instrument was calculated using Cronbach Alpha to ascertain the internal consistency of the measuring items. The Cronbach alpha was 0.88, which means that the internal consistency is strong enough and that the scale used is reliable.

Data Collection and Analysis

The instrument was administered to the respondents in their respective organization by the researcher with the aid of a research assistant. Respondents were given ample time to complete the items in the questionnaire as their identities were withheld. The data were analyzed using frequency counts and simple percentages, Pearson’s correlation and regression tested at 0.05 level of significance.

Results

Table 1.1: Organizations and numbers of office managers covered:

Industry	Name	No. of Office Managers	Percentage
Banking	First Bank of Nigeria Plc	7	70.2
	United Bank for Africa Plc	6	
	Guaranty Trust Bank Plc	5	
	Zenith Bank Plc	5	
	Fidelity Bank Plc	4	
	Ecobank Nigeria Plc	3	
	Access Bank Plc	3	
Total		33	
Telecommunication	MTN Nigeria	3	14.9
	Airtel Nigeria	2	
	Globacom Limited	2	
Total		7	
Hospitality	Adis Hotels	1	14.9
	La Maison Hotel and Suites	1	
	Fawzy Hotel	1	
	Link Majestic B2 Suite and Hotel	1	
	First Laurel Hotels	1	
	Akingston Flats	1	
	K-Yellow Hotel and Resorts	1	
Total		7	

The above Table 1.1 shows that 7 banks participated in this study with 33 respondents representing 70.2%; while 3 telecom companies with 7 respondents representing 14.9% and 7 hotels with 7

respondents representing 14.9% also participated in this study. It showed that the largest participates were captured from the banking industry while 7 participants were captured in other two industries respectively.

Table 1.2: Demographic Information of the Respondents

Variables		Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	32	74.4
	Female	11	25.6
Years of service	0-5	6	13.9
	6-11	15	34.9
	8-17	18	41.9
	18 and above	4	9.3

Result from Table 1.2 shows that 32(74.4%) respondents were males while 11 (25.6%) respondents were females. This means that more males participated in the study than their female counterparts. Six (13.9%) have been in service for 0-5 years, 15 (34.9%) have been in service for 6-11 years, while 18 (41.9%) have been in service for 8-17 years and the rest 4 (9.3%) have been in service for 18years and above. This means that respondents who have been in service between 8-17 years partook in the study than their other counterparts.

Research question 1: What are the various competencies possessed by office managers that influences organizations growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South west Local Government, Oyo State?

Table 1.3: Summary of various competencies possessed by office managers

SN	Items	SA	A	D	SD	\bar{x}	S.D
1	As an office manager, I communicate with customers respectfully	20 (46.5%)	20 (46.5%)	3 (7%)	-	3.39	.62
2	I supervise compliance of external and internal regulations	5 (11.6%)	32 (74.4%)	6 (14%)	-	2.97	.51
3	I monitor the results of the organizational unit	14 (32.6%)	17 (39.5%)	8 (18.6%)	4 (9.3%)	2.60	.90
4	I monitor the implementation of tasks	14 (32.6%)	22 (51.2%)	7 (16.3%)	-	2.65	.75
5	I control the quality of work performed by the employees	4 (9.3%)	20 (46.5%)	15 (34.9%)	4 (9.3%)	2.44	.79
6	I have a discriminatory attitude towards employees	4 (9.3%)	21 (48.8%)	13 (30.2%)	5 (11.6%)	2.39	.79
7	I ensure good relationship with customers	14 (32.6%)	16 (37.2%)	8 (18.6%)	5 (11.6%)	2.62	.93

8	I resolve demanding complaints professionally	11 (25.6%)	27 (62.8%)	5 (11.6%)	-	3.14	.60
9	I distribute the work of subordinates according to work load	6 (14%)	8 (18.6%)	20 (46.5%)	9 (20.9%)	2.26	.95
10	I possess the skill to resolve concrete problems that emanate in the organization	8 (18.6%)	23 (53.5%)	12 (27.9%)	-	2.90	.68

Key: SA = Strongly agree, A = Agree, D = Disagree and SD = Strongly disagree

Table 1.3 shows the various competencies possessed by office managers that influences organizations growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South west Local Government, Oyo State. The result reveals that as an office manager, I communicate with customers respectfully ($\bar{x} = 3.39$) was rated highest by the mean score rating and was followed in sequence by I resolve demanding complaints professionally ($\bar{x} = 3.14$), I supervise compliance of external and internal regulations ($\bar{x} = 2.97$), I possess the skill to resolve concrete problems that emanate in the organization ($\bar{x} = 2.90$), I monitor the implementation of tasks ($\bar{x} = 2.65$), I ensure good relationship with customers ($\bar{x} = 2.62$), I monitor the results of the organizational unit ($\bar{x} = 2.60$), I control the quality of work performed by the employees ($\bar{x} = 2.44$), I have a discriminatory attitude towards employees ($\bar{x} = 2.39$) and lastly I possess the skill to resolve concrete problems that emanate in the organization ($\bar{x} = 2.26$). It could be inferred that the major competent skills and abilities possessed by office managers that influences organizational growth included; good relationship with customers, problem solving skill, high supervisory skill, high monitoring of task, equal treatment to all staff, result oriented skill.

Research Question 2: What are the various ethical behaviours exhibited by office managers that influence growth in organizations in Ibadan South west Local Government, Oyo State?

Table 1.4: Summary of various ethical behaviours exhibited by office managers

SN	Items	Yes	No	\bar{x}	S.D
1	Regard/attendance to work	31(72.1%)	12 (27.9%)	3.06	.88
2	I report early to work	32 (74.4%)	11 (25.6)	2.25	.84
3	I settle conflicts that seem to arise among staff	37 (86%)	6 (14%)	2.53	.88
4	I am always drunk whenever I am at work	7(16.3%)	36 (83.7%)	2.79	.77
5	I am honest to every staff in my organization	35 (81.4%)	8(18.6%)	2.32	.86

6	I make sure corruption does not thrive in my organization	30 (69.8%)	13 (30.2%)	2.55	.76
7	I maintain good interpersonal relationship with my staff	28 (65.1%)	15 (34.9%)	2.74	.62

Table 2 revealed the various ethical behaviours exhibited by office managers that influence growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South west Local Government, Oyo State. The result reveals that 3.06 ($\bar{x} = 3.06$) was highly rated by the mean score rating and was followed immediately by I am always drunk whenever I am at work ($\bar{x} = 2.79$), I maintain good interpersonal relationship with my staff ($\bar{x} = 2.74$), I make sure corruption does not thrive in my organization ($\bar{x} = 2.55$), I settle conflicts that seem to arise among staff ($\bar{x} = 2.53$), I am honest to every staff in my organization ($\bar{x} = 2.32$) and lastly I report early to work ($\bar{x} = 2.25$). It could be inferred that regard/attendance to work, punctuality, corruption free, no conflict among staff, alcohol free on duty and honesty were the ethical behaviours/conduct exhibited by office managers that influence organizational growth.

Research question 3: Is there any relationship between office manager's competencies, ethical conduct and organizational growth in selected organizations in Ibadan South West Local Government, Oyo State?

Table 4: Correlation matrix showing the relationship between study variables

Variables	Mean	Std. Dev	Organizational growth	Competencies	Ethical conduct
Organization growth	30.660	13.193	1		
Competencies	39.012	10.769	.210**	1	
Ethical conduct	40.280	13.225	.331**	.221**	1

Table 4 summarises the zero-order Pearson correlation between organizational growth and other measures in the study. The results show that significant correlations were obtained between competencies and organizational growth ($r = .210$, $p < 0.05$), ethical conduct and organizational growth ($r = .331$, $p < 0.05$).

4. DISCUSSION

The result obtained from research question one revealed that the major competent skills and abilities possessed by office managers that influences organizational growth included; good relationship with customers, problem solving skill, high supervisory skill, high monitoring of task,

equal treatment to all staff, result oriented skill. This means that competencies are very germane for office managers which would consequently enhance the growth of every organization. The finding corroborates that of McEnrue (2014) who reported that the more competent executives perform their job better than their less competent counterparts, despite the role ambiguity they encounter as opposed to role clarity. Thus, competent managers have the ability to do their job better in many critical situations than those who are less competent, as this would improve organizational growth.

The result obtained from research question two showed that regard/attendance to work, punctuality, corruption free, no conflict among staff, alcohol free on duty and honesty were the ethical behaviours/conduct exhibited by office managers that influence organizational growth. This means that when all these ethical behaviours are exhibited by office managers and also enforced on the employees, it would improve the organizational growth. The finding supports that of Adeyeye, Adeniji and Oludayo (2012) who conducted a study on the influence of workplace ethics on employees and organizational productivity in Nigeria and reported that a positive significant relationship existed between ethical standards and organizational productivity, in Nigeria.

Result from research question three revealed that a significant correlation between competencies and organizational growth and also between ethical conduct and organizational growth. On the relationship that existed between competencies and organizational, the finding lends credence to that of Gorenak, Spindler and Brumen (2019) who conducted a study on the effect of competencies of managers on organizational growth of employees in hotel industry. The authors reported revealed a positive relationship between competencies and organizational growth. On the relationship that existed between ethical conduct and organizational growth, the finding goes in line with that of Kehinde (2015) who conducted a study on the influence of ethical behaviour on organizational performance in three service organizations in Lagos, Nigeria and reported that that ethical behaviour had influence on organizational performance and it was obtained that a positive correlation existed between ethical behaviour and organizational performance. The authors affirmed that in their daily working lives, organization must ensure that their workers know how to deal with ethical problems.

5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is worth stating that office managers' competencies and the way they conduct themselves in their various places of work go a long way in determining the growth of their respective organizations. It is clear that having and displaying high competencies on the part of office managers enhances organizational growth by increasing its output. Conducting oneself in the work environment also enhances organizational growth. It was found that competencies and ethical conduct have positive relationship with organizational growth. Also, competencies and ethical conduct predict organizational growth. It could be recommended that office managers should possess necessary skills and abilities such as good interpersonal relationship skill, leadership skill, problem solving skills among others. When all these skills and abilities are possessed by office managers, it would consequently have a positive effect on the organization in term of its growth. Managing directors of organizations could send office managers for training, seminars and symposiums, where they could learn more skills that would consequently increase the growth of the organizations when those skills acquired are applied in the daily affairs of the organizations. Organizations must endeavor to afford more ethics training to fortify their personal ethical framework of their employees. To help its staff illuminate their ethical frameworks and practice self-discipline when making ethical decisions in tough circumstance within the work environment, organization must devote more resources to ethics training programs. Clear and consistent message on the importance of ethical conduct/behaviours within the work environment should be followed by office managers and employees. Some organizations do send messages about market performance, competition and memos on meetings among others but they do not bother much on the organization's ethical values which if not taken into full swing could inhibit the growth of the organization.

REFERENCES

- Adeniji, J. O., Osinbanjo, A. A., & Oludayo, O. A. (2015). Effects of Workplace Ethics on Employees & Organizational Productivity in Nigeria. *Journal of Globalisation & Development Research*, 4 (7), 34-43.
- Adeyeye, J. O., Adeniji, A. A., Osinbajo, A. O., & Oludayo, O. (2015). Effects of Workplace Ethics on Employees & Organizational Productivity in Nigeria. *International Conference on African Development Issues*. (CU-ICADI).267-272.

- Adeyeye, J.O., Aina, S., & Ige, A. (2012). The Transitional Economy: Impacts & Effect on Africa Regional Growth. *European Journal of Globalisation & Development Research*, 9(1), 176-185.
- Aniele, D. (2014). *Business Ethics & Corruption*. Lagos. Tope Ogun Prinners
- Asree, S., Zain, M., & Razalli, M. R. (2010). Influence of leadership competency & organizational culture on responsiveness & performance of firms. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(4), 500–516. doi:10.1108/09596111011042712.
- Brewer, L. (2013). *Enhancing youth employability: What? Why? & How?* Guide to core work skills (Geneva, ILO). Available at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/--ed_emp/--ifp_skills/documents/publication/wcms_213452.pdf [30 Dec. 2014].
- Byrman, A. (2003). *Research methods & organization studies* 3rd ed. London: Unwin Hyman.
- Cascio, W. F. (2013). *Managing Human Resource, Productivity, Quality of Work Life, Profits*. New York. McGraw-Hill International Edition Inc.
- Gorenak, E., Spindler, C., & Brumen, T. (2019). The Influence of Competencies of Managers on Job Satisfaction of Employees in the Hotel Industry. *Organizacija*, 52 (2): 81-94
- Iqbal, N., Ahmad, N., Ateeq, M., & Javaid, K. (2013). Role of creativity on organizational growth a case study of al-ghazi tractor ltd. (agtl), Pakistan. *Arabian Journal of Business & Management Review*, 1 (9): 54-63.
- Iqbal, N., Ahmad, N., Ateeq, M., & Javaid, K. (2013). Role of innovation on organizational growth: evidences from Pakistan. *Arabian Journal of Business & Management Review* Chapter, 3 (4):20-30.
- Jabar, M. A., Sidi, F., Selamat, M. H., Ghani, A. A. A., Ibrahim, H., & Baharom, S. (2010). *Capturing Tacit Knowledge for Assessing Employees " Competency & Productivity*. In 5th Knowledge Management International Conference (KMICe), (pp. 27–31). Kuala Terengganu, Malaysia: Universiti Utara Malaysia
- Jabbouri, E., & Zahari, A. (2014). The role of core competencies on organizational performance: an empirical study in the Iraqi private banking sector. *European Scientific Journal*, 1 (3),130-139.
- Kehinde, O. J. (2015). Effects of ethical behaviour on organizational performance: evidence from three service organizations in Lagos, Nigeria. *Journal of Research in National Development*, 1 (5)1-17.
- Koufteros, X.A., Nahm, A.Y., Cheng, T. C. E., & Lai, K. (2007). An empirical assessment of a Nomological network of organizational design constructs: From culture to structure to pull production to performance. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 106(2), 468-492.
- Lee, K. L., & Salleh, A. L. (2009). Moderating Effects of Subordinates' Competency Level on Leadership & Organization Citizenship Behaviour. *International Journal of Business & Management*, 4(7), 139–145.

- Maimunah, A. (2011). *Human Resource Management: Principles & Practices* (2nd Ed.). Kuala Lumpur: Oxford University Press.
- McEnrue, M. P. (2014). Perceived Competence as a Moderator of the Relationship between Role Clarity & Job Performance: A Test of Two Hypotheses. *Organizational Behaviour & Human Performance*, 34, 379–386.
- Osei, A. J., & Ackah, O. (2015). Employee's competency & organizational performance in the pharmaceutical industry an empirical study of pharmaceutical firms in Ghana. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce & Management*, 3, (3), 1-9
- Popoola, S. O. (2016). *Strength and Limitation of Correlational*. Research. Available at https://www.researchgate.net/publication/275154431_Strengths_and_Limitations_of_Correlational_Desig.
- Puteh, F., Kaliannan, M., & Alam, N. (2016). Employee core competencies & organizational excellence: an interpretative analysis. *Australian Journal of Business & Economic Studies*, 2, (1): 45-55.
- Saeed, R., Shakeel, M., & Lodhi, R. N. (2013). Ethical behaviour & employees job performance in education sector of Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research*, 18 (4): 524-529.
- Soltani, E., & Liao, Y. Y. (2010). Training interventions: fulfilling managerial ends or proliferating invaluable means for employees? Some evidence from Iran. *European Business Review*, 22(2).
- Yatich, H. K., & Musebe, R. (2017). Assessment of ethical behaviour on organizational performance. *African Journal of Business Management*, 11, (1):12-16.
- Zaim, H., Yasar, M. F., & Unal, O. F. (2015). Analyzing the effects of individual competencies on performance: a field study in services industries in Turkey. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(9), 76-84

Rural Farmers Credit Sufficiency from Informal Financial Self-help Groups: Implications for Economic Productivity in Delta State, Nigeria

Peter Ifeanyichukwu NWANDU, PhD

Department of Agricultural Economics and Extension
National Open University of Nigeria
Email: pnwandu@noun.edu.ng

Abstract

The study investigated how the indigenous informal financial methods, the Non-rotating self – help groups were being used by the rural farmers to support their agricultural production. The study area was Delta state. Multi – stage random sampling procedures was used to select 148 respondents, made up of farmers and officials used for the study. Data was collected with structured questionnaire, oral interview schedules, and group discussions. Data was analysed with descriptive statistics of percentages and means. Results show that the non-rotational self –help groups have a simple organizational structure and operates two types of funds; the non-rotational fund and the contingency and emergency fund, from where members obtain credit. Problems of the Non-rotating self-help groups include delay in releasing their fund by the banks and inadequate record keeping. It was recommended among others that the self –help groups be allowed to exist as part of the rural financial inclusion. However, in order to help the system, there should be a follow up with regulation frame work and enlightenment on self-help group activities.

Keywords: Rural- farmers, Credit- sufficiency, Self-help- groups, Economic, Productivity

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Agriculture in Nigeria is sustained by rural small- holder farmers who constitute about 70% (Nigeria Bureau of Statistics – NBS -, 2017). Some of them are engaged in farm supply, majority are engaged in farm production while others are involved in product processing, marketing and distribution to the final consumers. These small-holder farmers encounter many problems in their agricultural production; among them is access to finance. In an attempt to solve the financial problem of the small-holder farmers, the government adopted a variety of strategies to provide access to credit to the rural farmers. Among the programmes introduced were the Agricultural Credit Guarantee Scheme (ACGS) and the Rural Banking Scheme as operated by the commercial banks, and Bank of Agriculture (BOA). Other more recently introduced institutions and supposedly more grassroot oriented include Micro Finance Banks (MFBs) and Micro Finance Institutions (MFIs) owned by Non-Governmental Organisation (NGOs). The interventions are intended to provide financial and banking services and inculcate banking habits to rural dwellers. The financial intermediations are supposed to evolve strategies that will facilitate institutional

sustainability which will make for participation of a majority of the rural small-holders or serve purposes that are perceived to indirectly benefit most rural dwellers. However, the services of these formal financial institutions has made the indigenous informal self-help groups (SHG) existing in the rural areas of great importance to the farmers both in terms of capital accumulation and credit availability.

According to Subramanian (2010) Self-help groups are small informal economically homogenous affinity associations of the rural poor created at the grassroots level for the purpose of enabling members achieve the following: saving small amount regularly; mutually agreeing to contribute a common fund and meeting their emergency needs. Other purposes include: collective decision making; solving conflicts through collective leadership and mutual discussions; and providing collateral free loan with terms decided by the group at meetings. Self-help groups have been able to mobilise small savings either on weekly or monthly basis from persons who are not expected to have any savings. SHGs have been able to effectively recycle the resources generated among the members for meeting their productive needs and emergency credit needs.

Kaira, Anil, Tonts and Siddique (2013) observed that the wide range of services provided by these informal SHGs, the techniques they employ and the cultural contest they represent all have critical implications for rural finance in the country. Experience in rural development has shown that efforts at expanding the economic base of the rural areas almost always flounder because of scarcity and restrictive access to loanable funds. The rural small-holder farmers financial constraints and limited access to formal credit sources may have necessitated their increased participation in savings and credit systems that rely on traditional pattern of social relations and control. The resistant nature of these indigenous associations despite the existence of the formal financial institutions point to the possibility that they may contain desirable elements that are conducive to local resource accumulation. These desirable elements seem to be lacking in modern financial institutions.

Problem Statement

Nigerian Government aware of the role the rural small-holder farmers play in the country's agricultural production has been advancing credit through the formal financial institutions to the farmers. The credit hardly gets through to the farmers due to official bureaucracies and financial leaks. On the other hand the Micro Finance Banks (MFBs) and Micro Finance Institutions (MFIs)

which are mostly owned by communities and Non- governmental Organisations (NGOs) respectively are not faring any better in advancing credit to the rural small-holder farmers. In a survey conducted by Central Bank of Nigeria – CBN – (2004) over 78 percent of the MFIs financing was for trading activities while 14.1 percent was for farming activities. This is because of the quick and high returns that come from investment in trading compared with the long gestation periods and lower returns that are associated with farming.

Among the indigenous financial associations is the Non-rotating Self-help group which have been described in ethnological literature (Sachel and Damachi, 1982) but have rarely been isolated and studied independently to explore their use as a source of capital accumulation and credit delivery to small-holder farmers. The study was therefore undertaken to explore among others how these indigenous informal financial Non-rotating SHGs accumulate capital and meet the credit needs of their members for farm production without depending on formal loanable fund and other informal rural financial sources.

Objectives of the Study

The study investigated how rural farmers achieve credit sufficiency for agricultural production from informal financial non- rotating self-help groups in Delta State, Nigeria. The specific objectives were to:

- determine the organisational structure and method of operation of the indigenous informal financial non-rotating self-help groups in the study area;
- examine and analyse the techniques used by the indigenous informal financial non- rotating self-help groups to accumulate capital;
- ascertain the strategies employed in disbursing and extending credit to members;
- identify constraints that limit the operations of indigenous informal financial non-rotating self-help groups; and
- make useful recommendations that will help improve the services of the indigenous informal financial non-rotating self-help groups to the rural small-holder farmers.

2.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Study Area

The study area was Delta North Agricultural Zone of Delta State. The rural areas of Delta North were predominantly farmers who were engaged in different indigenous informal financial self-help savings and credit groups. However only the non-rotating self-help groups were studied.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Multi stage stratified random sampling procedure was used to select the sample. The first stage was the selection of 3 Local Government Areas (LGAs) from the 9 LGAs that made up Delta North Agricultural Zone. The LGAs selected were Oshimili South, Aniocha North and Ndokwa West. The second stage was the selection of 3 villages from each LGA giving a total of 9 villages used for the study. The LGAs and villages include: Oshimili South – Oko-Anala, Okwe, and Ogbele; Aniocha North – Idumuje Uno, Ugboodu and Onicha Olona; Ndokwa West – Ewulu, Ishiagu and Ossissa. The third stage was the selection of 2 indigenous informal financial non-rotating self- help groups giving a total of 18 non-rotating self-help groups. Finally purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents. Because of the small number of members in each group, all the group members were sampled giving a total of 148 member respondents used for the study. The communities, the SHGs and the member respondents are given in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Self – Help Groups and Members in Each Community

Community	Name of Group and No of Members in the Group		Total Group Members in Each Community
Oko Anala	Ofuobi	8	15
	Faith	7	
Okwe	Udoka	10	18
	Ezaifakeago	8	
Ogbele	Jesus	8	16
	God’s time	8	
Idumuje Unor	Goodluck	6	15
	God’s time	9	

Ugbodu	Reighners	10	17
	Successful	7	
Onicha Olona	Aku	10	20
	Prosper	10	
Ewulu	Rock of Ages	6	14
	Uba	8	
Ishagu	Winners	9	17
	Nwanneka	8	
Ossissa	Wisdom	9	16
	Progress	7	
Total			148

3.0 DATA ANALYSIS

Data was analysed using descriptive statistics of frequency distributions, percentages and mean.

4.0 FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Organizational Structure

Findings revealed that the indigenous informal financial non rotating self-help groups have an elected executive of 3 members in 16 of the groups studied whose tenure span over 4years. However, in many of the groups the executive can stay for more years if their performances are commendable. In most cases firmness, honesty and fairness to members are what prolong the executives stay. The executive was headed by a Chairman followed by a Secretary and a Treasurer who also act as the financial secretary. In the remaining 2 groups there were only two member executives, the chairman and the treasurer who also doubles as the secretary.

The Chairman presides over meetings, listens to all components and with the members of the executive disciplines, sanctions, fines, approves and disburses funds to members. The secretary keeps the minutes of the proceedings while the treasurer collects contributions and disburses contributions or loans to members after approval has been granted. The treasurer also works out

the amount each farmer (member) will have to pay to meet the target sum required for the seasonal farm, activities. In all the groups studied, the post of secretary and treasurer were occupied by members that were literate in English Language. They were mainly retired teachers or civil servants who have returned to the village and have taken to farming as an occupation. The treasurer in addition must have knowledge of banks operation systems.

There were 2 types of meetings usually held. The first one was in the evenings of every market day. The market days were usually every four days. The main objective of choosing the market day was to reduce default as regards to member contributions since most often members have something to sell on market days. Meeting on market days also help members to escape sanctions and fines that will come for defaulting in their contributions. The market day meetings were usually brief it was for members to pay up their contributions or indebtedness. Sometimes members do not physically attend but send their contributions by proxy. The procedure was not taken as an offence and fines were not usually collected.

The second type of meeting was usually held once a month in 66.7 percent of the groups studied and once every two months in 33.3% of the remaining groups studied. This is the general meeting in which every member is expected to be present. Proxy is not allowed and fines were collected. Absenteeism must be with cogent reason. In this meeting, matters concerning the Association was discussed ideas were pooled on how to make the association progress.

Techniques Used for Capital Accumulation

There were two types of savings funds operated by the group namely, the non-rotational savings and the contingency and emergency savings.

The Non-Rotational Savings Fund

This was the main savings of the groups. It was also the main objective for setting up the association. At the end of the farming season and approaching harvest, the executive calls for estimates for the next farming season from individual members. The estimates include cost of renting land, land preparations, inputs to be used, labour, purchase of implements, transport, processing, marketing, repairs and erection of farm buildings and structures. The estimates usually include size, quantity, type and number of items required from a prepared price list. The treasurer works out the total amount that members will pay in order to meet the financial farm requirement.

The final figure that, the member will pay was projected a little above the total estimate worked out for the member. The main purpose was to ensure that the farmer does not fall below the real estimated amount. Other reasons include price changes and unforeseen contingencies.

Table 2. Mean Amount Projected and Mean Actual Amount Contributed into the Non – rotating Funds

Community	Mean Annual Projected Amount ₦	% Used to Project Amount	No. of Market Days Used to Project Amount	Actual Mean Amount Contributed	% of the Mean Actual Amount Contributed From the Amount Projected
Oko Anala	420251.00	6	77	386363.00	91.94
Okwe	162362.40	5	70	154508.60	95.16
Ogbele	364251.00	10	77	226380.24	62.15
Idumuje Unor	242216.20	6	72	221162.36	91.31
Ugbodu	322231.00	8	77	295304.64	91.64
Onicha Olona	214243.60	8	70	187112.52	87.34
Ewulu	160248.34	6	70	143622.36	89.63
Ishagu	314364.00	10	70	292122.72	92.92
Ossissa	222854.30	5	72	195516.64	87.73
Total	2,423021.54			2102099.08	

Table 2 showed that the percentage used to project total amount varied. In 2 communities projection were 10 percent above the real estimate, 2 projected 8 percent, 3 projected 6 percent while 2 projected 5 percent.

After ascertaining the estimate to be paid by each small-holder farmer, the next step was to breakdown the final lump sum into number of market days in order to determine the specific amount that each member will be paying every market day to meet the target lump sum. The number of market days used for calculations in the groups ranged between seventy (70) to seventy-seven (77)

Results showed that for the 2years that the groups were monitored, majority of the members paid up their specific amount every market day. During the harvest periods majority of the members pay for many market days in advance. During the ‘lean period’ (planting season) most members meet their subscription through engaging in agricultural labour or non-farm jobs like depending on the forest resources. There was also the practice of a member paying for another member in exchange for labour in the farm.

Table 1 also showed that in all the groups the mean projected amount was highly paid up. The highest being Ishiagu (92.82%) while the least was Ogebele (62.15%) these findings revealed that farmers can actually be mobilized to save giving the right environment and access. (Ike and Umuedafe, 2013).

Findings also revealed that individuals were not allowed to make emergency withdrawals from the non-rotating savings fund except such withdrawal was for the purpose of farm production. In all the groups studied this rule was strictly adhered to and was not compromised. It was the main rule that was given to new members on admission. Members and officials interviewed assert that it was the bane for the association existence. That without enforcing such rules, the association will fall. Others revealed that it was the only way of saving for the farm productions since the formal financial institutions and government do not come to their aid quickly during the planting season.

Finally, the treasurer pays the amount contributed into a branch of a bank in a nearby town which is either Micro Finance Bank or Rural Branch of a Commercial Bank and recently Nigerian Agricultural Cooperative s and Rural Development Bank (NACB) now Bank of Agriculture (BOA).

Contingency and Emergency Savings Fund

This account was used by members to save towards non-farm requirements like paying of school fees, settling medical bills, building and repairs of buildings, festivals or ceremonies, buying of clothes and household durables among others. There were no specific fixed amounts. The account was kept separate and withdrawals could be made at any market day. Money collected as fine, levies and interests charged on loans were also paid into this account. Expenditures for the executives were made from this account. Table 2 analyzed the amount mobilized for the contingency and emergency fund.

Table 3. Mean Amount Mobilized for the Contingency and Emergency Fund, Registration, Fines, Levies and interest

Community	Mean Amount Mobilised and Savings	Mean Amount Mobilised from Registration Fines, Levies and Interest	Total Amount Mobilised for Contingency Fund
	₦	₦	₦
Oko- Anala	97,160.48	48921.60	146082.00
Okwe	98602.00	16600.00	115202.00
Ogbele	131906.40	24840.56	156746.96
Idumuje Unor	144524.00	36044.40	180568.40
Ugbodu	187524.40	51200.00	238724.40
Onicha Olona	47062.00	29246.40	76308.40
Ewulu	85720.40	24080.40	109800.80
Ishagu	123241.20	24940.72	148181.92
Ossissa	70,766.40	32524.80	103291.26
Total	986507.28	288398.88	1274906.16

Table 2 showed mean amounts mobilized from savings, registrations, fines, levies and interests. Observations showed that savings mobilization in all the groups were higher than mobilization from registration, fines, levies and interests. During the focus group discussions, members gave reasons such as the registration fee being low and members hardly attract fines since they know the constitution guiding the group and try to avoid them. Levies were organized during celebrations like marriages, births, deaths and title taking among others. Again levies were low since the celebrating members usually provide enough entertainments for the group. The group only provides gift. Loans also attract low interest rate of between 2 to 3 percent per annum of monthly equal installments. Furthermore a member could use all or part of the contingency savings to offset the loan.

Strategies Employed in Disbursing Fund and Extending Credit to Members.

Disbursing the Non-Rotational Savings Funds.

The disbursement from the non-rotational savings funds from the different groups are discussed in Table 4 below.

Table 4. Annual Amount Contributed and Disbursed From Non – Rotating Funds

	Community	Mean Actual Amount Contributed	Mean Actual Amount Disbursed ₦	% of the Mean Actual Amount Disbursed and Amount Contributed	Different between the Mean Amount Contributed and the Mean Amount Disbursed ₦
1.	Oko – Anala	381363.00	367044.85	95.0	19,318.15
2.	Okwe	149873.34	149873.34	97.0	4635.26
3.	Ogbele	226380.24	215061.23	95.0	11319.01
4.	Idumuje Unor	221162.36	210104.26	95.0	11058.10
5.	Ugbodu	295304.64	280539.41	95.0	14765.23
6.	Onicha Olona	187112.52	181499.16	97.0	5,613.36
7.	Ewulu	143622.36	139313.69	97.0	4308.67
8.	Ishagu	292127.72	277521.33	95.0	14606.39
9.	Ossissa	195516.64	189651.14	97.0	5865.50
	Total	2102098.08	2010608.43		91489.65

The actual estimates were disbursed but the percentages projected estimates were kept back if there were no price changes for the season farming. The entire savings were not disbursed once to members. The disbursements were made in instalments as the farm operations approaches. Reasons given include that the farmers may use it for other contingencies instead of using it for farm production which was the purpose of the contribution. The farmers may also really have the intention of using the contribution for farm purpose but since some of the farm operations for which the contribution was meant to serve were still some distance away, they may be able to hold on to the full amount if disbursed. In 8 of the groups there were monitoring committees that check

the use of the fund by the farmer. However, from observation and participation majority of the members use the fund for the purpose they were meant to serve.

Total 5. Annual Sectorial Disbursement to the Different Farm Operations from Non – Rotating Saving Fund

Farm Operations	Mean Amount Disbursed	% of Mean Total Amount Disbursed
1. Renting Land	125663.63	6.20
2. Land Preparation	251326.05	12.50
3. Inputs	653447.73	32.50
4. Labour	226193.45	11.25
5. Implements	251326.05	12.50
6. Transport, Processing and Marketing	125663.03	6.25
7. Repairs/Erection of Farm Structures and buildings	376989.07	18.75
Total	2,010608.43	100

Table 3 showed sectorial disbursements to the different farm operations from the non-rotating fund. The costs of the farm operations were disaggregated to ascertain the contribution of each sector to the total cost of production. Table 3 also revealed that farm inputs (32.50), repairs/erection of farm structures and buildings (18.75%), land preparation (12.50%), implements (12.50%) and labour (11.25%) were farm operations that demand most of the funds. Fund demand for labour was observed to be low. This was probably due to the fact that family and community labours were common among the farmers. This finding is in line with NBS (2017); Akanni and Dada (2012) and Takane (2008)

Disbursing and Extending Credit and Repayment of the Contingency and Emergency Fund

Part or whole of the contingency and emergency funds contributed by a member could be requested for by the member and it is granted. However, a member cannot withdraw more than what was

contributed. Any additional withdrawal was granted as loan with interest. The interest rates of the group studied ranged from 2 to 3% per annum on the amount borrowed at equal instalment basis. To discourage too much borrowing in 80% of the group studied, a member cannot borrow more than double the amount that stands as a member's balance. The total amount given as loan to the member will not exceed the total amount that is in the non-rotational savings account. The non-rotational savings account serves as member's collateral

Table 6: mean annual loan disbursements and repayment from the contingency and emergency fund

Community	Mean amount available for loan N	Mean amount disbursed as loan N	% between mean amount available and meant amount disbursed	Meaning principle amount repaid N	% repayment
Oko – Anala	110423.20	74403.15	67.38	71680.00	96.34
Okwe	40201.00	25419.09	63.23	23319.47	91.79
Ogbele	78362.02	45920.14	58.60	44404.77	96.70
Idumuje Unor	90344.20	63575.21	70.37	56028.00	88.13
Ugbodu	51922.20	32866.75	63.30	30520.07	92.86
Onicha Olona	44154.20	30,000.00	67.94	29076.00	96.92
Ewulu	54900.00	31199.67	56.83	22320.24	71.54
Ishagu	74211.50	50463.82	68.00	41592.28	82.43
Ossissa	52251.62	26496.80	50.71	23608.65	89.10
Total	596769.94	380344.63		342549.48	

Table 6 also showed loan repayment by members. Observations showed that loan repayment rate was high. These observations were also made by Ezihe, Akpa and Ayoola (2016) and Afolabi and Kamla (2010). Members rarely borrow more than their contributions to the fund. This may be due to the fact that some members usually belong to other savings and credit organizations as observed by (Nweze, 2008). The fund from these other organizations could be used to settle the non-farm problems. Another reason may be because the non-rotational savings fund was kept mainly by members for farm production purposes.

Constraints that Limit the Operations of the Informal Financial Self-Help Groups. Problem of the Formal Financial Institutions

All the respondents used for the study identified the formal financial institutions as a problem. The problems mentioned include fewness or absence of the banks in rural areas, problem of collecting their deposit from the bank and fear that some of the banks especially the micro - finance banks owned by influential individuals may fold which may lead to loss of their deposits. Findings also revealed that in 1997, three (3) of the groups banking with a community bank lost all their deposits when the bank suddenly went bankrupt and folded. All efforts made to retrieve their deposits failed. The major factor being that majority of the members were illiterate and also the groups do not have any legal backing and government did not come to their aid either. Due to the problem of getting their deposits from the rural banks that were close to them many of the groups (13) studied now prefer to deal with commercial banks in the city.

Inadequate Record Keeping

There was good record keeping in eight (8) of the groups where the treasurer were retired teachers and financial workers. However majority of the groups (10) were only concerned with basic record keeping like deposits and withdrawals and marking of attendance register. Working the details of the amount to be paid by each member and interest rates were difficult areas that need attention. Sometimes members' children who were educated or were in tertiary institution were usually co-opted to help in record keeping.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study have shown that indigenious informal financial non-rational self-help groups can play great roles in financial intermediation of the rural economy if properly harnessed and given the right environment, Government should therefore avoid direct intervention and control in informal rural financing since this has been fraught with abuse, leakages and the fund rarely getting to the farmers. The roles of government should be more of regulatory, supervisory and enlightenment. There should be guidelines for these informal financial non-rotating self-help groups. The guidelines should not destroy the traditional systems of savings and credit now available but should improve on it. Government should spend most of her resources on infrastructural development like providing feeder roads, electricity, and pipe born water, health facilities and education among others to the rural communities. These will help improve the standard of living of the rural farmers.

It will also improve the productive capacity of the rural dwellers and increase the growth of the rural economy.

REFERENCES

- Afolabi, J. A. (2010). “Analysis of Loan Repayment Among Small Holder Farmers in Oyo State,” *Journal of Social Sciences*, 22(2), 115 – 119.
- Akanni, K.A., & Dada A. O. (2012).” Analysis of Labour Use Patterns Among Smallholder Cocoa Farmers in South Western Nigeria,” *Journal of Agricultural Sciences and Technology*. B(2), 107 -117.
- Anyanwu, C. M. (2004). *Micro Finance Institutions in Nigeria: Policy, Practice and Potentials*. A paper presented at the G24 Workshop on Constraints to Growth in Sub Saharan Africa, Pretoria South Africa, November 29 – 30, 2004. Lagos: CBN publications.
- Ezihe, J.A.C., Akpa, J. A. & Ayoola, J.B. (2016). “Accessibility and Repayment of Agricultural Loans Among Farmers in Benue State, Nigeria”. *IOSR Journal of Agriculture and Veterinary Science*, 9(8), 39 – 46.
- Ike, P. C. & Umuedafe, D. E. (2013). Determinants of Savings and Capital Formation Among Rural Farmers in Isoko North Local Government Area of Delta State, *Asian Economic and Financial Review*, 3(10), 1289 – 1297.
- Kaira, R. K., Anil, B., Tonts, M. & Siddique, K. H. M. (2013).“ Self – Help Groups in India Agriculture: A Case Study of Farmer Groups in Punjab, Northern, India.” *Agroecology and Sustainable Food Systems*, 37(5), 33 – 41.
- Nigeria Bureau Statistics (NBS), (2018). Nigeria Unemployment Rate. Lagos: FGN/NPopC.
- Nweze, N. J. (2008). Towards Promoting Links in Rural Financial Self – help Associations and Banking Institutions in Nigeria Agriculture. *Der Independantwll*, 1(5), 193 - 206.
- Sachel, H. D., & Damichi, U. G. (1982). Self – help Organisations: Guidelines and Case Studies for Development Planners and Field Workers”.*Eriedrich Ebert StiftungBoun*, 3(2), 272.
- Sangtam, T. & Yaden, S. (2017). Roles of Self – Help Groups (SHGs) in Rural Development, *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 22 (7).
- Subramanian, S. (2010). A study on Self–help Groups in Tiruneveli District, *Manonmaman Sundavanar University Publications*, Tiruneveli.
- Takane, T. (2008). Labour Use in Small Holder Agriculture in Malawi: Six Village Case Studies, *Africa Study Monographs*, 29(4), pp 183 – 200.

Pseudo-Federalism and Socio-Political Conflicts: An Assessment of the Impact of Military Governance in Nigeria

Musibau Olabamiji OYEBODE, PhD¹ and Sunday AKANDE²

¹Department of Peace Studies and Conflict Resolution
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: olabamijioyebode@yahoo.com

²Department of History and International Studies
Osun State University, Ikire.
Email: yokunde4ever@yahoo.com

Abstract

The 1963 Republican Constitution of Nigeria was adjudged by scholars as the only post-independence constitution that put Nigeria on the threshold of a true federation. However, it is often argued in scholarship that military incursion into politics between 1966 and 1999 at various intervals torpedoed Nigeria's democratic journey towards federalism. This study examined the provisions in the different constitutions and decrees promulgated by the military governments against the backdrop of Nigerian constitutional history before military intervention in order to find out their federal or unitary nature and relate them to some protracted socio-political conflicts plaguing Nigeria. A historical excursion and discourse analysis of some provisions were carried out using the 1963 and 1999 constitutions as well as decrees. The study revealed that while the pre 1966 constitutions actually allowed regions to operate as autonomous federating units, some provisions of the 1999 constitutions and the decrees examined technically plunged the country into a unitary system whereby power is over-concentrated at the centre. This situation has led to allegations of marginalization, inequality and inequity by different centrifugal forces that agitate for justice and resource control. It is, thus, posited that restructuring through a new constitution endorsed by Nigerians through a referendum is urgently needed to address the contradictions in the 1999 constitution in order to resolve different political disagreements. There is also the need to test the constitutionality of some of the decrees promulgated by the military, now given legislative endorsement as acts by the National Assembly, in the law court.

Keywords: Federalism, Constitution, Decrees, Unitary System, Federating Units, Restructuring, Referendum

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is a federal presidential republic and an amalgam of different nationalities. The country is estimated to have over 250 ethnic groups and around 500 diverse ethno-linguistic groups. Since occupation of Britain in the early 1800s, the Southern and the Northern Protectorates experienced

different colonial approaches of governance. After the amalgamation, efforts were made to govern the country as a single entity through different constitutions. The Clifford Constitution of 1922, Richard Constitution of 1946, Macpherson Constitution of 1951 and Littleton Constitution of 1954 made remarkable strides in Nigerian pre-independence constitutional history. All the pre-independence constitutions have their strengths and weaknesses in the strife to build one united Nigeria. Independence era has witnessed five constitutions namely Independence Constitution of 1960, Republican Constitution of 1963, 1979 Constitution, 1989 Constitution, and 1999 Constitution.

It is often argued that fiscal federalism and revenue allocation in Nigeria both in the pre-independence era and the post-independence era were fraught with controversies (Ohiomu & Oluyemi, 2017). The controversies were heightened in 1966 when the first coup was staged; the Military abrogated the 1963 Republican Constitution and put in place a unification decree that diverted Nigeria from the course of federalism. The unification decree made Nigeria an amalgam of incompatible and highly heterogeneous social formations under a unitary system.

The scenario of lopsided political structure and power sharing among the central government and federating units has persisted since 1966. This has resulted in many conflicts and crimes which have detrimental effects on political governance, social systems, economies, social capital and societal members' perceptions and behaviour, especially now that they are protracted (Farmaki, 2016). Arolowo (2011) concluded that the centralism and the age-long hegemony of federal government as well as the protracted period of interregnum rule of the military are some of the factors that contribute to the constant conflicts associated with fiscal federalism in Nigeria. In the same vein, **Oladesu (2016) blamed the military for the mistakes of the past which for years compounded the task of nation-building in Nigeria. What are those mistakes made by the military regimes? What are the consequences of those mistakes? Since the exit of the military in politics have there being steps taken towards entrenching true and fiscal federalism in Nigeria?** In answering these posers, historical excursion and discourse analysis of some fiscal provisions were carried out. Constitutional development, military incursion into politics, the provisions of the 1999 Constitutions on federating units, Establishment of Nigeria Police Force Decree, the Petroleum (Amendment) Decree of 1996 and Minerals and Mining Decree No.34 of 1999 were examined. In addition, this study looked at different efforts being made to change the status quo since return to civil rule in 1999.

2.0 CONCEPTUAL DISCOURSE

Federalism has gained popularity as a system to address pluralism. Sagay (2008) conceptualised federalism as an arrangement of sharing powers between a federal government and component units in a multi-national country in such a way that each unit, including the central authority exists as a government separately and independently. In such arrangement, federating units have persons and properties with its territorial area and conduct some affairs with constitutional autonomy. Thus, a federation is a political collective characterized by a union of partially self-governing entities which may be called provinces, states or regions under a central federal government vested with certain constitutional powers. It is also called a federal state. Law (2013) defined federalism as a form of government in which powers are divided between two levels of government of equal status. One unique characteristic of a federation is division of powers between or among the federating units and the central government. The federating units voluntarily enter into an agreement they will be governed under one central authority. The United States and Switzerland provide credible examples of federal states. Odubajo (2013) averred that the essence of federalism is to engender healthy competitions between and among the federating states and build on their comparative advantage and relative resource.

In a nutshell, federalism is based on the principle of non-centralisation of power and it is most suitable for plural and multi-ethnic or multi-cultural societies in order to safeguard their sometimes opposing interests. So, what Nigeria had in the first Republic represented the evolution of a federal system as determined by the regions that were created in the march to independence in 1960 (The Guardian, 2016).

There are basic characteristics of a federation which include written constitution, rigid constitution, and federal and state judicial institutions, dual administration, dual citizenship and bicameral legislature. It is assumed that devolution of power will make governance closer to the people through the federating units who are closer to the grassroots and will be most responsive to the constituents. The concept of federalism is proposed as a potent means of managing conflicts that are naturally inherent in plural societies (Oladele, 2014; Odigwe & Aibieyi, 2015; Oyeboode, 2018).

Fiscal federalism is a general normative framework for assigning political and economic roles to the different levels of government. This is in recognition of the distinctive powers of the federating units and the centre which are sometimes concurrent on some issues and exclusive in some others.

Fiscal federalism means the division of governmental functions and financial relations among levels of government. Though not necessarily restricted to it, fiscal federalism is germane to a functional federal system as it specifies the extent and limit of the powers of federating units in resource exploitation and allocation.

In a federation each federating unit enjoys some degree of sovereignty. By sovereignty of all levels of government, it means each federating unit is free to make laws that guide the harnessing, exploitation, management and distribution of resources within her geo-political space. Fiscal federalism gives a sense of autonomy and competition among federating units. In this direction, fiscal federalism has been described as the system of revenue generation, allocation and redistribution among the federating units in a federal system which gives room for regional fiscal autonomy (Odigwe & Aibieyi, 2015)). For example, every state in America and Colombia has her own constitution that guides her fiscal autonomy.

Thus, in a country where the laws at the centre arm-twist the federating units and appropriates larger fiscal responsibilities to itself cannot be said to be practicing true federalism. It is only a well-designed policy framework of decentralization that can ensure solid fiscal federalism.

3.0 THEORETICAL DISCOURSE

Structural violence refers to imposition of limitations on individuals by the social structures that constrain them from achieving the quality of life that would have otherwise been attainable by them (Oyebode, 2018). These limitations may include political, economic, religious, cultural, and legal constraints and usually originate in institutions that have authority over particular subjects (Bandy, 2016). It refers to a form of violence wherein some social structure or social institutions may harm people by preventing them from meeting their basic needs. According to Galtung (1969) structural violence is an "avoidable impairment of fundamental human needs."

The general orientation of structural theory of conflict at the macro level is that the structure of society inevitably brings conflict as the individual identifies so strongly with the group, that his personality is sublimated to fulfil the desires of the collective. Thus, he develops in-group identity that precludes and differentiates him from other out-groups. The 'we' and 'them' position thus colours his perception of non-group members. Field (2004) averred that group selection under

primitive conditions may have led to the evolution of instincts favouring in-group cooperation and out-group hostility among humans.

Structural violence affects groups' relations in an imbalance social structure and this why it is linked to social injustice. Structural violence and direct violence are said to be highly interdependent in a social milieu and results in hate crimes, racial violence, sectional pursuit and aggravated state violence, militancy, insurgency, terrorism, and war. Rather than the term being called social injustice or oppression, there is an advocacy for it to be called violence because this phenomenon comes from, and can be corrected by human decisions, rather than just natural causes (Bandy, 2019).

However, structural conflict can only occur in a state when the competing groups have conceded to the dominant power voluntarily or involuntarily. Voluntary concurrence by the elite class may be informed by personal benefits in terms of juicy offices, contracts and monetary inducement. Involuntary may be a result of skewed population, control of the military and political manoeuvring. By and large, structural violence is engrained in a system whereby powerful groups have manipulated state apparatus over some years and have used the tactics of 'carrot and stick' in governance.

Historicising Nigeria Match towards Unitary System

Nigeria's pre-independence constitutions were enacted by order in council during the colonial era, when the country was administered as a Crown Colony. The constitutions enacted during this period were those of 1913 (which came into effect on 1 January 1914), 1922, 1946, 1951 and 1954. Littleton Constitution established the federal principle and paved the way for independence. With Lyttleton Constitution, Nigeria thrived and recorded giant strides under strong regional governments led by Obafemi Awolowo in the West; Nnamdi Azikiwe) in the East and Tafawa Balewa in the North between 1954 and 1960. Each region was able to map its course of development and put priority in areas it considered important and these generated healthy competition and imitation among the regions. Thus, the Littleton constitution of 1954 concretised the foundation of the federal structure of Nigeria (Arolowo, 2011).

British rule officially ended in 1960 through the Nigeria Independence Act 1960(2) which transformed the Federation of Nigeria into an independent sovereign state (Utuk, 1975). The

British monarch, Elizabeth II, remained head of state of Nigeria until October, 1963. Her constitutional roles in Nigeria were delegated to the Governor-General of Nigeria in person of Nnamdi Azikiwe. At Independence in 1960 and with the regional arrangement entrenched in the Independence Constitution, Nigeria, with three, later four regions, was equally erected on the pillar of true federalism, each region enjoying high autonomy in fiscal matters.

The Federal Republic of Nigeria came into existence on 1 October 1963 when the British Monarch seized to be the Head of State and Nigeria became a member of the Commonwealth (Onwuekwe, 2003). Following the abolition of the monarchy, former Governor-General Nnamdi Azikiwe became the first President of Nigeria under a parliamentary system. Another milestone in the journey towards true federalism was the 1963 Constitution as it affirmed that Nigeria shall be a Federation comprising of Regions and a Federal Territory and shall be a Republic by the name of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. Significant provisions of the 1963 constitution include among others;

- (1) There shall be four Regions that is to say, Northern Nigeria, Eastern Nigeria, Western Nigeria and Mid-Western Nigeria.
- (2) The Regions and Federal territory shall consist of the areas comprised in those territories respectively on the thirtieth day of September, 1963.
- (3). Subject to the Constitution and the Nigeria Independence Act, 1960, the constitution of each Region shall have the force of law throughout that Region and if any other law is inconsistent with that constitution, the provisions of that constitution shall prevail and the other law shall, to the extent of the inconsistency, be void.
- (4). No property, movable or immovable, shall be taken possession of compulsorily and no right over or interest in any such property shall be acquired compulsorily in any part of Nigeria except by or under the provisions of a law.

The 1963 constitution also established fiscal federalism by empowering the regions to retain 50 per cent of revenue for themselves while they pay 50 per cent to the central government. The operation of 1963 Constitution started in earnest until the Republic was cut short by a coup d'état when a crop of young officers struck alleging corruption, indiscipline and parochialism of the political class (Alao, 2001). The two other republics (1979-1983 and 1992-1993) that followed

were equally truncated by the military under the guise of allegation of corruption and manipulation of election process. With the intervention of military in governance, Nigeria was thrown into a chequered history of constitutional experiments, abolition of federalism and cessation of the regions. From the ashes of regions sprang up states that were created through decrees.

Fiscal federalism has been a contentious issue in Nigeria. Odigwe and Aibieyi (2015) averred that fiscal federalism in Nigeria has been characterized with constant struggle and agitation for change and resource control due to the centrifugal tendencies in our disaggregated federalism. The centre's dictation on the revenue sharing formula and resource exploitation was fallout of decrees that emasculated the states. Gowon, Murtala and Obasanjo regimes seized the regional monuments and appropriated them to the Federal Government. The University of Ife, the Western Nigeria Television, the Western Nigeria Broadcasting Service, the Daily Times and New Nigeria Newspapers were confiscated by military fiat (Olagunju, 2018).

The political and ethnic cleavages of the military officers involved in the two coups of 1966 actually led to a civil war that ravaged the country for thirty months. The scars as well as the trauma of Nigeria civil war are yet to heal and they form the basis of the trust gap that exists among disparate ethnic and cultural groups till today (Oyebode 2018). The Nigerian milieu since the two coups depicts what David and Bar-Tal (2009) described as a situation of social and cultural differences that exacerbates when political and economic factors, such as social injustice, economic inequality and dominance of government structures, mobilise conflict.

Decree No 34 of 1966 promulgated on May 24, 1966 by the then Head of State, Major General Johnson Thomas Umunnakwe Aguiyi-Ironsi has been widely criticized in literature as the major blow to Nigeria federalism. It was called Unification Decree while some critics at that time labelled it De-unification Decree (Ahovi and Akingboye, 2016). It was the Decree that started the abolition of regionalism which had hitherto put Nigerian on the threshold of recognition of her plural nature. Against the backdrop of the constitutional retrogression unleashed on Nigerian fledging republic by the Unification Decree, Ogunsanwo (2018) averred that Irosin's lack of preparedness for governance foolishly made him to accept the recommendation to scrap the federal system of government and replace it with a unitary system. To him, the promulgation of Decree number 34 of May, 1966 was not predicated on any philosophical consideration and the North violently opposed it. Some other scholars have argued that the promulgation of the decree and other issues

inherent in the execution of January 1966 coup led to the pogrom against Nigerians of Eastern origin in May and September of 1966.

The coups and counter-coups of 1966 left a sore memory of the misadventure of the military interlopers, whose main legacy was the abolition of power devolution (Ahovi and Akingboye, 2016). Although, General Yakubu Gowon later repealed Decree 34 on August 31, 1966 through Decree 9, substantial provisions of the Decree have crept into many military decrees and civilian acts till date. Paradoxically, the North that initially opposed unitary system has had military rulers of northern origin who entrenched unitary system while the southerners ironically are the ones now clamouring for restructuring. There is a countrywide uproar against the unitary constitutional order imposed incrementally on Nigeria between 1966 and 1999 now codified into the 1999 Constitution and Acts of the National Assembly.

Other instruments used to whittle down the potency of federalism in Nigeria under military rule were departure from regional arrangement and proliferation of states. Decree No. 14 of 1967 (State Creation and Transitional Provision) Created 12 states and provided for Military Governors for each state. Decree No. 12 of 1976 States (Creation and Transitional Provisions) changed the number of states from 12 to 19 states. State creation led to more demand for states by ethnic nationalists and tribal-interest groups, which accuse the current larger state governments of subverting or ignoring the interests and necessities of the more local regions forcing successive military administrations to create fiscally weak states (Adeniyi, 2014).

In 1987 two additional states were created making a total of 21. With the same military fiat, nine more states were created in 1991 bringing the total to 30. In the same year the Federal Capital Territory was created. By 1996, with fresh addition of six, Nigeria has a total of 36 states and one capital territory. There were still allegations that state creation exercise carried out with bias and sentiments favouring a particular region of the country. The exercise has also resulted into a lopsided distribution of national wealth. Alapiki (2005) contended that the outcomes of state creation exercises in Nigeria have failed to assuage the very forces that instigated new state demands in view of the fissiparous tendencies that continue to pervade the polity. Also, Ajayi (2007) averred that state creation has led to the virtual collapse of the Nigerian federation as conceived by the founding fathers and nationalists. This probably accounts for why clamour for regionalism resonated in the 2014 Confab.

An Analysis of Some Provisions of 1999 Constitution and Military Decrees

What and what constitute the federating unit in Nigeria are not clear. Section 2 subsection 2 of the 1999 Constitution states that “there shall be a federation consisting of states and a Federal capital Territory”. Thus it is not clear from the 1999 constitution whether or not the local governments are federating units or administrative organs of the states. This confusion is more apparent if we consider Section 7 of the 1999 Constitution as amended which guaranteed a system of local government by democratically elected local government councils and admonished the government of every state to ensure their existence under a law of the state against the recognition of 774 local government areas in the constitution. This recognition negates the power assigned to state Houses of Assembly to create local councils and make laws for the smooth running of such local authorities. There is also confusion in Section 7, subsection 6 of the 1999 Constitution in granting power to the National Assembly to make provisions for statutory allocation of public revenue to local government councils in the federation if they are not federating units. Expectedly in a true federal system only federating units should have direct access to consolidated revenue fund of the federation.

Recently, the National Assembly made a law granting financial autonomy to local council administration, this if contested in the law court may negate the spirit of true federalism if states are the only recognized federating units. These contradictions expose the lacuna and weaknesses that abound in the constitution and further rob the federating units the power to operate as autonomous government.

The Nigeria Police Force (NPF) is designated by the 1999 Constitution as a federal unit and the principal law enforcement agency in the country, with staff deployed across the 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT). Section 214, subsection 1 of the 1999 constitution precludes state governments from having a Police force of its own. It states that “there shall be a Police Force for Nigeria, which shall be known as the Nigeria Police Force, and subject to the provision of this section no other police force shall be established for the federation or any part thereof.” Thus, as opposed to the practice in other federations like the United State of America and Switzerland, Section 214 of the 1999 Constitution gave the country a centralised policing system. It further stated that:

- The Nigeria Police Force shall be under the command of the Inspector-General of Police and contingents of the Nigeria Police Force stationed in a state shall, subject to the authority of the Inspector-General of Police, be under the command of the Commissioner of Police of that state.
- The President or such other Minister of the Government of the Federation as he may authorise in that behalf may give to the Inspector-General of Police such lawful directions with respect to the maintenance and securing of public safety and public order as he may consider necessary, and the Inspector-General of Police shall comply with those direction or cause them to be complied with.
- Subject to the provisions of this section, the Governor of a state or such Commissioner of the Government state as he may authorise in that behalf, may give to the Commissioner of Police of that state such lawful directions with respect to the maintenance and securing of public safety and public order within the state as he may consider necessary, and the Commissioner of Police shall comply with those directions or cause them to be complied with: Provided that before carrying out any such directions under the foregoing provisions of this subsection the Commissioner of Police may request that the matter be referred to the President or such Minister of the Government of the Federation as may be authorised in that behalf by the President for his directions. The foregoing provision is anti-federalism as the governors are merely described as the chief law enforcement officers of the state without the control of the police to enforce the law. Although the President, Muhammadu Buhari, signed the Nigeria Police Act 2020 into law which repealed the Police Act Cap. P19, laws of the Federation, 2004 as virtually copied from military decree, the unitary policing system remains largely unaddressed.

While the 1978 Land Use Act recognised the State Governors as trustees of land in their territory in the spirit of true federalism, some decrees denied them the power of superintending over mineral resources in their states, Military Decrees no. 9 of 1971 and no. 51 of 1969 Petroleum Act, for examples, bestowed ownership of both solid minerals and oil to the Federal Government as it allowed 100% off-shore rents and royalties to the federal government. Also, Minerals and Mining Decree No 34 of 1999 Laws of the Federation of Nigeria made on 10th May 1999 vested the power of mining of all minerals on the Federal Government. Inter alia the provisions of the decree states that: All lands in which minerals have been found in commercial quantities shall, from the

commencement of this Decree be acquired by the Government of the Federation in accordance with the provisions of the land Use Act and the Minister may, from time to time, with the approval of the Federal Executive Council, designate such lands as security lands.

In the same light, the Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria 1999 (as amended) section 44 (3) states that "... the entire property in and control of all minerals, in, under or upon any land in Nigeria, its contiguous continental shelf and of all rivers, streams and watercourses throughout Nigeria, any area covered by territorial waters or constituency, and the Exclusively Economic Zone shall be vested in the Government of the Federation for and on behalf of the people of Nigeria."

Also, item 39 Schedule II of the Exclusive Legislative List vests the control and management of the natural resources and hydrocarbon; mines, and minerals including oil fields, oil mining, geological surveys and natural gas on the federal government. An Act to repeal the Minerals and Mining Act, No. 34 of 1999 and re-enact the Nigerian Minerals and Mining Act 2007 for the purposes of regulating all aspects of the exploration and exploitation of solid minerals in Nigeria; and for related purposes was also made on 29th March, 2007. The act retained the power of the Federal Government to control resources at the expense of the federating units. The appropriation of these natural endowments to the centre has always attracted criticism as locals are said to be denied their so called "God given asset". In response to this criticism, successive administrations often argue that some measures are taken to ensure equal development of the nation. Thus, central government in Nigeria insisted that in order to guarantee common minimum standards of development across jurisdictions of the state and enable poorer areas to provide acceptable levels of services to her populace the principles of balancing and equalization are applied. Other principles that have been applied include derivation, even development, equality of states, population, needs, minimum responsibility of government and continuity of government services at the centre.

4.0 CONSEQUENCES OF PSEUDO FEDERALISM

Centralisation of power leads to 'do or die' politics to control the centre. There are also politics of ethnicity as well as clamour for rotational presidency. The quest to capture central power to pursue parochial agenda in favour of tribes has led to elite fragmentation along ethnic divides. This probably accounts for political intrigues and carpet-crossing during general elections.

Perceived ethnic cleavages in the allocation of state resources and lop-sidedness in the sharing of Nigeria's commonwealth has widened trust-gap. The suspicion arising from ethnic rivalry in Nigeria validates the argument in literature that limited access to resources; power and decision-making can build animosity and lead to violence particularly when there is state weakness (Mansfield & Snyder, 2007). As the 2023 general elections are close by, the Igbo and the Yoruba have intensified campaign for presidency to come to their sides. It should, however, be noted that quota system and rotational presidency may not give room to meritocracy.

In view of the centralisation of policing in Nigeria, there is general incapability of the Police Force to effectively curb crimes in Nigeria. The strength of the NPF is far less than 400,000. Considering the over 200 million population, the police to population ratio are 'drastically below' the UN's standard of 1:450, with 1:600 in Nigeria and this has led to clamour for State Police and Community Policing (Chatham House, 2020). Crimes are rising daily because Nigeria runs a centralised security system whereby directives for policing and interventions in times of crises have to wait until the Police Headquarters issues directive to State Commissioners of Police. Gathering of intelligence and control of crime are impeded due to officialdom because the cliché that State Governors are Chief Security Officers of their states is a mere verbal ascription.

Recently, policing outfits like Hisbah for the three zones in the Northern region, Amotekun for the southwest zone and ---- for the southeast zone have emerged to complement efforts of the centralized policing agencies. Inefficiency in the imposed federal security architecture has also led to the proliferation of self-defense groups at community level code-named vigilante groups and landlords/landladies associations.

Appropriation of major natural resources at the control of central government has placed the states and local governments at the mercy of the all-powerful central government that collects revenues from most tangible and intangible resources of the federation. Despite the enormity of items on the concurrent list, the states are weakened by federal institutions. What the military has imposed on Nigeria and which the civilian rule has failed to remove can well be described as structural violence. Too much money at the centre has led to corruption as billions of naira is unaccounted for or is stolen by public officials. It is discernible that the Federal Government continues to appropriate and concentrate too much money at the centre leading to waste and corruption (Arowolo, 2011). While speaking generally on Nigerian leaders Albert (2011) averred that iimmorality of African leaders revolves around issues of lack of altruism and accountability, the

proclivity of African leaders for trouble making and political brinkmanship, as well as kleptocratic tendencies (being light fingered). The central government is seen as cow-milk where there is abundant money to manipulate for self and tribe.

Agitation for resource control as a consequence of perceived injustice and inherent dominance of a section of the country in the sharing of the nation's patrimony is high. This has resulted in militancy in different parts of Nigeria and formation of mildly called socio-cultural and ethnic-interests vanguard organizations or ethnic nationalists. These platforms have been used to express vehement grievances against the federal government's overwhelming dominance of the socio-economic apparatus of state. The groups include Afenifere, the Yoruba Elders Council (YCE), Agbekoya, the Yoruba Liberation Command, (YOLICOM), YWC and Ilana OmoOdua in the southwest voicing their displeasure with pseudo-federal arrangement. Ohanaeze Ndigbo, MASSOB and IPOB are more vociferous in their approach to perceived injustice in southeast. Movement for the Survival of the Ijaw Ethnic Nationality in the Niger Delta (MOSIEND); Ijaw National Congress, (INC); Ijaw Youth Council (IYC); PANDEF, the Niger Delta Peoples Volunteer Force, (NDPVF), Movement for the Emancipation of Niger Delta (MEND) and Supreme Egbesu Freedom Fighters continue clamour for resource control in the south-south. In the middle-belt, we have the Middle-Belt Forum, (MBF), MBC, SOKAPU, CONAECDA who resist dominance by a section of Nigeria. Their foot-soldiers are recruited from the restive youths who are readily available due to employment.

Although the federal government has appropriated most solid mineral deposit to its control in Nigeria, it has not been able to harness them for economic growth and employment opportunities. The failure of the federal government in this regard has led to illegal mining activities which deprive the states of funds to execute development programmes.

The dependence of the local government on the states and federal government allocation has led to its inability to positively affect the economic growth in the country (Ohiomu & Oluyemi, 2017). The situation has created an army of disgruntled populace. The manifestations of frustrations and aggressions are *insurgency*, banditry and terrorism in almost all the nooks and crannies of Nigeria

In view of the trust-gap arising from the lacuna in the constitution and actions of government that made true federalism impracticable in the polity, different segments of the society including civil society organisations have been calling for restructuring. Unfortunately, the term restructuring has

generated a lot of controversies as there is no agreement as to what it means to the polity and what exactly needs restructuring. Is it regionalism? Is it devolution of power from the centre to the federating units? Is it re-arrangement of power sharing? Is it fiscal federalism? Many scholars believe that what is needed is constitutional amendment while others fault the existing constitution as an imposition from the military. They argue that you cannot build an amended constitution on a shaky foundation.

By and large, conflicts of interest remain largely unresolved in the Nigerian polity and they are the bases of political misunderstandings across ethno-linguistic divides that manifest in wrong perceptions, mutual suspicions, verbal altercations and physical conflicts. Unresolved issues of the union have become albatross that inhibits the building of a nation-state and threatens the continuity of a united nation in foreseeable future. Probably it is in realisation of this precarious situation that the political class at every stage continues to find solutions to expressed grievances.

Furtive Attempts at Establishing Nigeria's Fiscal Federalism before 1999

In order to entrench fiscal federalism in Nigeria in view of its plural nature, a number of commissions have been set up with tangible reports. These included Phillipson Commission (1946), Hicks-Phillipson Commission (1951), Chicks Commission (1953), Raisman Commission (1957), Binns Commission (1964), Dina Commission (1969), Aboyade Commission (1977), Okigbo Committee (1980), and Danjuma Commission (1988). Rather than establishing true fiscal federalism most of the recommendations of the commissions merely offered palliate measures to assuage tension arising from agitations.

In summary, recommendations of the commissions focused on derivation which was 100% in 1946 but reduced to 50% by Philipson Commission's recommendation in 1951. The Raisman Commission set it at 50% in 1958, in 1960, it remained at 50%, and General Gowon reduced it to 45% in 1970. It was further slashed in 1975 to 20% but Obasajo/Yar'Adua administration raised it to 25%. Shehu Shagari administration reduced it to 5% in 1981, while General Buhari later crashed it to 1.5%. General Babangida pretended to raise it to 3% but Ken Saro Wiwa's pressure got the government to raise it to 13% as in the Nigeria's constitution of today (Odigwe & Aibieyi, 2015).

Unfortunately, laws and decrees on revenue allocation during military regimes mostly appropriated fiscal powers to the centre while pretending to empower the federating units. Decree

15 of 1967, Decree 13 of 1970, Decree 9 of 1971, Decree 6 of 1975, and Decree 7 of 1975 confirmed onslaught of federal might under military regimes (Arowolo, 2011, , Ewetan, 2013).

Efforts to Address Issues of True and Fiscal Federalism (1999 to Date)

The implementation of 13 per cent derivation to mineral producing states during Obasanjo civilian regime was an effort to address the clamour for resource control as an element of true federalism. Though the 13 per cent derivation is far from the expectation of the mineral producing states, it has assuaged the feeling of neglect to a certain degree. The National Assembly is working on the Petroleum Industry Bill as a means to address outstanding complaints of host communities.

Federal Government attempted to address the clamour for fiscal federalism by establishing Revenue Mobilisation Allocation and Fiscal Commission (RMAFC). RMAFC is a body that reflects the Federal Character Principle in its membership composition and has enabling laws which empower the commission to act and review revenue allocation formula and ensure equity in the distribution of nation's wealth. Unfortunately, since the inception of the Commission it has not been able to review the revenue sharing formula as expected to be done every five years to reflect economic reality and complaints from states.

State governments have contested some actions and policies of the central government that negate the practice of federalism. The Lagos State Government v Attorney General of the Federation as earlier mentioned is a classical case. Other constitutional cases tried in the law court included A-G Federation v A-G Abia State & 35 others (2002) 6 NWLR (Part764) 524, A-G Federation v A-G Abia State (2002) 1 WRN 1 (Part764) 524. Outcomes of these legal tussles revealed excessive concentration and abuse of power by the federal government.

Further confusion ensued in the legal tussle between Lagos State Government and Attorney General of the Federation whereby the Supreme Court held that states have concurrent legislative power to create and make laws with regards to local council administration and declare unconstitutional the withholding of local council allocation by the federal government. The constitution as referenced in the Supreme Court judgment, however, limited the power of states to create local council as such creation is subject to concurrent legislation of the National Assembly. The Supreme Court stated inter alia that "the enactment of Law 5 of 2002 by the Lagos State House of Assembly was not sufficient to give life to the new Local Government Areas until National

Assembly passes the consequential Act amending Section 3(6) Part 1 of the First Schedule to the Constitution.”

In the year 2020, executive order 10 was issued by the President to enforce existing provisions of the constitution which has been relegated to the background since inception of democratic rule, on financial autonomy of the judiciary and state parliament. This was resisted by state governors until Judiciary Staff Union of Nigeria (JUSUN) and Parliamentary Workers Union of Nigeria embarked on a nation-wide strike that lasted for almost two months. Beyond the independence of the judiciary at the state level it is improper that federating states cannot establish their own appeal and supreme courts. Reservation of appeal and supreme courts to the federal government is not in consonance with the spirit of true federation. Every state in the USA has its own appeal and supreme courts.

Expectedly, the Presidential Order 6 of 2020 on dissolution of State Joint Local Government Account and consequential direct statutory allocation to local government has generated heated debate in the polity. It brings to fore again the question of whether the local government councils are federating units or not. If they are not federating units, why and what is the justification for receiving directly from the federation account?

Constitution amendment has been carried out by the National Assembly twice but the major contentious issues of state police, resource control and full-fledged judiciary at the state level have not been addressed.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The incursion of military into politics in 1966, the suspension of 1963 Constitution, the creation of states, the militarization of governance through decrees and deviation from fiscal federalism contribute to the persistent demand and agitation for resource control and return to true federalism in Nigeria. Unfortunately, furtive efforts put in place to change the course of history and re-direct the nation to true federalism have not proven sufficient to address contentious issues. The political class is complicity in endorsing military legacy. Thus, despite the exit of the military from power, its legacies of unitary system have continued unabated under civilian administrations.

Implications for the Involvement of the military in governance are enormous. The military employed the instruments of coercion and force in controlling the states, agencies and resources without any recourse to democratic principles. There was also the entrenchment of dictatorship in

the administration of the country which has permeated the psyche of all the politicians since inception of the Fourth Republic. Governance/administration continues to be militarized and the management of the economy was by unitary system principles. Ethnic inequality promoted by former military dictators continues to generate feelings of dominance, subjugation and marginalization.

This study affirms that there is no true or fiscal federalism in Nigeria of today as most of the provisions in the 1999 constitution and decrees (now acts) have hoodwinked the states and local governments, and rendered them ineffective to deliver dividends of democracy to the grassroots. There is still an overbearing centre, with beggarly and weak federating units always running to the centre for bail-outs, interventions and allocation of federal projects. Federal Government still has some measures of financial control over the local governments domiciled at the grassroots and which the state ought to superintend. The police force is still centralised, making local policing a herculean task.

As the clamour for restructuring continues, revenue allocation to the tiers of government should be based on fairness and principles of true federalism. There is the need to create a condition for the federating units to generate the bulk of the funds they need to spend and to be responsible for spending them while being accountable to the locals who are endowed with the resources. Ewetan (2013) opined that we can borrow from the approaches of Canada, Australia, Germany, and the United States which are successful federations through their embrace of decentralisation and creation of strong fiscal systems and institutions.

It is often rightly alleged that the 1999 Nigerian Constitution was an imposition by the military government of General Abubakar Salami. In view of the fact that it was foisted on Nigerian by the military, the amendments being carried out by the legislature are seen to be superficial and insufficient to address the lop-sidedness in the Nigerian Federation (Oyebode, 2018). In a nutshell, the many constitution reviews since the commencement of the Fourth Republic in 1999 have not reversed the adversities inherent in the unification of Nigeria in 1966 as further entrenched in decrees and 1999 constitution.

Although the military has relinquished power since 1999, Nigeria is yet to retrace her steps to true and fiscal federalism due to the failure of the National Assembly members to agree on changing some provisions of the 1999 Constitution and replacing some decrees with viable acts of the National Assembly. Injustice and lack of fair-play have continued to characterise the practice of federalism to the extent that people now demand for true federalism now couched in restructuring.

The clamour for equity and fair-play in distributive politics has generated much debate that has often heated the polity. Rather than addressing the lopsided federal arrangement which hitherto favoured the central government, politicians blame the agitation for devolution of power through restructuring on partisan politics and ethno-centric agenda. Jegede (2016) opined that Nigeria needs to go back to the very foundation of her nationhood as entrenched in the 1963 constitution; this according to him will re-introduce trust, which is now lacking. The goal of call for restructuring in the view of Amuwo and Hault is to correct perceived structural defects and institutional deformities inherent in the Nigerian polity (Ahovi and Akingboye, 2016).

Vital issues of federalism among which are state or community police, minority language rights, land tenure and resource control still remain contentious. Some Nigerians have canvassed for referendums and plebiscites to determine the terms of relationship among the constituent unit. Another option being canvassed is to rework the present federal arrangement by transferring more powers and resources to the states by deliberately bringing constitutional re-engineering that will meet the local desires for stronger federating units. This step may address agitations of different political cleavages.

There is also the need to test the constitutionality of some of the decrees promulgated by the military now given legislative endorsement as Acts by the National Assembly in the law court to determine their consistence with the principles of federalism. Before a new constitution is put in place, there is an urgent need to review the revenue allocation formula if RMAFC will live up to expectation.

REFERENCES

- Adeniyi, A. S. (2014). Quest for State's Creation in Nigeria: An Harbinger of Development Or Underdevelopment? *Journal of Culture, Society and Development- An Open Access International Journal* 4, 68-71.
- Ahovi, I. &Akingboye, O. (2016). Regionalism: Pseudo federalism, the bane of Nigeria democracy. *The Guardian*, 15 May.
- Ajayi, G. (2007). *The military and the Nigerian state, 1966-1993: a study of the strategies of political power control*. Trenton, New Jersey: Africa World Press.
- Alao, A. (2001). The Republican Constitution of 1963: The Supreme Court and Federalism in Nigeria. *University of Miami International and Comparative Law Review*, Special Issue: 2001-2002 Africa at the Crossroads: Current Themes in African Law, 10(2), 91- 107.

- Alapiki, H. (2005). State Creation in Nigeria: Failed Approaches to National Integration and Local Autonomy. *African Studies Review* 48(3), 49-65.
- Albert, I. O. (2011). *Pinched, Ditched or Jinxed? The mantra of African solutions to African problems: An inaugural lectured delivered at the University of Ibadan*. Ibadan: Ibadan University Press Publishing House, University of Ibadan.
- Arowolo, D. (2011) Fiscal Federalism in Nigeria: Theory and Dimensions. *Afro Asian Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(2) 1-21.
- Bandy, L. X. (2016). Causes and cures VII: Structural violence, *Aggression and Violent Behavior*. 2016, 109–114.
- Bandy L. X. (2019). *Violence: An Interdisciplinary Approach to Causes, Consequences, and Cures*. New York, NY: Wiley-Blackwell, 123–42.
- David, O. & Bar-Tal, D. (2009). A socio-psychological conception of collective identity: The case of national identity as an example. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 13(4), 354-379.
- Ewetan, O. O. (2013) Fiscal Federalism in Developed, LDCs, and Transition Countries: Lessons for Nigeria. *Scottish Journal of Arts, Social Sciences and Scientific Studies*, 9 (2), 37-58.
- Farmaki, A. (2016).The tourism and peace nexus, *Tourism Management* 59 Elsevier Ltd, www.elsevier.com/locate/tourman, 528-540.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (1960). *The Constitution of the Federation of Nigeria (1960)*. Worldstatemen.org.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (1960). *Nigeria Independence Act 1960*, 8 & 9 Eliz. 2 c.55, Lagos: Federal Government Press.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (1963).*Nigeria Republic Act 1963*, c. 57, Lagos: Federal Government Press.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (2004). The Petroleum Act 1969 Cap P 10, *Laws of the Federation of Nigeria 2004*. Abuja: Federal Government Press.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (2007). Nigerian Minerals and Mining Act, *The Complete Laws of Nigeria*, Mar. 29, 2007, <http://www.placng.org/lawsfnigeria/node/360>..
- Field, A. J. (2004). *Why Multilevel Selection Matters*. Jena, Germany: Max Planck Institute for Research into Economic Systems.
- Galtung, J. (1969) "Violence, Peace, and Peace Research" *Journal of Peace Research*, 6(3), 167–191

- Hoffmann, L. K. & Chatham House (2020). Police, Protest Power, and Nigeria's Young [Commentary], 16 October 2020, Available online @ Leena Koni Hoffmann | Chatham House – International Affairs Think Tank.
- Jegede, A. (2016). 'Nigeria has to adopt 1963 Constitution'. *The Guardian*, 22 November Kirk-Greene & Millard (1971). *Crisis and conflict in Nigeria: a documentary sourcebook, Volume 1; Volume 9*. Oxford University Press, p. 124.
- Law, J. (2013) "How Can We Define Federalism?" In *Perspectives on Federalism*, 5, (3), 105-106. http://www.on-federalism.eu/attachments/169_download.pdf
- LeVan. A. C. (2014). *Dictators and Democracy in African Development: Political Economy of Good Governance*. Washington DC: Cambridge University Press
- Mansfield, E. D. & Snyder, J. (2007). Turbulent transitions: Why emerging democracies go to war. In *Leashing the dogs of war: Conflict management in a divided world*, 161-176.
- Odigwe, D. A. & Aibieyi, S. (2015). Fiscal Federalism and Development in Nigeria. *Public Policy and Administration Research*, 5(7), 36-44.
- Odubajo, A. (2013). *Comparative Federalism Course Material*. Lagos: National Open University of Nigeria.
- Ogunsanwo, A. (2018). *Nigeria and Governance Philosophy: Where are we?* Abuja: Nigerian Political Science Association
- Ohiomu S. & Oluyemi S. A. (2017). Fiscal Federalism and Economic Growth Nexus: Empirical Evidence from Nigeria. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 5(2), 1-16.
- Oladele, K. (2014). Fiscal Federalism and Development in Nigeria: An overview of core issues. [Online] Available: <http://Saharareporte.Com/article/fiscal-federalism-and-development-nigeria-core-issueskayode-oladele>.
- Oladesu, Emmanuel (2016). The mistake of 1966. Politics. *The Nation*, July 29.
- Olagunju L. (2018) [Opinion]: 2019: The final battle of the Generals, *The Tribune*, May 14, 2018,
- Onwuekwe, C. B. (2003). "Constitutional Development, 1914–1960: British Legacy or Local Exigency?". In Adebayo Oyebade (ed.). *The Foundations of Nigeria: Essays in Honour of Toyin Falola*. Africa World Press, 172–173.
- Oyebode, M. O. (2018). Pluralism and Sustenance of Peace in Nigeria: Workable Options. *Journal of Social Sciences (JSS)*. Journal of the Faculty of Social Sciences, National Open University of Nigeria, Nigeria, (2)1, 1-30.

Sagay, I. (2008). "How a True Federal System Should Run". *The Nation*, May 19th.

Utuk, E. I. (1975). "Britain's Colonial Administrations and Developments, 1861-1960: An Analysis of Britain's Colonial Administrations and Developments in Nigeria" (1975). Dissertations and Theses. Paper 2525. <https://doi.org/10.15760/etd.2521>.

Correlates of Unemployment, Poverty and Street Crimes in Calabar Metropolis, Cross River State, Nigeria

Jacob E. ASHIBI, PhD¹, Godwin E. OKPILIYA² & Stephen U. ANDREW³

Department of Criminology and Security Studies
National Open University of Nigeria
eashibi@noun.edu.ng

Department of Sociology
University of Calabar, Nigeria.
ekaheokpiliya@gmail.com
&

Department of Criminology and Security Studies
Arthur Jarvis University
stephen.andrew@arthurjarvisuniversity.edu.ng

Abstract

The incidence of street criminality in Cross River State, Nigeria has assumed a worrisome dimension and may be worsened if it is allowed unchecked. The study was primarily designed to investigate how unemployment and poverty as socio-economic factors relates to street crimes in Calabar Metropolis, Cross River State, Nigeria. Relevant literature was reviewed and the structural strain theory of crime was used to explain the crime problem. While the survey research design was adopted, the purposive and snowball sampling techniques were utilised for the administration of the questionnaire which formed the major instrument of primary data collection for the study. Using the survey systems online sample size calculation model, a total of 384 respondents were adopted for the study. Findings from the study revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between poor standards of living and unemployment to street crimes in Calabar Metropolis. Based on these findings, the following recommendations were made: local authorities should make and implement engaging policies and decisions that will affect the lives of the youths positively; government should revitalise areas of skill acquisitions and entrepreneurial development programmes for the youths; and the use of local contents with specific reference to human resources for paid labour/services should be given priority by the government and other viable private organisations.

Keywords: Crime, Unemployment, Poverty, Street crime, socio-economic

1.0 INTRODUCTION

No society in human history is devoid of crime. Therefore, crime is a common phenomenon in every society. The emergence of crime could be traced as far back to the existence of humans. Notably, Cain committed the first crime when he murdered Abel sequel to jealousy (Genesis, 4:1-18). Crime creates insecurity and gives discomfort to inhabitants of every society. Undoubtedly,

crime is inimical to the economic, social and psychological wellbeing of every society (Aderinto, 1998).

The cause(s) of crime has remained a topical issue of discourse. Unemployment and poverty are two major socio-economic factors that are threatening the world economy at present. Various nations of the world are making frantic efforts to reducing their crime rates by tackling the rising rate of unemployment and poverty. Generally, unemployment is a basic rudiment of financial incapacitation. It reduces wellbeing and drags the individual below the poverty line (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012).

While linking the incidence of crime to unemployment and poverty, it has been argued that these socio-economic factors do not influence the incidence of crime. For instance, some countries in the world (i.e Burundi and Zimbabwe) have high rates of unemployment and poverty, but their crime rates are relatively low. In fact, some nations in affluence, such as Qatar, Luxembourg and Singapore, experience higher crime rates (International Monetary Fund, 2013).

Conversely, there is also the argument that if street Crimes are generally committed by individuals under poor living standards, then, there must be a relationship between poverty and street crime. This argument has set scholars on their toes to making researches and proffering solutions to the actual cause of street crimes in the world today. While some Nigerian scholars like, Iwarimie-Jaja (2012), Biko (1997) and Odekunle (2006), have continuously indicated unemployment and poverty as the key factors responsible for the incidence of crime against property, others are of the opinion that unemployment and poverty have no causal effect on street crimes, but the modus operandi of Nigerian leaders.

Sequel to the emergence of the Islamic Militant sect - Boko Haram (BH), which has claimed thousands of lives since 2009 (World Report, 2019); it was the view of then President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan's administration that unemployment and poverty were the main causes of the youth taking up arms to criminality. Consequently, he resorted to the granting of amnesty to protesting militia groups, all in the bid to reducing the rate of criminality via generating employment opportunities for members of such militias in order to keep them productively busy. But, this has remained a point of serious debate on why amnesty should be granted to militia groups who take to criminality, as it will encourage the proliferation of more criminal group(s)/gangs in the quest to becoming beneficiaries of the amnesty programme, but not without collateral damages. This

implies that the granting of amnesty to militia groups could lead to more criminal tendencies (Onoge, 1998). They contend that the cause of criminality cannot be traced to unemployment and poverty alone, as no unemployed and poor youth will be able to purchase such sophisticated weapons of war, as it is in the case with the Boko Haram and the Niger Delta Militant groups.

Nigeria's developmental prowess has suffered serious retardation as a result of bad governance and poor management of her very rich natural resources (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012). Although, Nigeria is well blessed with rich natural and human resources, but these resources has been grossly underutilized by unfavourable economic policies. Corruption thrives in almost all sectors of the Nigerian economy. In fact, unemployment and poverty are perceived to be the major product corruption in Nigeria. It is against this background that this study focuses on the evaluation of the incidence of street crimes in Calabar metropolis of Cross River State, Nigeria, taking into consideration the role of unemployment and poverty.

Statement of the Problem

The incidence of crime in Nigeria has been an issue of serious concern amongst scholars (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012). Despite several frantic efforts made by the various security agencies to curb the rate of crime, the incidence of crime has remained relatively high (Odekunle, 2006). Since 1980, Nigeria has been named among the third-world countries of the world that is still going through an incremental incidence of different types of crimes (Dambazau, 2007). These crimes includes murder, armed robbery, car theft, rape, burglary, fraud, bribery, corruption, gambling, food and drug adulteration, kidnapping, human trafficking, smuggling, drug trafficking, internet scam, money laundering and fraud. Sadly, the youth are mostly culprits of these crimes. Consequently, criminality is replete in virtually every corner of the country.

A report by Aremu and Ahmed, (2011), indicated a “training school” for the unemployed youth, at an enclosed place in Ajegunle area of Lagos state; where they were trained to become professional armed robbers. The “training school” adopts the normal process of recruitment by application and interview. The targets were unemployed youths of age eighteen to twenty eight years. It was revealed that the camp also serve the purpose of planning and execution of robbery operations.

This trend of street criminality is not any different from that experienced in Calabar metropolis. The state capital of Cross River State (Calabar) has suffered inimical operations by street criminals

in attacking residents and carting away their valuables and monies. The Calabar South Local Government Area has become renowned for nocturnal criminal activities. In order to curb the spate of these criminal activities, youths in the area have often times resorted to the formation of vigilante groups that usually mans and apprehend culprits, but this has also led the youth to taking the laws into their hands by ways of jungle justice (Una, 2014, p.12). According to the Nigerian Police Force (NPF), Crime Investigation Department (June, 2014), "in less than three (3) months, over 28 criminals have been apprehended and killed by the youth in Calabar metropolis" (P.34). Also, in a research conducted by Ukwayi (2013), the estimated street crime rate in selected streets around hotspots areas in the Calabar metropolis showed that 44.35 percent crimes committed in the area was burglary followed by breaking of stores with a value of 43.02 percent. These findings point to the fact that street crime is leading the trail among other types of crimes in Calabar metropolis. Several arrest has been made by the Nigeria Police in Cross River State of suspects who specialized in robbing people in commercial vehicles. The act popularly referred to as “one chance”, is a menace that has long traumatised residents of Calabar metropolis. Their way of operation was posing as commercial motorists and robbing unsuspecting commuters of their money and other valuables (Affe, 2014).

What could be responsible for this high incidence of street crimes has remained a topical issue of discourse. Therefore, it has become pertinent to unravel the correlates of socio-economic factors like unemployment and poverty to street criminality in Calabar metropolis. Hence, this encapsulates the core essence of this study.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Poverty and Street Crimes

The effect of poverty on street crimes varies in great dimensions. Obviously, the poor suffers a higher degree of mental illness than the rich. These mental illnesses may result to depression and stress that may consequently pressure poor individual victims to committing such crimes as robbery, theft and many other street crimes. According to Iwarimie-Jaja (2012), “poverty may lead to an actual or perceived poor education, which would cause youth to count on less access to quality schools, jobs, and role models, decreasing the opportunity costs of crime and increasing the probability of youth spending time on the street associating with gangs, etc.” (p.54)

Crime is a means utilized by the poor in achieving or attaining their survival against the legitimate means set out by the society. They often employ the use of force, sometimes, even more deadly force in achieving their criminal objectives. This leads them to such criminal activities like armed robbery, which is rated as the second violent crime. These poor criminal victims perceive that the benefits of taking to crime outweigh the risk of being caught.

There have been different opinions on the role of poverty in criminality. Iwarimie-Jaja, (2012), reviewed several studies to show the relationships that exist between poverty and Crime. Criminologists such as Korn Hauser (2011), Cohen et al (1999), and Canter and Land (2000) opined that the discrepancies in the spread of crime are mainly due to the levels of poverty characterizing a place. Also, Vold and Bernard (2005) supported this claim by positing that the absence of certain required and indispensable wants of human minimum existence and well-being create opportunity for criminality to flourish in an area. Also, Block and Heineke (1997) and Kelly (2000) found a relationship or a link correlating crime and poverty. Chiu and Madden (1998) also discovered that the rural poor are more susceptible to committing crime against property than the affluence. However, Behman and Craig (2010) and Bourguignon (2000), contend that relative deprivation in conjunction with inequality and unemployment breeds social tensions as the less-off feel dispossessed when compared with wealthier people. Therefore, the feeling of disadvantage and unfairness leads the poor and unemployed to seek compensation and satisfaction by all means, including committing crimes. Conversely, Williams (2011) reviewed several studies on poverty and crime and concluded that “poverty does not have a causal relationship to crime, because there are countries in which poverty is very high but the crime rate is relatively low”. He observed that those studies that found a link between crime and poverty, argued from the economic perspective of Becker (1968) “that people weigh the consequences of committing crime, and if the cost or consequences are outweighed by the potential benefits to be gained, then they would commit crime”. However, studies by Decker (2007), Blau (2001) and Messner (1994) contradict this notion by contending that poverty has little or no relationship with criminal tendencies.

Criminologists are yet to agree on the issue of poverty as a cause of crime in society. Some Criminologists agree that poverty is related to poor condition of existence (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012). They posited that crime is a direct result of economic deprivation or indirectly of the outcome from the inability of some individuals to achieve the economic and educational requirement for

legitimate earnings from work. Although, poverty is a relative term, it does not explain all crimes. General statistics records do not provide adequate number of the affluent who commit crime as to enable us compare socio-economic backgrounds of persons who commit crime, whether the poverty stricken or the affluent commits crime more than the other. However, contemporary criminologists have concluded that poverty is an important factor that explains crime, but the elimination of poverty through improved standard of living and the provision of social needs and amenities will not eliminate crime in society (Onoge, 1988).

According to the Economic and Social Council and the secretariat of the United Nations (2005), "crime problems are rooted in processes of economic and social development" (p.76). To resolve crime, we must look inwards within society's economic structure. However, some scholars like Lopez-Rey, (2001) have pointed out that improvement of material conditions will considerably reduce crime rate, or even eradicate crime and juvenile delinquency. This assertion has been countered by opposing statements; for example, that if improvement of material conditions of existence could reduce crime rate, why has this not taken effect in economically advantaged and socialist countries (Braithwaite, 2002). However, criminologists, especially Marxist criminologists like Willem Bonger and Richard Quinney, agree that inadequate economic development will likely increase a country's crime rate. It is also true in some sense that if a country can remove the causes of its underdevelopment and raise the level of education and technology, to benefit its population, crime will be reduced, but not eliminated. Even in this case, only specific types of crimes will be reduced and not eliminated. For instance, it is argued by Ajufo (2013), that if there is adequate capital formation and income levels are raised, street crimes which are generally believed to be committed by ordinary people who basically lack simple things and amenities of life for survival will be reduced to the barest minimum.

Correlates of Unemployment, Poverty and Street Crimes

There are variations and inconsistencies from existing literatures on the relationship between unemployment and crime. While some studies reveal a significant positive correlation between unemployment and crime, some held a significant negative relationship between unemployment and crime, whereas others are yet to agree that there exist any relationship at all (be it positive or negative). According to Witte and Witt (2001), "most empirical studies of the unemployment - crime relationships have provided mixed evidence. Also different types of data had been used to

ascertain if the type of relationship existing between unemployment and crime. Examples include cross section data, time series data, pane data, aggregate data and regional data” (p.54). Some research supporting the existence of a significant positive relationship between unemployment and crime include that by witt (2001). He observed a lingering positive relationship between unemployment and crime. Fougere et al, (2003) drawing from a cross sectional data of France, concluded the presence of a significant positive relationship between unemployment and crime. Chiricos (1987), surveyed the basic studies on unemployment and crime and came out with the result that the relationship between unemployment and crime is significantly positive. Also, Andres (2002), drawing from Spain’s regional statistics, discovers a statistically significant relationship between unemployment and crime. Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) argued that the relationship between unemployment and crime is very insignificant. While Pyle and Deadman (1994) are of the opinion that unemployment may not be important to crime than other indicators of economic activity.

According to Adibe (2009), “the common tendency is to blame the pervasive wave of kidnapping outside the Niger Delta exclusively on the unacceptable rate of unemployment in the country, an inefficient and corrupt police force that is ill-equipped to fight crime, and collusion between criminals and politicians” (p.23). Hence, he observed these as a great sign of society disorder and that of a failing state.

In Nigeria, Poverty, unemployment and criminality are the basic problems that have become public issues in the social structure. The mixed relationships of poverty and unemployment have a continuous worsening evidence of mass poverty, increasing level of unemployment and an escalating crime in all its forms (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012). The categories of persons who are poor, unemployed and involved in most crimes against persons and property or conventional crimes are the youths. Iwarimie-Jaja, (2012, p.56), assumed that:

- 1.) Poverty tend to lead youths to commit crime;
- 2.) Unemployment also tends to lead youths to commit crime; and
- 3.) Poverty and unemployment will jointly tend to lead youths to commit crime.

If we look around the Nigerian society today, we see various signs of poverty. People who are poor, people who are unemployed and people whose condition of unemployment have made them to become poor. But we also see people who are poor, those that are unemployed and those whose

condition of poverty have made them to become poor, and have not committed crime of any sort, and so, have not been criminalized.

If poverty tends to lead youths to commit crime, we may ask why or how? The fact is that poverty renders youths powerless to the extent that they are unable to meet their basic needs and cannot express their dignity for what they desire, need or stand for. Youths who are poor feel despised and looked down upon by those persons who are not poor. In circumstances where they are to express themselves to obtain what they need in life, they are treated unfairly. They virtually have no power to afford lawyers to defend themselves for their rights. Generally, the youth who is poor lack good physical and mental health. In essence, poverty creates situations in the lives of the youths that make them feel frustrated and want to hit back at society. Therefore, it is only logical to say that the more the persistence of poverty in a person's life, the more the likelihood that he may become frustrated and take to violence or criminality.

Besides, the question might also arise that: if unemployment will lead youths to commit crime, how do we explain this causal relationship?

First, it is common knowledge that unemployment leaves youths especially those without skills and education to become frustrated from lack of jobs and hope in life. It also causes moral degradation and loss of self confidence and self actualization.

Studies of the emotional effects of unemployment have noted that people who are unemployed often pass through a series of stages as they adjust to their new status, while the experience is of course an individual one, the newly employed often experience a sense of shock, followed by optimism about new opportunities. When that optimism is not rewarded, as is often the case, individuals can slip into periods of depression and deep pessimism about themselves and their employment prospects. If the period of unemployment stretches on, the process of adjustment is eventually completed, with individuals resigning themselves to the realities of their situation (Giddens, 2001, p.410)

The psychological or emotional effects of unemployment on the unemployed youths are usually devastating, especially when the period of unemployment is prolonged. Therefore, there is a tendency that a longlasting unemployment period could lead the unemployed towards experiencing

deeper frustration and will most likely engage in criminal activities. This is why most serious crime of all sorts (e.g aggravated assault such as wounding, maiming and disfiguring, homicide – murder and manslaughter; rape, burglary, armed robbery, destruction of property, house breaking, store breaking and arson) are on the increase in contemporary Nigeria (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012).

Poverty and unemployment are life circumstances that happen to people. However, when people cannot do anything about their circumstances or situation of being poor and unemployed, then frustration sets in from the experience of stress (Iwarimie-Jaja, 2012). Stress has also been linked to violent crime.

The human mind, when submitted to unusual levels of stress, reacts in many different ways. The more unusual cases such as mental divergence occur when the mind creates an alternate reality in which the patient can exist, free from the stresses of real life. Other minds react with chronic depression, fatigue syndromes, which directly affects bodily functions... many victims of violent crime are subject to large amount of mental stress which in turn can increase the chance that they will be perpetrators of violent crime in the future (Brown, 2007, p.87).

Obviously, there seems to be a relationship between socio-economic conditions and crime. Most persons arrested, prosecuted and imprisoned for crime are from the lower socio-economic groups. For instance, an average distribution of a sample of offenders arrested in Port Harcourt Metropolis, Nigeria, revealed that 87.5 percent were very poor, 8.5 percent were poor, 2.5 percent were well off and 1.5 percent were very well off (Iwarimie Jaja, 2011). This implies that crime incidence is likely to be higher during a period of economic crisis than during a boom era. This is because economic crisis is usually accompanied by the impoverishment by a good number of the populace. This impoverishment may result from the rise in the rate of unemployment, drastic fall in real income, frustration, reduced access to major social amenities to include education, health, housing, etc. Given the one – to – one relationship between poverty and crime, crimes are likely to worsen during a period of economic crisis.

Contrarily, it could be argued that the prevalence of crime in highly developed countries negates the hypothesis that an increasing high standard of living and the provision of a variety of social services diminished crime. In fact, a stronger case can be made for the relation of influence to crime

(Galbraith, 2008). Crime rate has increased tremendously over the last century, in spite of constant rise in the living standards, in countries like Sweden, the United Kingdom and Germany. Indeed, the two countries with the highest per capita income – Sweden and the United State, have particularly serious crime problems. Supporting this line of argument, Middendorf (1993) has equally observed that improvement in living conditions, or what is called a better standard of living, does not necessarily by itself, reduce juvenile delinquency and crime. Bergali (1972) has also argued that if poverty was a cause of crime, then all state in Latin America should have a much higher crime rate than the United States, whose income per capital is much greater than any Latin American country.

Generally, street crimes are perceived to be committed mostly by the poor. Usually, property crimes are linked to the poor (Chiricos, 1987). In rural areas, the act of street crimes is often traced to poor economic conditions. Poor economic conditions motivate the poor individual to indulge in street crime in order to better the living standard. The use of violent force is applied in order to accomplish criminal objectives (Andres, 2002).

Using the social disorganization theory, Stack (2004) linked poverty to higher crime rate, especially to theft and other property crimes. He observed that violent crime was more prevalent in neighbourhood where majority of the population were poor. According to Gurr (1970, p.105), “exposure to poverty and violence creates a predisposition to violence, half of all homicides result from interpersonal conflict with another”.

The actual percentage of violence crime linked to poverty still remains a topical issue of public discourse. For the Positivist criminology, what motivates a criminal to commit crime is beyond his/het control. (Vold et al, 2005). Arguably, poverty influences the criminal to commit crime, but it is still difficult to link economic variables to all types of crimes such as, unemployment, broken homes, divorce, neighbourhood decay, etc. Scholars are of the opinion that poor individuals are more prone to steal, rob, abuse drugs and make illicit gains (Brenner, 2001).

In over 200 years ago, Quetelet studied crime and economic variables in France. He discovered that the prevalence of property crime in communities of affluence was high due to the fact that there were plenty of material things and money to steal (Vold et al, 2005, p.109). The reverse is the case for poor communities with nothing to steal. This signifies that since criminals are attracted

to material benefits, they are more likely to move to places of property to steal. Besides, there is no significant evidence that unemployment predisposes people to steal. Only a high unemployment rate can lead to an increase in criminal offences. The problems of research in this area always deal with the variable variations in terms of those factors responsible for the cause of crime. These factors may include, divorce, unemployment, poor schools, poverty, broken homes, poor housing quality, racial and ethnic mix, residential mobility, and population rate.

Crime does not reflect social or economic strata in the society. However, living under poor economic conditions may predispose individuals towards committing criminal offenses. If success in society is measured by ones' wealth, the less affluent might view unlawful means as the only avenue to gain material recognition in the society. This is because the lawful means are deemed to be more open to the affluent than to them.

Socio-economic and rational choice has been linked together (Zafirovski, 1998). Zafirovski broke down socio-economic factors of crime exhaustively, but the outcome signifies that all individuals make economic decisions rationally. They compare themselves with others economically and try to create improvement through legal or illegal means. The social influence that predisposes an individual towards committing a crime cannot be ruled out, but it also portrays the fact that potential individual criminals always weighs the risk versus reward ratio of any criminal action. The affluent is not influenced to still by poverty, because he/she already has an improved standard of living. Some scholars have also criticized the rational choice perspective. Boudon (2003) viewed the rational choice perspective as legitimate, but suffers from a weak stand point. He argued that several factors can play an individual towards committing an act of defiance. Social factors are also responsible for an individual to take to crime. It requires careful observation to be able to determine specific factors that may warrant individuals to committing criminal offenses. The decision to commit crime might be rational, but the circumstances of poverty may influence an individual to steal. If an individual is starving to death, it is cumbersome to resist the urge to steal in order to eat and survive.

In his research, Greene, (1993) observed the Chicago neighbourhoods replete with poverty and high violence rate. It is difficult to determine if poverty is caused by violence or vice versa, but it is obvious that both are linked together. The rate of violence and criminal offenses rouse to an extent where workers in some neighbourhoods withdrew their services, because they were most

often robbed and assaulted. Individuals who commit these crimes were mostly youths who have learned that they could benefit something through violence by way of social learning. Therefore, the desire to rob and steal money and other valuables are a function of violence. His survey revealed that the youths take to violent crimes for fear that they will never attain success by legitimate means set by the society. Others put the blame on the society where individual graduate cannot find gainful employment, other than working in a restaurant. Besides, for fear of violence, quality teachers do not go to such neighbourhood. Hence, is poverty responsible for the violence, or is violence responsible for the poverty? This has left such neighbourhood socially disorganised with no social support or social structure.

In his compilation of studies on rural crime, Arthur (1991) linked socio-economic conditions to criminal behaviour. He saw a direct positive correlation between crime rate and socio-economic conditions, like, inequality, per capita income, and unemployment rates. However, he observed that there is no significant correlation between crime and people under poor living standards. Crime is more prone when opportunities of gainful employment are blocked. He recommended the diversification of economic opportunities to create a balance, such as the location of manufacturing or production industries, other than merely agricultural activities.

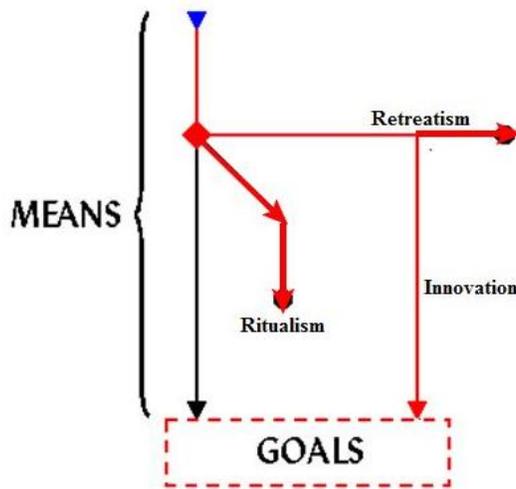
DeFronzo (1997) directly investigated the link between economic condition and criminal tendencies. He discovers an existing relationship between welfare recipients and crime. However, he opined that there will be lack of social bonding required for the reduction of crime especially in societies where single parenthood or broken homes is prevalent. There is no direct linkage of poverty to crime, but the association of poverty and social disorganization prevalent in poor neighbourhoods may tend to higher crime rates.

Theoretical Framework

The structural strain theory was adopted for this study to proffer explanations to the street crime situation in Calabar metropolis. The theory as developed by the American sociologist Robert K. Merton (1910 – 2003) lays emphasis on the wide disparity or inequality that exist within the stratification ladder of the society, amidst the overly importance placed on material wealth. According to Merton (1938), "the societal legitimate means of attaining socially approved goals were more open to some members of the society than they are to others" (p.36). He therefore

applied his concept of "Anomie" to imply a situation where norms are broken down by some members of the society as a result of the imbalance that exists in the society. Since the opportunity to attain success is more open to the "haves" than to the "have not", the later will likely deviate in other to attain success by seeking for alternative opportunities. These alternative means of attaining success culminates into several acts of street criminalities in Calabar Metropolis. Diagrammatically, Merton saw society as a cross between acceptable goals and legitimate means of attaining such goals. Thus:

Fig. 1: Mertonian Goals/Means Deviation Paradigm



Source: Crimetheory.com, 2019.

The Mertonian Goals/Means Deviation paradigm as indicated in figure 1 above portrays the paths of deviance from societal legitimate goals and the means of attaining them. The paths of retreatism, innovation and ritualism are considered alternative illegitimate means utilised by the "have not" in order to achieve societal approved goals. In summary, poverty has been implicated by this theory as the "have not" who sought for alternative means is a term used to represent the poor individuals in the society. However, this theory has been criticised on the basis that the assumption of the poor committing more crime than the rich is faulty; and it also fails to explain violent crimes.

3.0 MATERIALS AND METHODS

The Study Area

Calabar is a city that served as the first capital territory of Nigeria, but currently the Capital of Cross River State. Its metropolis is a combination of Calabar Municipality and Calabar South

Local Government Areas. It holds a total population of approximately 371,022 inhabitants, and an area of about 604 km². It is located on the bank of the popular Calabar River (See appendix) and belongs to the South - south geo - political zone of Nigeria. Her inhabitants are of the Efik speaking people and are known for their unique artistic skills, rich food, culture and traditions. It is one of the first regions invaded by the British, which has been inhabited for over 2000 years ago. Calabar was known to the European Sailors in the 15th century and was recognized as an international sea port since the 16th century.

It is a cultural centre in Nigeria where most families are involved in the development of culture, to ensure that their children maintain and preserve the Efik cultural traditions. It is also an educational centre that houses one of the premier universities in Nigeria – University of Calabar (UNICAL). Calabar is popularly known as a tourist destination due to its cleanliness, serenity and attraction sites and events. It is characterised by two major resort centres (Marina and Tinapa), an international airport (Margaret Ekpo International Airport), a cultural Centre Complex, an international stadium and a museum. As a commercial city, the Calabar metropolis housed numerous Banks, Hotels and a “Free Trade Zone (FTZ) / Export Processing Zone (EPZ)”. Calabar is popularly known and recognised both locally and internationally, for its annually organised Christmas Festival tagged “Carnival Calabar”.

With all of its serenity, attractiveness and commercial prowess, Calabar metropolis is replete with street crimes. Reports of nocturnal visit, attacks and dispossessing residents and visitors of their possessions by criminals, especially during festive periods is alarming. This has set the government on its toes, in making frantic efforts to curtail the menace of street crimes within the metropolis.

The Research Design

The survey design is employed for the study to determine the interplay between socio-economic factors and street crimes in Calabar metropolis of Cross River State. Relevant information were collated from the respondents through their responses to the survey instrument that was administered to them. The survey instrument was designed using the Likert scale of measurement, to measure the respondents’ attitude as it relates to the variables in this study. It consists of closed ended questions, constructed to extract more in-depth information relevant for the study. The questions are constructed in line with the research questions, objectives and hypotheses of this study. The questions are designed in a logical sequence beginning with simple themes and

progressing to complex issues to aggravate the curiosity of the respondents and to gradually stimulate question responses.

An introductory letter was made to explain reasons behind the survey and its importance, and to further seek their consent to accepting to participate in the research process. The survey design is chosen for the study because it is an efficient method of systematically collating, presenting and analysing data from the sample.

Population of the Study

The population under study constitutes the inhabitants of Calabar Metropolis. It consists of all males and females within Calabar Municipality and Calabar South Local Government Areas, with a Population of approximately 191,630 and 171,392 inhabitants respectively (2006 population Census). Therefore, the population of this study sums up to approximately 371,022 inhabitants.

Sample and Sample Size Determination

The sample consists of all males and females within the age bracket of 18years and above, who have lived in the study area for not less than 2 years. In order to determine a sample that represents the target population of this study as precisely as needed, the sample size calculator is used by imputing an assumed confidence interval of five and a confidence level of 95 percent for a total population of approximately three hundred and seventy one thousand and twenty two (371,022) inhabitants (within the description of the population of this study) in the metropolis. Hence, the sample size for this study consists of three hundred and eighty four (384) respondents.

Fig. 2: Sample Size Calculator

Determine Sample Size

Confidence Level: 95% 99%

Confidence Interval:

Population:

Sample size needed:

Source: <https://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>

This Sample Size determination tool as shown in FIG. 2 above is an educational tool of “Creative Research Survey Systems” (CRSS) software. The confidence interval is the addition or subtraction figure often demonstrated in poll results. According to the CRSS (2013, p.37):

while using a confidence interval of four and 47 percent to represent picks for your sample, you should be confident that between 43 percent (47-4) and 51 percent (47+4) of your respondents would have chosen the same answer. Whereas, the confidence level is an assurance indicator of the expected result or answers. It is usually shown as a percentage and tells how often respondents of the study would likely pick answers that lies within the confidence interval. The 95 percent confidence level implies the researcher can be 95 percent certain; the 99 percent confidence level indicates that the researcher can be 99 percent certain. The 95 percent confidence level is often used by most researchers.

Sampling Technique

The purposive and snowball sampling techniques were adopted for the study, because they are the most efficient methods in targeting the required samples with specific characteristics as specified for the study. The respondents were selected across the two local government areas (Calabar Municipality and Calabar South) that make up for the Metropolis of Calabar in this study. The selection of each respondent was based on a non-probability procedure, but on the criteria that eligible respondent is up to the age of 18 years and must have lived within Calabar metropolis for not less than two (2) years. The period of two years was assumed to be sufficient enough for the respondents to have familiarized his/herself with the study area, to be able to provide relevant information for the study. Physical contacts were made and eligible respondents were administered the questionnaire. The areas of questionnaire distribution were largely residential. This technique is deemed adequate as the selected sample is based on certain criteria that will fit the purpose of the study and a representation of the entire population.

Instrumentation

A self administered questionnaire was employed to collate data for the study. The questionnaire was carefully developed to elicit relevant information for the study of socio-economic factors and street crime in Calabar metropolis of Cross River State.

The questionnaire is divided into two (2) Parts. With part I, made up of seven (7) items, designated to elicit relevant demographic data of the respondents. Part II, which is divided into six (6) Sections (A-F), contains nineteen (19) questions, targeted towards eliciting information from the respondents on the types of street crimes prevalent in Calabar Metropolis; the possible causes; unemployment and street crimes; poverty and street crimes; incidence of street crimes and the possible solutions to the problem of street crimes in Calabar Metropolis.

Reliability of the Research Instrument

The test – retest method was employed to determine the viability of the instrument used in this study. After administering the same instrument twice to the same respondents, the results, when compared, showed a great degree of consistency. After the first administration of the instrument, the researcher allowed for a period of two (2) months before re-administering the same instrument to test for its validity. Table 3.1, shows the result of reliability using Cronbach’s alpha.

TABLE 3.1

Test–retest reliability table

S/N	Variables	Test	Retest
1.	Causes of street Crime	0.87	0.88
2.	Poverty	0.88	0.89
3.	Unemployment	0.89	0.90
4.	Types of street crime	0.90	0.90
5.	Perpetrators	0.84	0.83
6.	Socio-economic status	0.87	0.88

Cronbach’s alpha, N=384

Method of Data Analysis

The information gathered from the survey were analysed with the Statistical Package for the social sciences (SPSS), and the results are presented in simple tables of frequencies and percentages. Hypothesis one, two and three are tested using the Chi-square, independent sample t-test and the Spearman Rank Correlation statistical tools of data analysis respectively.

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Table 1: Distribution of the research respondents by gender.

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	221	57.6
Female	163	42.4
Total	384	100.0

Source: Field Work, 2020.

Data from table 1 above revealed that the study had more male respondents than females. This is evident to the fact that more males were willing to partake in the research process.

Table 2: Distribution of respondents’ responses on the types of street crimes prevalent in Calabar Metropolis

Types of Street Crimes	Frequency	Percent (%)
Armed Robbery	121	31.5
Prostitution	57	14.8
Illegal drug trade	32	8.3
Car theft	15	3.9
Assault	27	7.0
Burglary	132	34.4
Total	384	100.0

Source: Field Work, 2020.

Table 2 above indicates that burglary followed by armed robbery are leading the trail of street crimes in Calabar metropolis, whereas, Car theft is the least prevalent street crime in the metropolis.

Table 3: Distribution of respondents’ responses on the causes of street crimes in Calabar Metropolis

Causes of Street Crimes	Frequency	Percent (%)
Poverty	106	27.6
Corruption	23	6.0
Unemployment	113	29.4
Illiteracy	17	4.4
Peer pressure	73	19.0
Drug or Alcohol	52	13.5
Total	384	100.0

Source: Field Work, 2020.

From table 3 above, unemployment, followed by poverty were discovered to be the two major factors identified by the respondents as the causes of street crimes in Calabar Metropolis. Illiteracy was the least identified factor that may lead to street criminality in the area. This might be due to the situation of core tertiary institutions like the University of Calabar (UNICAL) and Cross River State University of Technology (CRUTECH), in the area.

Table 4: Chi-Square observed and expected counts

Gender Counts		Are street crimes in Calabar metropolis perpetrated by the unemployed?		
		Yes	No	Total
Male	Actual Count	121	100	221
	Expected Count	130.6	90.4	221.0
Female	Actual Count	106	57	163
	Expected Count	96.4	66.6	163.0
Total	Actual Count	227	157	384
	Expected Count	227.0	157.0	384.0

Source: Field Work, 2020.

Table 5: Chi-square test of difference

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Chi-Square	4.101 ^a	1	.043		
Continuity Correction ^b	3.687	1	.055		
Likelihood Ratio	4.127	1	.042		
Fisher's Exact Test				.046	.027
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.091	1	.043		
N of Valid Cases ^b	384				

Source: Field Work, 2020.

The Chi-square test in Table 5 above indicates that there is a significant relationship between unemployment and street crimes (Chi-square = 4.101, df = 1, p [0.043] < 0.05).

Table 6: Group Statistics

(victims and non-victims)

	Responses	N	Mean	Std.	Std. Error
				Deviation	Mean
Street crimes are mostly committed by the poor in Calabar metropolis.	Yes	111	3.1171	1.42535	.13529
	No	273	3.4396	1.40017	.8474

Source: Field work, 2020.

Table 6 above shows the independent group statistics of victims and non-victims of street crimes in Calabar metropolis. It compares the number of participants, their mean, standard deviations and standard error of their mean. In order to determine how significantly different the mean variables

of the two groups (Victims and Non-victims of street crimes) are. Table 7 is computed below for t-test.

Table 7: Independent sample test

Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
Variable	Variances	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tail)
Street crimes are mostly committed by the poor in Calabar metropolis	Equal Variances assumed	1.394	.238	-2.035	382	.000
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.020	200.75	.000

Source: Field work, 2020.

Table 7 above shows the significant difference of the independent sample t-test values when tested at a 382 degree of freedom. Since the significant or p-value (.000) is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected. Hence, there is a statistically significant relationship between poverty and street crimes in Calabar metropolis.

Discussion of Findings

Generally, unemployment and poverty have been significantly implicated as causes of street criminality in the metropolis of Calabar, Cross River State. The test of the null hypothesis, which states that poor standard of living does not influence street crimes in Calabar Metropolis, indicate that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between poor standard of living and street crimes in Calabar metropolis. This result is buttressed by the view of Korn (2011), Cohen et al (1999), and Cauter and Land (2000), who opined that the differentiation in the spatial distribution of crime is mainly due to the degree of poverty characterizing an area. Also, Vold et al (2005) supported this claim by maintaining that the lack of certain fixed level of material goods necessary for human minimum existence and well-being create opportunity for criminality to

flourish in an area. Besides, Chiu and Madden (1998) also discovered that people living in poverty have a much greater chance of committing property crime than the general population.

The statistical test of the relationship between unemployment and street crime also proved significantly positive. This result reflects the views of Behman and Craig (2010) and Bourguignon (2000), who contend that relative deprivation in conjunction with inequality and unemployment breeds social tensions as the less-off feel dispossessed when compared with wealthier people. Therefore, the feeling of disadvantage and unfairness leads the poor and unemployed to seek compensation and satisfaction by all means, including committing crimes. Therefore, Crime will thrive in conditions of economic fluctuations, gross unemployment and mal-distribution of wealth and property.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Although street crime is a common phenomenon among nations, but the problem of unemployment and poverty are the two major challenges bothering a significant proportion of residents in Calabar metropolis. This problem has facilitated the scourge of street crimes in Calabar metropolis. Burglary and armed robbery are the two major street crimes prevalent in Calabar metropolis. The creation of more employment opportunities will alleviate potential street criminals and keep them gainfully busy and away from the act of street crimes. Arrest and prosecution of street criminals will serve as deterrent to potential offenders, more especially that anyone can become a street criminal irrespective of his/her social and economic status, by the machinery of social learning.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. Local authorities should make engaging policies and decisions that will affect the lives of the youths positively.
2. Government should diversify into areas of skill acquisitions and entrepreneurial development programmes. This will encourage self employment, alleviate poverty, deter the youths from the act of street criminality and reduce the burden of over – dependence on government paid jobs.
3. The use of local contents with specific reference to human resources for paid labour/services should be given priority. This will keep the youths gainfully engaged.

REFERENCES

- Aderinto, A. E. (1998). Students' unrest and urban violence in Nigeria, in urban management and urban violence in Africa. *Proceedings of an International Symposium on Urban Management and Urban Violence in Africa*, 32(1), pp. 223-238.
- Affe, M. (2014, July 9). "C'River police arrest 19 'one Chance' thieves". *Punch News Paper*. <http://www.punchng.com>
- Aremu, A., & Ahmed, Y. (2011). An investigation of security and crime management in developing Society: The implications for Nigeria democratic set-up. *International Journal for Academic Research*, 3(1), 390-399.
- Behrman, J. R., & Craig, S. G. (2010). The Distribution of Public Services: An Exploitation of Local Government Preferences. *77 AM Economic Review*, 65, 47- 49.
- Biko, A. E. (1997). *Black Women and the Criminal Justice System*. News books.
- Bourguignon, F. (2000). *Crime, Violence and Inequality Development*; in annual World Bank Conference on Development Economics. Edited by Boris Pleskovic and Joseph E. Stiglitz. Washington, DC.
- Cauter, U., & Land, R. (2000). *The rational Choice Perspective in Environmental Criminology and Crime Analysis*. William Publishers.
- Chiu, W. H., & Madden, P. (1998). Burglary and Income Inequality. *Journal of Public Economics*, 69, pp. 123-125.
- Cohen, L., Felson, M., & Land, K. (1999). Property Crime Rates in the United State: A Macro-dynamic Analysis. *American Journal of sociology*, 56, 342-346.
- Dambazau, A., (2007). *Criminology and Criminal Justice 2nd ed*. Ibadan: University Press.
- IMF. (2013). *World Economic Outlook (WEO) Data Base Report*. London.
- Iwarimie-Jaja, D. (2012). *Criminology: Crime and Delinquency in Nigeria*. Pear publishers.
- Iwarimie-Jaja, D. (2012). *Criminology: the Study of Crime*. 4th ed. SIJ Publishers.
- Korn, R., (2011). *Social Sources of Delinquency*. University of Chicago Press.
- Mertonian Goals/Mean Deviation Paradigm. (2019). crimetheory.com, 2019
- Odekunle. F. (2006). Opening Remark to the Meeting for Establishment of the Nigerian society of Criminology held in Port Harcourt, Rivers State, 18 - 21 September.
- Onoge, O. (1988). Crime and Control in Nigeria: The Problem of Robbery in Ukwu. *Dimensions of Social Problems in Nigeria*. NIPSS.

Robert K. Merton. (1938). *Sociology of Science and Sociology as Science*. Columbia University Press.

Survey Research Systems. (2020). Sample Size Calculation Model.
<https://www.surveysystem.com/sscalc.htm>

Ukwayi, J. (2013). Conflict and crime in the society: A bane to socio-economic development in Nigeria. *Studies in Sociology of Science*, 4, 1-6.

Una, K. (2014). "Robbery Attacks: Residents of Calabar Resort to Jungle Justice". *Vanguard News Paper*. 15th Feb., 23.

Vold, B. G., Bernard, J. T, & Snipes, B. (2002). *Theoretical Criminology* (5th ed.). Oxford University Press.

World Report. (2019) <https://www.hrw.org/world-report/2019/country-chapters/nigeria#>

**An Investigation of National Policy Responses to Climate Change Impacts in Lagos State,
Nigeria**

Adekunle AKINOLA, PhD

Department of Political Science
Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba Akoko
Email: adekunleakinola99@gmail.com

Abstract

The international regime approach through the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) recognises Nation-States as the major actor in climate governance. Hence, the success or failure of climate mitigation and adaptation plans are solely dependent on the action/inaction of nation-states. Nigeria is among the first country in Africa to ratify the Kyoto Protocol in 2004. The country submitted her first communication to the UNFCCC in 2003 and developed a National Climate Change Policy Response and Strategy in 2012. However, little is known on how these policies have addressed the impacts of climate change in Lagos State, the economic hub of the country. Using a mixed methodology, this study examined how national policies have addressed the impacts of climate change in selected coastal communities in Lagos State. The study revealed that the people at the community level are not aware of most of the national climate change mitigation and adaptation policies, hence, these policies have not adequately addressed climate change impacts in Lagos State. The study concluded that for national policy to be successful, the local people that are most vulnerable to climate change impacts must be at the center of planning and implementation.

Keywords: Climate Change, Climate Mitigation, Climate Adaptation, Climate Governance

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Climate change is one of the biggest challenges of the 21st century; extreme weather events such as windstorm, flood and drought have continued to cause enormous destruction in both developing and developed countries (Glasser, 2020). According to Consumer News and Business Channel Environment Report (2020), floods, hurricane, wildfires, and other climate-induced disasters cost the world 210 billion dollars in 2019, with developing countries in Asia and Africa suffering the highest share of 60 percent of the total loss. Third world countries are vastly exposed to climate change impacts due to their substantial reliance on sectors that are sensitive to climate change, such as agriculture, livestock production, natural resources, and ecosystem services (Tol, 2020). For example, erratic rainfall and a high incidence of drought make crop production difficult and constitute a major challenge to food security (Tol, 2020).

Moreover, in Nigeria, the focus of this study, climate change effects are apparent in the drought experienced in areas already prone to water scarcity and flood in some other areas. For instance, desertification in the Sahel in the Northern part of Nigeria has led to a consistent loss of farmlands (Igwe, 2010). In other parts of the country, floods have become a perennial challenge with ascending intensity each year, causing enormous economic losses and the loss of lives. According to the National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) report between 2012 and 2017, it is recorded that devastating floods displaced two million, four hundred and forty-two thousand Nigerians; and it caused more than one thousand deaths and destroyed several properties (NEMA, 2018). Lagos State, which is the epicenter of economic activities in Nigeria is not exempted from the adverse impacts of climate change. The vulnerability of the city stems from her geographical features which include a seaside that is flat in topography with an elevation that is above sea level with less than 1.5m, wetlands and water bodies of approximately 40 percent of the land area. Flood incidence in the state has continued to pose a major challenge to the economy of the state and drains its capacity of contributing to the GDP of Nigeria. For example, flooding in Bariga, Ketu, Oworonshoki, and Lekki areas of Lagos State in 2018 displaced over a thousand people and destroyed properties worth more than two million dollars (NEMA, 2019).

Meanwhile, the challenges posed by climate change is being dealt with by nation-states through the establishment of international treaties. The UNFCCC secretariat has organised twenty-five Conferences of Parties which have led to the development of several international treaties; most importantly, the Kyoto Protocol of 1995 and the 2015 Paris Agreements (Falkner, 2016). Nation-states that are signatories to these agreements also design and formulate national policies that will aid the actualisation of the targets set by the international climate change agreement. In other words, a country's commitment towards the implementation of any international treaty is known in the national adaptation and mitigation plans of such a country (Andresen, 2014).

The efforts of the Nigerian government in addressing climate change started with the ratification the Kyoto Protocol in 2004. This led to the creation of the Special Climate Change Unit in 2006 with the responsibility of coordinating climate change issues for the federal government. The Unit was changed into a department under the Federal Ministry of Environment in 2013 (FME, 2015). Nigeria submitted its First National Communication (FNC) to the UNFCCC in 2003; the Second National Communication in 2014. Expectedly, these international commitments of Nigeria's government to climate change mitigation and adaptation have birthed several climate change

policies and programmes such as the National Adaptation Strategy and Plan of Action (NAS-PN). However, it remains unclear how these policies will address the challenges posed by climate change at local level. Hence, this study asks two questions: what are the national climate change mitigation and adaptation measures in Nigeria? How have these measures addressed the impacts of climate change in Lagos State? In doing this, the study is divided into four sections. The first part reviews relevant literature related to the study, the second section presents the methodology, the third section discusses the national climate change mitigation and adaptation measures in Nigeria and the last section discusses and analyses the data on the perception of the local communities in Lagos State to the national climate change policies of the government.

2.0 NATION-STATES AND CLIMATE GOVERNANCE: A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Studies on the role of national governments in climate governance in the literature are dominated by international regime approach apologists (Andresen, 2014; Betsill et al., 2015; Falkner, 2016). The international regime approach recognises nation-states as the key actor in climate change governance. It starts with the assumption that the atmosphere, unlike nation-states, has no boundary; greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions in one place can have severe impacts in other places. Those with little or no contribution to emissions will also suffer from its negative impact. Governing climate change, from this standpoint, involves dealing with the problem of a resource that is held in common, which no single actor or institution has control over. In a definitive way of outlining the problem, Hurrell and Kingsbury put it thus: Can a split and often highly antagonising political system that is made up of over 190 sovereign states and many other actors achieve exceptional levels of cooperation and policy direction required to govern environmental problems on a global scale? (Michaelowa and Michaelowa, 2017). Scholars in this area have sought to understand and unravel climate governance by deploying a regime approach to explain the establishment, stability, and effectiveness of the international agreements and institutions to the problem that necessitates their establishment (Marquardt, 2017). These viewpoints proved predominantly attractive for understanding international climate change governance because they respond to issues that conventionally relate to a global environmental problem (Fuhr et al., 2018). These consist of the need to control the states' behaviour to evade the supposed tragedy of commons and the desire to regulate the propensities to free-riding.

Most scholars have primarily focused on identifying the condition through which nation-states can effectively govern climate change through the establishment of international treaty (Gupta, 2014; Andresen, 2014;). Analysing a treaty involves studying the conditions and manner through which the treaty is established. Effectiveness of such treaty is determined by the level of cooperation among members in adherence to the treaty (Tol, 2020). Scholars who assessed the effectiveness of UNFCCC from the Kyoto Protocol to the Paris Agreement argue that performance is below expectations of practitioners and climate scientists (Bodansky, 2016; Böhmelt and Spilker, 2016). Some of the reasons for this low performance are well captured by Victor (2016), which includes path dependency, asymmetry and fragmentation. Others include the institutional arrangements established by the UNFCCC, the dynamics of global conference and the distribution of power.

However, recent scholarships have revealed that climate governance is no longer under the prerogative of nation-states only but that of diverse and multiple actions such as transnational, subnational and civil society organisations (Cole, 2015; Dorsch and Flachland, 2017). The key argument for scholars from this perspective is that the advent of globalisation and neoliberalism has weakened the power of national government in regulating high emission generation sectors, in which private sectors now have more power than the state. On the contrary, other scholars acknowledge the importance of nation-states actions at the national level. Ostrom (2010) submits that solutions negotiated at the global level, if not backed up with national, regional and local actions, will not be successful (Ostrom, 2010). Similarly, Dorsch and Flachland, (2017) argue that national governments are an integral part of the increasingly diversified climate governance structure because of the territorial sovereignty of nation-states. Meanwhile, the efficacy of national approaches to addressing the challenges posed by climate change remains an issue for scholarly investigation due to the limited evidence on its effectiveness on global emission reduction for the past twenty-eight years. As a way of contributing to the scholarly conversation, especially from the global South perspective, this study investigates how national climate mitigation and adaptation policies have addressed climate change impacts in Lagos State, Nigeria.

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To answer the research questions raised in the study a mixed methodology which involves the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data was utilised. The quantitative data were collected through the distribution of questionnaires in the study area and analysed using the

Frequency Distribution Table. The Frequency Distribution Table allows the research to answer the research questions based on the frequency of the respondents' feedback. The qualitative data was gathered through in-depth interview and analysed using content analysis.

Study Population and Sample Size

Lagos State is the population of the study; meanwhile, six local governments were selected for the study. The local governments are: Ajegunle-Ifelodun, Eti Osa, Surulere, Ikorodu, Ojo and Alimosho LGAs. The selection was based on their proximity to the coast and their vulnerability to climate change impacts. The Yamane (1967) statistical tool was employed to determine the sample size. Hence, four hundred questionnaires were administered using Bowley (1926) formula for proportional allocation. For the qualitative data, six people were purposively selected for the interview. This includes community leaders and government officials responsible for climate policy formulation and execution in the study area.

NIGERIA'S NATIONAL CLIMATE CHANGE GOVERNANCE FRAMEWORK

The Nigerian government recognises the significance of creating a national response to climate change, and the different arms of government are initiating actions to establish a concrete governance architecture to respond to the problem posed by climate change. The Federal Executive Council in 2012 approved the National Climate Change Policy Response and Strategy. The policy thrust includes ensuring a climate-resilient society and low carbon economic growth and development. The strategies for implementation are: mitigation and adaptation measures, public awareness, climate science and technology, the participation of private sectors and strengthening of institutions (FME, 2014). The objective of the National Policy is to ensure economic growth and development, low carbon and foster a climate-resilient society through the following measures: (i) strengthening climate adaptation capacity at the national level (ii) implementation of mitigation strategies that will enhance low carbon and sustainable economic growth (iii) increase in public awareness and campaign and promotion of the involvement of private sector in addressing climate change (iv) Strengthening of national mechanisms and institutions to create a functional and suitable framework for climate governance and (v) promotion of research, and build climate change science and technology to a level that will allow the country to participate actively in scientific and technological cooperation on climate change issues at the international level.

The government developed a Nationally Appropriate Mitigation Action (NAMA) as a way of achieving the national obligations under the UNFCCC. NAMA serves as a blueprint for government to design programmes and measures that support climate-resilient infrastructures, low carbon economy and gender-sensitive development. Nigeria’s Intended National Determined Contribution (INDC) was approved in 2015. Table 1 shows the key summaries of INDC.

Table 1. Summary of Nigeria’s INDC

Aspect	Details
Major goal	Reduction from Business as Usual
Target year	2030
Period of implementation	2015-2030
Conditional and unconditional mitigation goals	45 percent conditional 20 percent unconditional
Key strategies and measures	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Ending of gas flaring by 2030 ii. Reforestation and climate-smart agriculture iii. Improvement in electricity grid iv. By making gas generators efficient v. Making energy renewable vi. Reduction of transmission losses
Estimated Emission level per individual	Current: 2 tonnes Under Business as Usual by 2030: 3.4 tonnes Under Conditional Reduction: 2 tonnes
Global Assessment Used	Fourth IPCC Assessment Report
Gases Covered	Carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxide
Percentage share out of global emissions	Less than 1 percent (2010)
Historical Emissions level (1850-2010)	2,564.02 million tonnes

Source: INDC (2015).

Table 1 shows that under a business-as-usual circumstance, the emissions level of Nigeria is expected to rise to 900 million tonnes per year by 2030; this indicates 3.4 million tonnes per

individual. Currently, using the data from 1850-2010, the total emission level is 2, 564.02 million tonnes, and per individual was two tones. The country seeks to achieve 20 percent conditional, and 45 percent unconditional emission reduction target which will make emission per individual to remain at 2 tonnes by 2030. As a way of achieving the ambitious mitigation objectives by the national government, several measures and strategies are set out in each sector of the economy, and each of the sectors has an emission reduction target which is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Key sectoral mitigation measures and strategies

Sector	Strategies and Measures	Potential Emission Reduction per year in 2030 (in million tonnes)
Energy	i. Use of renewable energy	200 million tonnes
	ii. Increase in energy efficiency	
	iii. Promoting the use of natural gas rather than fossil fuel	
Agriculture and Land use	a. Prohibiting the use of charcoal	74 million tonnes
	b. Promotion of Climate Smart Agriculture	
Industry	i. Promoting the adoption of green technology	102 million tonnes
	ii. Regulating industrial energy usage with internal best practice	
Transportation	i. The gradual shift from air transport to high-speed rail	26 million tonnes
	ii. Mass urban Transit	
	iii. Upgrading of roads	
	iv. The shift from freight to rail	
	v. Promotion of the use of CNG	
Oil and Gas	i. Strict enforcement of gas flaring regulations	64 million tonnes
	ii. Development of microgrid such as Gas to Power Plants.	
	iii. The blending of 20 percent volume of Biodiesel with petroleum diesel and 10 percent of volume fuel ethanol with gasoline as transportation fuels.	

Source: Compiled by the Author. (see INDC, 2015).

Table 2 shows the mitigation measures and the potential emission reduction target set by the Nigerian government as a way of achieving the obligation of the country to undertake mitigation

initiatives under the Paris Agreement. Nigeria’s government has national adaptation goals, which are discussed in the next section.

NIGERIA’S NATIONAL ADAPTATION POLICY FRAMEWORK

The National Adaptation Strategy and Plan of Action was developed under Building Nigeria’s response to climate change projects for the Department of Climate Change of the Federal Ministry of Environment. The document describes the adaptation priorities of the country by reducing the susceptibility of the people to climate change impacts and strengthens the adaptive capacity of the economy. The objectives of the policy include the following:

- To strengthen the resilience of Nigerians to climate change
- To lessen the susceptibility of the people and minimise risks through building adaptive capacity and seek new opportunities.
- To improve preparedness and awareness creation on climate change impacts.
- To mobilise community participation in climate change actions
- To cushion the climate change impacts on major sectors of the economies and vulnerable groups
- To integrate adaptation plans into government planning at all levels and partnership with CSOs, universities and the media.

To accomplish the above objectives, there are some measures and strategies for each sector of the economy. Some of the key adaptation measures for the critical sectors are stated in Table 3.

Table 3. Key adaptation strategies for key sector of the economy

Sector	Adaptation Measures and Strategies	
Agriculture	i.	Adoption of improved soil management techniques
	ii.	Providing early warning and weather forecasts to farmers
	iii.	Diversification of livestock and improvement of range management
	iv.	Use of irrigation system of farming
	v.	To put more focus on the impacts on agriculture in the savannah zones
Housing and Human settlements	i.	Development of climate adaptation plan of action for areas at risk
	ii.	Supporting of communities through participatory planning of housing.
	iii.	Discouraging the building of houses in low lying areas and high-risk zones

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| Forest and Forest Resources | <ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Improving the implementation of Community-Based Forest Resources Management Programmeii. Enhancing the implementation and review of the National Forest Policy.iii. Maintaining and develop a forest inventory that facilitates the monitoring of forest and forest resources.iv. Strengthening of forest reserves management and strict enforcement of logging activities.v. Provision of extension services to communities, CSOs and private sectors that will help to restore and establish community nurseries, plantations, and natural forest. |
| Water and Water Resources | <ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Development of management of water resources programme.ii. Intensifying and strengthening measures to survey water quantity and quality.iii. Enhancing the management of water demand and explore the efficiency of water.iv. Promoting artisanal fisheries and encouraging aquaculture. |
| Health | <ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Conducting research to recognise the effect of climate change on health.ii. Increasing the prevention and treatment of diseases that are likely caused by climate change.iii. Developing health surveillance and early warning programmes.iv. Facilitating and promote the utilisation of technologies and practices that minimise health impacts of climate change. |
| Biodiversity | <ol style="list-style-type: none">i. Implementing National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan, especially actions that address the impacts of climate change.ii. Implementing recommended adaptation measures in sectors that shape biodiversity conservation such as, energy, agriculture, and forestry. |
| Energy | <ol style="list-style-type: none">i. To increase protective margins in placement and construction of energy infrastructure.ii. To commence risk reduction and risk assessment programmes to enhance the resistance of the sector.iii. To enhance and improve existing infrastructure through timely actions.iv. To build energy backup systems that will allow supply of energy to critical sectors during emergency. |
-

		v.	To expand energy sources and decentralisation of transmission to minimise the susceptibility of energy infrastructure to climate change.
Commerce and Industry		i.	By increasing awareness creation on climate change opportunities and risks.
		ii.	By implementing risk reduction and risk assessments measures.
		iii.	By incorporating climate change into an organisational business plan.
		iv.	By encouraging the relocation of high-risk facilities, markets, and industries.
		v.	By encouraging insurance schemes for industries.
Transportation and Communications		i.	Increase of protective margins in the construction of transportation and communications infrastructure.
		ii.	Strengthening and improvement of existing communication and transportation infrastructures through timely efforts to ascertain and implement all feasible actions.
		iii.	Building communication backup systems that will allow access to communication during an emergency.
		iv.	Commencement of risk reduction and risk assessment programmes to enhance the resistance of the communication and transportation sectors.

Source: Compiled by the Author, See BNRCC (2011). National adaptation strategy and plan of action on climate change for Nigeria.

Table 2 and 3 show the climate mitigation and adaptation strategies of Nigeria’s government. This data reveals that the Nigeria government backup her international climate change commitments through the development of mitigation and adaptation strategies for key sector of the economy. However, the effectiveness of these policies can only be assessed at the grassroot where people that are being affected by climate change impacts reside. This is the focus of the next section.

4.0 DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

The next section presents and analyses the quantitative and qualitative data concurrently.

The effectiveness of National Climate Change Measures on the impacts of Climate Change in Lagos State

To examine how national climate change policies is addressing/ have addressed the challenges posed by climate change in Lagos State, respondents were asked to indicate their level of approval or disapproval using the 1-5 Likert scale about the existence and implementation of the national climate change measures in their community. Table 4 shows the responses of the participants.

Table 4: Responses on how National Policies have addressed Climate Change impact in Lagos State

S/N	Response	Agree		Strongly Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly Disagree		Total	
		Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
1	The federal government of Nigeria has several programmes on environmental protection in your community.	11	2.8	36	9.2	42	10.7	197	50.4	105	26.9	391	100
2	Members of your community do participate in the implementation of these programmes.	8	2	6	1.5	22	5.6	192	49.1	163	41.7	391	100
3	These programmes by the federal government have reduced the vulnerability of your community to the effects of climate change.	5	1.3	10	2.6	39	10	193	49.4	144	36.8	391	100
4	There is an awareness campaign by the federal government of Nigeria on the causes and impacts of climate change in your community.	6	1.5	29	7.4	63	16.1	176	45	117	29.9	391	100
5	The federal government of Nigeria has green and resilient cities programme in your community.	7	1.8	19	4.9	59	15.1	196	50.1	110	28.1	391	100
6	The federal government of Nigeria does provide financial support for victims of extreme weather events such as flood and windstorm.	15	3.8	33	8.4	37	9.5	234	59.8	72	18.4	391	100
7	The federal government of Nigeria has a rural electrification programme in your community	7	1.8	11	2.6	26	6.6	282	72.1	65	16.6	391	100
8	The federal government of Nigeria has a tree planting campaign in your community	8	2	15	3.8	59	15.1	276	70.6	33	8.4	391	100
9	The federal government of Nigeria has a programme for promoting the use of animal waste as manure in your community	5	1.3	21	5.4	56	14.3	233	59.6	76	19.4	391	100
10	The federal government of Nigeria has a law of management of forest reserve in your community	243	62.1	91	23.3	40	10.2	5	1.3	12	3.1	391	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2019

Table 4 shows the result of the existence of programmes by the federal government of Nigeria on environmental protection and the perception of the people about the programmes. For any

particular government policy to be successful, the people who are the beneficiaries of such policy must be actively involved and knowledgeable about the existence of such policies or programmes. Table 4 reveals that most of the respondents, representing (77.3 percent), disapproved of the claim that Nigeria's federal government has several programmes on environmental protection in their community. Although, a small proportion of the respondents, representing (12 percent), affirmed that the federal government has several programmes on environmental protection in their community. Based on the results, the federal government of Nigeria's policies and programmes on climate mitigation and adaptation are unknown to people at the local level. This result reveals a failure in the actualization of the core objectives of the national adaptation policies aimed at ensuring the participation of people and community members in climate action (see BNRCC 2011). How can the people participate in what they are not aware of? The rationale for this communication lag is due to the poor implementation of policies by Nigeria's federal government (Adelekan, 2016; Elias and Omojola, 2015)

However, the result from the qualitative data was contrary to the above; an official of the Lagos State Ministry of Environment Special Climate Unit stated that: the federal government of Nigeria has several policies and measures on climate change. Moreover, the emission reductions target of Lagos State is the one set by the federal government. The rationale for this conflicting result is not farfetched: community members at the local level are often being neglected by the government, in most cases, by paying lip service towards the concern of the people. Another participant supports this position by stating that *“the Nigerian government designs robust climate policies with no concrete plan of implementation”*.¹ While highlighting some of the factors that affect climate policy implementation a participant state that:

“One of the major factors affecting policy implementation is poor funding, climate finance is very expensive and the dwindling oil revenue is affecting the capacity of the federal government to implement some of her climate change programmes across every state in Nigeria”.²

1 An interview with a community leader in Eti Osa.

2 Interview with a government official at the Ministry of Environment

Studies such as Obodo and Anighata (2017), Haider, (2019) identify paucity of funds, lack of proper planning, low technical know-how and corruption as some of the factors affecting policy implementation in Nigeria. This implies that for climate mitigation measures and strategies to be effective, these factors must be adequately dealt with.

On the participation of community members during the planning and implementation of national climate change policies, the result reveals that bulk of the respondents, signifying (90.8 percent) disapproved of the claim that members of their community do participate in the implementation of programmes of the federal government on climate change. This result is not surprising because it was affirmed in the previous finding in which most of the people at the community level agreed that the federal government of Nigeria has no climate change programmes in their community. This means that people at the local level in Lagos State cannot participate in the implementation of a programme that they do not know exists (see Elias and Omojola, 2015).

Furthermore, concerning the creation of the awareness campaign on climate change by the federal government of Nigeria, the result shows that the majority (74.9 percent) of the respondents, disapproved that Nigeria's federal government has an awareness campaign on the causes and impacts of climate change in Lagos State. The qualitative data also show a similar result; a participant states that *"awareness campaign on environmental protection is not done by the federal government in their community"*.³ This result shows a gap in the actualisation one of the major objectives of the national adaptation and mitigation plan of action of the Nigerian government, which states that government will ensure participation and awareness among the people on the adverse impacts of climate change.

Furthermore, on the existence of Green and Resilient Cities programme of the federal government of Nigeria in their community, the result indicates that most of the respondents, representing (78.1 percent), opposed the claim of the Green and Resilient Cities programme of the federal government of Nigeria in their community. The interview also confirms this position: *"Lagos State is not one of the states chosen by the federal government for the implementation of the Green and Resilient*

3 Interview with an official of Lagos State Environmental Protection Agency

City Project".⁴ This result indicates that the programme is not being implemented in Lagos State (see Zakka et al., 2017).

On loss and damage and climate financing, the result reveals that majority of the respondents, representing (78.2 percent) rejected the claim that the federal government of Nigeria does provide support for victims of flood and windstorm. However, the result also shows that (11 percent) of the respondents affirmed that the federal government provides financial support for flood victims. Caution must be taken before concluding that the federal government of Nigeria has no financial support for victims of floods. The reason is that financial supports by the federal government through Nigeria's National Emergency Management Agency (NEMA) do not go directly to the people. The funds are given to the affected State Emergency Management Agency (SEMA). Thus, the affected victims will receive the fund from their state emergency management agency; they will likely think that the funds are being provided by the state government, but it is always with the support of the federal government (NEMA, 2019). For instance, an official of Lagos State Emergency Management Agency (LASEMA) states that: "*We do receive support such funds and technical assistance from the National Emergency Management Agency, however, in most cases these resources are not enough to meet the needs of victims that we need to cater for*".⁵ This indicates that the federal government do provide support to victims of climate-related disaster but it is not adequate.

On the existence of the rural electrification project of the federal government in their community, the finding reveals that most of the respondents, consisting of (88.7 percent) affirmed that the national government does not have a rural electrification campaign in their communities. Moreover, on the existence of a reforestation programme, the result shows that majority of the respondents, representing (79 percent), reject the assertion that the federal government has a tree-planting campaign in Lagos State. The result contradicts the commitment made by Nigerian President Muhammadu Buhari at the 2019 United Nations special conference on climate change in Washington DC where he said that Nigeria would plant twenty-five million trees (see: This day,

4 Interview with an official of Lagos State Environmental Protection Agency

5 Interview with an official of Lagos State Emergency Management Agency

2019). With this result, there is no sign of any tree planting campaign by the federal government. The statement in Washington DC is mere rhetoric without a concrete plan of implementation.

On the encouragement of the use of animal waste as manure by the federal government, the finding implies that a preponderance of the respondents, representing (79 percent), opposed the assertion that the federal government of Nigeria has a programme on promoting the use of animal waste as manure in their communities. Finally, on the existence of a law on forest reserve in Lagos State, the result indicates that a massive chunk of the respondents, representing (75.4 percent), affirmed the statement that the federal government of Nigeria has a law on forest reserve in Lagos State. Hence, it is illegal in Lagos State to go into a forest reserve and cut trees. However, a community member that participated in the interview affirms that:

Law to preserve the forest by the federal government of Nigeria was not enacted for climate change. Instead, it was enacted for the government to have the exclusive right to cutting the trees for exportation. When climate change was gaining momentum in Nigeria, the Nigerian government quickly saw the forest reserve law as an opportunity to campaign against deforestation.⁶

This claim is highly contestable, because the study by Popoola (2018) shows a decline in tree exports 13.8 million to 6.1 million in 2017. This decline is due to the ban of cutting of trees by the Nigerian government.

On whether the programmes by the federal government of Nigeria has reduced the vulnerability of the people to climate change, 1.3 percent agreed, 2.6 percent strongly approved, 10 percent were undecided, 49.4 percent disagreed and 36.8 percent strongly disagreed. From the result, it can be deduced that majority (86.2 percent) of the respondents, opposed the claim that the programmes of the federal government of Nigeria have reduced the vulnerability of the people to climate change. This result is also substantiated by the interview with the civil society organisations, in which they affirmed that the policies of the federal government have little or no impacts on the vulnerability reduction of the people at the local level⁷. Hence, it is not inappropriate to argue that

6 Interview with a community leader at Ajegunle-Ifelodun local government

7 Interview with an official of Non Governmental Organisation

national climate policies have not effectively addressed the adverse effects of climate change in local communities in Lagos State.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study examined the national climate change mitigation and adaptation measures in Nigeria and how these measures have addressed the impacts of climate change in Lagos State-the economic hub of the country. The study revealed that federal government of Nigeria has several mitigation and adaptation measures with the aim of reducing the vulnerability of the people to climate change. However, implementation of these measures at the local level where the people that are being affected by climate change reside has been a daunting task. The study discovered that most of the local community members in Lagos State are not aware of these national climate change measures, neither do they participate in the process of formulation nor implementation. Some of the challenges affecting proper policy implementation include paucity of funds, lack of political will, poor planning among others. For the strategies to be successful in strengthening the adaptive capacity of the people, there is need for a better approach that will put the people at the center of planning and implementation.

REFERENCES

- Andresen, S. (2014). The Climate Regime: A Few Achievements, but Many Challenges. *Climate Law*, 4(1-2), 21-29.
- Bodansky, D., (2016). The Paris climate change agreement: a new hope? *American Journal of International Law*, 110(2), 288-319.
- Böhmelt, T. and Spilker, G., (2016). The interaction of international institutions from a social network perspective. *International Environmental Agreements: Politics, Law and Economics*, 16(1), 67-89.
- Breitmeier, H., Underdal, A., & Young, O. R. (2011). The effectiveness of international environmental regimes: Comparing and contrasting findings from quantitative research. *International Studies Review*, 13(4), 579-605.
- BNRCC 2011. *National adaptation strategy and plan of action on climate change for Nigeria* (NASPA-CCN). Prepared for the Federal Ministry of Environment Special Climate Change Unit. <http://csdevnet.org/wpcontent/uploads/NATIONAL-ADAPTATION-STRATEGY-AND-PLAN-OF-ACTION.pdf>. Assessed 11 October 2020.

- Betsill, M., Dubash, N. K., Paterson, M., Van Asselt, H., Vihma, A., & Winkler, H. (2015). Building productive links between the UNFCCC and the broader global climate governance landscape. *Global Environmental Politics*, 15(2), 1-10.
- Bulkeley, H., & Newell, P. (2015). *Governing climate change*. Routledge.
- Cole, D. H. (2015). Advantages of a polycentric approach to climate change policy. *Nature Climate Change*, 5(2), 114-118.
- Dorsch, M. J., & Flachsland, C. (2017). A polycentric approach to global climate governance. *Global Environmental Politics*, 17(2), 45-64.
- Elias, P. and Omojola A., 2015. Case study: The challenges of climate change for Lagos, Nigeria. *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability* 13: 74-78
- Falkner, R. (2016). A minilateral solution for global climate change? On bargaining efficiency, club benefits, and international legitimacy. *Perspectives on Politics*, 14(1), 87-101.
- Federal Government of Nigeria (2013). *Nigeria Post-Disaster Needs Assessment – Floods*. https://www.gfdrr.org/sites/gfdrr/files/NIGERIA_PDNA_PRINT_05_29_2013_WEB.pdf
- Federal Ministry of Environment (2013). *History of environmental protection in Nigeria*. Available at <https://ventureburn.com/tag/lagos-state-environmental-protection-agency/> Assessed 10 November 2020.
- Federal Ministry of Environment 2014. *United Nations Climate Change Nigeria: National Communication*. Available at <https://unfccc.int/sites/default/files/resource/nganc2.pdf>. Assessed 11 November 2020.
- Federal Ministry of Environment, (2015). *Nigeria and Climate Change: Road to COP 21*.
- Fuhr, H., Hickmann, T., & Kern, K. (2018). The role of cities in multi-level climate governance: local climate policies and the 1.5 C target. *Current opinion in environmental sustainability*, 30, 1-6.
- Glasser, R. (2020). The climate change imperative to transform disaster risk management. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Science*, 1-3.
- Haider, H. (2019). Climate change in Nigeria: Impacts and responses. K4D Helpdesk Report 675. Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.
- Marquardt, J. (2017). Conceptualizing power in multi-level climate governance. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 154, 167-175.
- Michaelowa, K., & Michaelowa, A. (2017). Transnational climate governance initiatives: designed for effective climate change mitigation?. *International Interactions*, 43(1), 129-155.

National Bureau of Statistics, 2019. Social statistics in Nigeria. Abuja: The NBS Publication.

National Emergency Management Agency, 2019. *Flood incidence in Nigeria*. Available at <https://www.pmnewsnigeria.com/2020/12/07/flood-kills-68-people-across-nigeria-in-2019-nema/> Assessed 20 April 2020.

Obodo, N. A., & Anighata, O. D. (2017). Challenges of policy implementation in Nigeria: A case of monetization policy. *International journal of social science and management research*, 2(1), 30-35

Ostrom, E. (2009). A polycentric approach for coping with climate change. *Available at SSRN 1934353*.

Thisday, (2019). Nigeria to plant five million trees. Available at <https://www.thisdaylive.com/index.php/2020/02/28/fg-govs-agree-to-plant-25m-trees/>. Assessed 16 December 2020.

Tol, R. S. (2020). The economic impacts of climate change. *Review of Environmental Economics and Policy*. 14(1) 113-126.

Victor, D.G., (2016). Making the promise of Paris a reality. *The Paris agreement and beyond: international climate change policy post-2020*, 13, .17

Zakka, S. D., Permana, A. S., Majid, M. R., Danladi, A., & Bako, P. E. (2017). Urban greenery a pathway to environmental sustainability in sub Saharan Africa: A case of Northern Nigeria Cities. *International Journal of Built Environment and Sustainability*, 4(3).

Climate Change and Survival of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Nigeria

Ganiyat A. ADESINA-UTHMAN, PhD¹, Tunde Abubakar BAKARE-AREMU, PhD² and Rakiya MAMMAN, PhD³

^{1&2} Department of Economics
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: abakare-aremu@noun.edu.ng

³ Department of Development Studies
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: rmamman@noun.edu.ng

Abstract

The beginning of the 21st Century usher in a new facet in the global atmospheric circumstance due to economic and non-economic activities of people, such as burning of fossil fuels (i.e. coal, petroleum, natural gas). The general emission disturbs the temperature of the planet and radiation balance, therefore leading to an increase in the earth's temperature and ultimately resulting to global warming. Global warming is a resultant effect of emission of greenhouse gasses such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), and methane and are consequently result to a greater source of climate change. However, small and medium scale enterprises' survival becomes a challenge in the apparent presence of climate change and its resultant effects. It is clear and can never be overemphasised those industrial activities of infant industries contribute enormous greenhouse elements which over heat the global atmospheric template, which contributes to climate change. This study evaluates the possibility of ailing infant industries surviving the mammoth effect of climate change in Nigeria, using both descriptive and econometric method on the dataset that spanned 1980 – 2019. The Autoregressive Distributed Lagged (ARDL) model was adopted, Augmented Dickey Fuller unit root was used to smoothen the dataset, while ARDL Bound test confirmed the long run relationship among the macroeconomic variables. The result suggests that the adverse effect of climate change on small and medium scale enterprises is overwhelmingly great and that an urgent solution is required. Therefore, the study suggests a policy approach that will create incubation centres, provide intervention funds, and enhance the meteorological centre to provide global best practice services.

Keywords: Climate Change, Small and medium Scale Enterprises, Descriptive analysis, Nigeria.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The use of principal natural resources such as coal, petroleum, natural gas, water, sun and air are very crucial to human to reconstruct and transform economies. There is an urgent necessity to harness these resources of nature in a way that can replenish the earth and save the planet for future generations (Campbell, 2018). However, the beginning of the 21st Century usher in a new facet in the global atmospheric circumstance due to economic and non-economic activities of people, such

as burning of fossil fuels (i.e., coal, petroleum, natural gas). The general emission disturbs the temperature of the planet and radiation balance, therefore leading to an increase in the earth's temperature and ultimately resulting to global warming. Global warming is a resultant effect of emission of greenhouse gasses such as carbon dioxide (CO₂), and methane and are consequently result to a greater source of climate change. As reiterated earlier, climate change could be seen as the change of climate conditions attributable to human activities that alter the composition of global atmosphere which is in addition to natural climate variability observed over comparable period of time. Small and medium scale enterprises' survival becomes a challenge in the apparent presence of climate change and its resultant effects. According to Canadian Chamber of Commerce (2006), Gases that occur naturally in the Earth's atmosphere mainly water vapour, carbon dioxide and methane are responsible for keeping the Earth warm enough to sustain life as we know it. These "greenhouse gases" work much like the glass of a greenhouse, allowing the sun's rays to pass through and warm the Earth, and then trapping some of this heat in the atmosphere. Without these naturally occurring gases the Earth would be a frozen landscape."

It is clear and can never be over emphasised that industrial activities of infant industries contribute enormous greenhouse elements which over heat the global atmospheric template which contributes to climate change. In addition, Africa appears composed for economic take-off and Prospects for the African internal market are most promising, but one critical challenge that Africa faces together with the rest of the world is how to make SMEs and climate-change policies compatible with each other. Given the reality of climate change, it is important however to: (i) to identify and take advantage of new opportunities arising, (ii) to minimize potential negative impacts on industry from climate change, and promising for strengthening economic and social development along environmentally-sustainable pathways

This study evaluates the possibility of ailing infant industries surviving the mammoth effect of climate change in Nigeria. This is achievable using both descriptive and econometric method on the dataset that spanned 1980 – 2019.

2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

There is a general belief that desire employment generation in Nigeria could be achieved through development of small and medium scale enterprises (Awosika, 1997; Schmitz, 1995). Also, Gunu (2004) and Aremu (2010) posited that Small Scale Enterprises provide income, savings, and employment generation. They are seen as veritable engines for the development of entrepreneurial capabilities and indigenous technology which will generate employment in the country. It is a general belief world over that small and medium scale industries constitute the basis for industrial development and national economy growth in many countries. It has been estimated that SME's employ 22% of the adult population in developing countries (Daniel 1994 and Fisseha 1991). Small and medium scale enterprises can be regarded as one of the important elements of a country's development and this plays a crucial role in the economy of this nation. It is also an acceptable fact that small and medium scale enterprises speed up the rate of social and economic development of many countries, particularly developing countries. They served as an engine room through which attainment of national objectives relating to employment generation at low investment cost and also the development of entrepreneurial capabilities and indigenous technology. It would equally reduce the flow of people from rural areas to urban areas, henceforth, it can be easily established by the relatively less skilled labour force of a developing country, Small and Medium Scale Enterprises contribute substantially to the gross domestic product, export earnings, and development opportunities of the countries.

After the attainment of independence in Nigeria in 1960, much emphasis has been laid on growth of small and medium scale industries as means of reducing the incidence of poverty and unemployment in the country. At the early stages of industrialization, Japan's economy was characterized by traditional industries and a large number of small firms who as of that time drew their strength not from an abundant supply of capital, but from their vast supply of labour. So in Japan "during the interwar years (1919 - 1938) and after government policies accorded and continued to accord due priority to country small and medium scale enterprises (Mosk, 2010). Various studies conducted indicated that about 50 per cent of small and medium scale enterprises surveyed did not receive external finance while 77 percent indicated they lacked access to financial resources. The secret behind the success of a self-reliant strategy in any economy does not lie solely in any particular socio-political or socio-economic philosophy, but so much on people's attitude to small enterprises. The objective of this paper is to examine the relevance of small and

medium scale enterprises as a means of generating employment and reducing poverty level in Nigeria.

The findings have shown that most SMEs particularly in Nigeria die within their first five years of existence. It was also revealed that smaller percentage goes into extinction between the sixth and tenth year while only about five to ten percent of young companies survive, thrive and grow to maturity. Many factors have been identified as likely contributing factors to the premature death. Key among this include insufficient capital, lack of focus, inadequate market research, over-concentration on one or two markets for finished products, lack of succession plan, inexperience, lack of proper book keeping, irregular power supply, infrastructural inadequacies (water, roads etc.), lack of proper records or lack of any records at all, inability to separate business and family or personal finances, lack of business strategy, inability to distinguish between revenue and profit, inability to procure the right plant and machinery, inability to engage or employ the right caliber staff, cut-throat competition and inability to deal with the issue of climate change (Basil 2005).

The existing literature on the business response to climate change (e.g., Kolk and Pinkse 2005; Enqvist et al. 2008; Linneluecke and Griffiths 2010) seems to be largely normative rather than empirical in nature and tends to focus on larger firms. Similarly, government policies on climate change often focus predominantly on larger firms (Bradford and Fraser, 2008; Revell and Blackburn, 2007), with less emphasis on the roles that SMEs can play (CCC, 2008). Yet, as SMEs constitute larger proportion of businesses in Nigeria, understanding their environmental impact and engagement, both generally and with respect to climate change, seems highly important (Gadenne et al., 2009; Revell and Blackburn, 2007; Purvis et al., 2000).

Climate change is chosen as the focal environmental issue here as it is frequently argued to be the greatest environmental challenge facing the world today (e.g., Henson, 2006; DEFRA, 2019) and is a key focus of international, European and UK policy. With climate change issues prominent in public environmental debate and government policy (UK Climate Change Act 2008).

It was deemed a suitable issue around which to focus the empirical investigation, on which this study is based, this is because small and medium scale enterprises are everywhere in Nigeria, and their contribution to the growth of the economy can never be overemphasized, so inquisition into the effect of climate change on this economic hub is not a misplacement of empirical priority.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study adopts both descriptive and econometrics method of data analysis, the two methods are required to explicitly establish both empirical and theoretical relationship between climate change outcomes and the small and medium scale performance in Nigeria. The adoption of descriptive analysis is based on the linear relationship between SMEs output growth (as proxy for its performance) and a number of climate change outcomes. This graphical illustration shows the movement of main variable in line with the climate change outcomes as discussed in section IV. The data used are annual dataset of index of SMEs output growth rate, air pollution rate, land pollution rate, water pollution rate, and gas pollution rate. The pollution rates represent the climate change, such that the higher the pollution rates the more severe is the effect of climate change on economic activities.

To further unleash this empirical relationship more scientifically, this study adopts the Ordinary Least Square (OLS) technique to establish the nexus between SMEs output growth and the climate change agents as listed earlier through linear estimation of Nigerian macroeconomic output function, making SMEs output growth the dependent variable while the regressors and the agents of climate change. The annual dataset used were filtered and smoothed through a set of pre-estimation tests such as stationarity test or unit root test, co-integration test (specifically ARDL Bound Test) etc., this (pre-estimation test) is due to the stochastic nature of the time series data.

The unit root test (Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF)) was employed to filter and smooth the dataset, while Autoregressive Distributed Lag Bound test was applied to establish whether or not there is existence of long run relationship among all the variables, this was because the unit root result indicates that all variables but one was integrated at first difference. Thereafter a macroeconomic model of SMEs Output function was estimated using the method of Autoregressive Distributed Lagged Model for same reason why ARDL Bound test was used. The post-estimation tests were carried out to ascertain the stability, normality, reliability, and forecasting power of the model estimated. The dataset used in this study were obtained from Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) statistical bulletin (2019) and the Index Mundi Bulletin, National Environmental Protection Agency Report.

This study therefore hypothesized that there is no climate change agents or outcomes that has influence on small and medium scale enterprises’ performance in Nigeria. Using econometrics method known as Autoregressive Distributed Lag Model (ARDL).

Empirically, the SMEs output function could be written implicitly and explicitly as follows;

$$SMEQ_t = f(APR_t, LPR_t, WPR_t, GPR_t, INFR_t) \text{-----} (1)$$

$$SMEQ_t = \varphi_0 + \varphi_1 APR_t + \varphi_2 WPR_t + \varphi_3 GPR_t + \varphi_4 INFR_t + U_t \text{-----} (2)$$

All the variables are rated so need for log transformation. Therefore the dynamic short run model is presented in equation (3)

$$\Delta SMEQ_t = \varphi_0 + \sum \varphi_1 \Delta SMEQ_{t-1} + \sum \varphi_2 \Delta APR_t + \sum \varphi_3 \Delta LPR_t + \sum \varphi_4 \Delta WPR_t + \sum \varphi_5 \Delta GPR_t + \varphi_6 INFR_t + \delta ECV(-1) \text{-----} (3)$$

A-priori expectation

$$\varphi_0 = \varphi_1 = \varphi_2 = \varphi_3 = \text{-----} = \varphi_6 < 0 \text{-----} (4)$$

$$\delta < 0 \text{-----} (5)$$

Similarly, this study hypothesized that all the parameters to be estimated are equal zero. That is;

$$\varphi_0 = \varphi_1 = \varphi_2 = \varphi_3 = \text{-----} = \varphi_6 = 0 \text{-----} (6)$$

This implies that none of the macroeconomic factors listed in the model has either direct or indirect relationship with Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria.

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section is dedicated for empirical inquisition of the nexus between SMEs output growth and the climate change outcomes, starting with the descriptive analyses to econometrics and statistical analyses, going by the methodology earlier discussed in section III of this study.

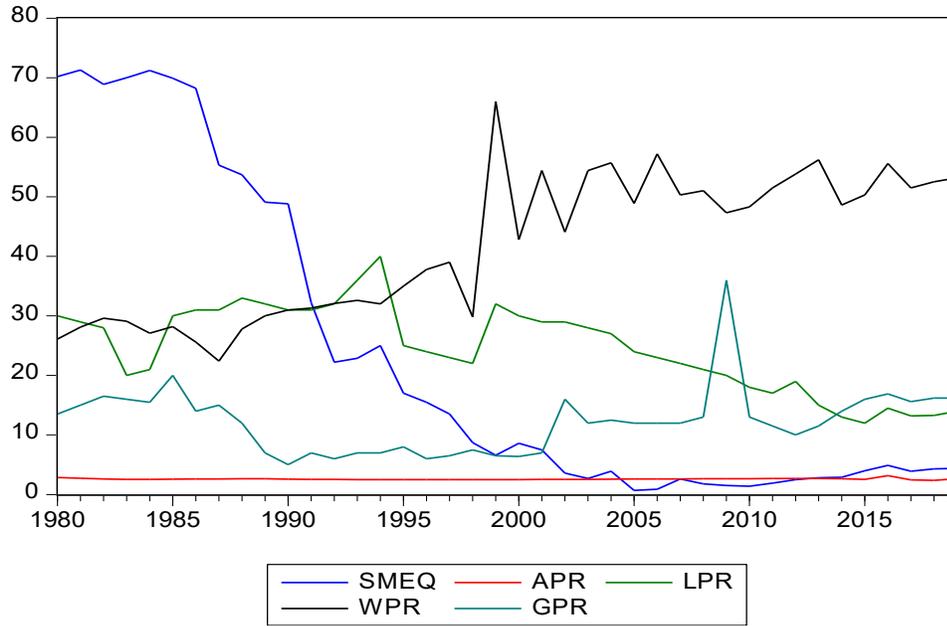


Figure 1: Graphical Expository of the Nexus between Small and Medium Scale Output Growth Rate and the Climate Change Outcomes

Source: Authors' composition (2020)

The Figure 1 above shows the bivariate relationship between index of SMEs output growth rate on one hand and each of the climate change agents on the other hand. The trend indicates that the air pollution, land pollution, water pollution and gas pollution have a lot of negative impact on the SMEs output. In 1992 there was a shock that brought about surge in the climate change agents and its impact on SMEs output growth was enormous, and for the remaining years under study, the growth rate of SMEs output lies under all the agents of climate change. The implication of this is that the entire climate change agents absolutely overwhelmed the SMEs output growth.

Furthermore, the graphical exposition also shows that climate change outcomes have negative impact on SMEs output as indicated earlier, however a further examination through empirical analysis and econometric testing would reveal a greater association between the main variable (SMEs output growth rate) and the climate change outcomes. It was equally implied that the effort to control or combat the negative impact of climate change has not yielded the expected results, therefore there should be a renew effort to manage the incidence of climate change on SMEs in Nigeria.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

	SMEQ	APR	LPR	WPR	GPR	INFR
Mean	23.17500	2.598500	24.57500	41.70500	12.27000	18.53700
Median	8.050000	2.575000	24.50000	43.45000	12.00000	12.20000
Maximum	71.30000	3.160000	40.00000	66.00000	36.00000	72.80000
Minimum	0.700000	2.390000	12.00000	22.40000	5.000000	5.380000
Std. Dev.	26.47042	0.126015	7.193578	11.92640	5.544561	16.28594
Skewness	0.902593	2.326911	-0.129964	0.030369	1.829115	1.792534
Kurtosis	2.134604	11.22666	2.093667	1.595834	9.374557	5.388535
Jarque-Bera	6.679348	148.8933	1.481669	3.292286	90.02939	30.92969
Probability	0.035449	0.000000	0.476716	0.192792	0.000000	0.000000
Sum	927.0000	103.9400	983.0000	1668.200	490.8000	741.4800
Sum Sq. Dev.	27326.64	0.619310	2018.155	5547.319	1198.944	10344.04
Observations	40	40	40	40	40	40
Source	<i>Source: Author's Computation, (2020)</i>					

The descriptive statistics towards the direction of the graphical illustration but in more scientific manner. The small and medium scale enterprises mean value (23.18), directly follow the mean value of land pollution rate and water pollution rate at (24.58) and 41.71) respectively while others fall below. The maximum and minimum values for SMEs are 71.3 and 0.7 respectively with a very high standard deviation of 26.5, the value of standard deviation is so because the disparity between the early years of SMEs output growth rate and the later years was very high this is so because the effect of climate change was not pronounced at the early productive stage when compared with the later stage.

The skewness of the dependent variable is highly skewed to the left showing adverse effect of climate change on the growth of SMEs output as time passes by. Also, the minimum value of SMEQ at 0.7 per cent is a testimony to the continuous fall in the growth level of output of SMEs due to rising level of the climate change agents (or outcomes), Implying that the higher the climate change outcome, the lower the growth rate of SMEs output.

Table 2: Augmented Dickey Fuller Stationarity Test

Variables	ADF @ Level	ADF @ First Diff.	C.V @ 1%	Order of Integration
SMEQ	-0.548326	-4.603248***	-4.234972	I(1)
APR	-1.582018	-3.740943***	-4.243644	I(1)
LPR	-2.624311	-6.285200**	-4.211868	I(1)
WPR	-2.255480	-13.87249***	-4.219126	I(1)
GPR	-3.753949**	-9.099770***	-4.211868	I(0)
INFR	-3.028441**	-6.104295***	-3.615588	I(0)
Source	Authors' Computation Via E-Views (2020)			

The Table 2 shows the level at which individual series in the model specified became stationary. However, all the variables in the model are stationary at first difference, except gas pollution rate (GPR) and inflation rate (INFR) which became integrated at level. The asterisks show the statistical level at which individual series became stationary (i.e., ** 5%, and *** 1 %) while the C.V imply critical value test. It is however noteworthy that the comparison of the ADF statistics and the critical value test gives the level of stationarity of the individual series, because the ADF statistic is expected to be greater than the critical value in absolute term, at either 1 per cent or 5 per cent level of significance.

The fact that the level of integration of the series are between level and first difference suggest the adoption of Autoregressive Distributed Lagged Model (ARDL) as the dynamic method of analysis, and the co-integration test is based on ARDL Bound test.

Table 3: Group Unit Root (Stationarity Test)

Group unit root test: Summary
 Series: D(SMEQ), D(SMEQ(-1)), D(APR), D(LPR), D(WPR), D(GPR), D(INFR)
 ECT
 Sample: 1980 2019
 Exogenous variables: Individual effects
 Automatic selection of maximum lags
 Automatic lag length selection based on SIC: 0 to 3
 Newey-West automatic bandwidth selection and Bartlett kernel

Method	Statistic	Prob.**	Cross- sections	Obs
Null: Unit root (assumes common unit root process)				
Levin, Lin & Chu t*	-15.7436	0.0000	7	256
Null: Unit root (assumes individual unit root process)				
Im, Pesaran and Shin W-stat	-13.7716	0.0000	7	256
ADF - Fisher Chi-square	140.349	0.0000	7	256
PP - Fisher Chi-square	184.791	0.0000	7	264

** Probabilities for Fisher tests are computed using an asymptotic Chi-square distribution. All other tests assume asymptotic normality.

The Table 3 is the result of the group unit root test which confirmed the authenticity of the series stationarity test in Table 2. The Levin, Lin, and Chu test indicate -15.74 with probability value of 1 per cent for common unit root test. For individual series integration, three separate statistical test were used to confirm the result, these are Pessaran and Shin W-statistic; the Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) - Fisher \chi-square; and the Philip Perron (PP) -Fisher chi-square. The three statistics concurred that all individual series are integrated at one per cent statistical level. The group unit root results (both common and series) established that indeed all the modeled variables are integrated and far from stochastic.

Table 4: ARDL Bound Test

Sample: 1982 2019

Included observations: 37

Null Hypothesis: No long-run relationships exist

Test Statistic	Value	k
F-statistic	4.054648	5

Critical Value Bounds

Significance	I0 Bound	I1 Bound
10%	2.26	3.35
5%	2.62	3.79
2.5%	2.96	4.18
1%	3.41	4.68

The Table 4 shows the results of the ARDL Bound test which measures the long run relationship among all variables in the estimated model. The result indicates the existence of long run relationship among all the variables in the model. This is made known through the comparison of the statistical values between F-statistics value and the critical Bound values at 5 per cent level of significance. The comparison reflects that the F-statistics value is greater than the critical values at 5 per cent level for both I(0) Bounds and I(1) Bounds, therefore we reject the null hypothesis that there is no long run relationship and accept the alternative hypothesis.

Table 5: ARDL Dynamic Model

Dependent Variable: SMEQ
 Method: ARDL
 Sample (adjusted): 1982 2019
 Included observations: 38 after adjustments
 Maximum dependent lags: 1 (Automatic selection)
 Model selection method: Akaike info criterion (AIC)
 Dynamic regressors (1 lag, automatic): APR LPR WPR GPR INFR ECT(-1)
 Fixed regressors: C
 Number of models evaluated: 64
 Selected Model: ARDL(1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0)
 Note: final equation sample is larger than selection sample

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.*
SMEQ(-1)	1.081595	0.065366	16.54664	0.0000
APR	-0.614560	5.475509	-0.112238	0.9115
LPR	0.202015	0.179240	2.127066	0.0696
LPR(-1)	-0.313819	0.193790	-2.619376	0.0170
WPR	0.148547	0.114864	1.293242	0.2069
WPR(-1)	0.237303	0.117499	2.019606	0.0535
GPR	0.008859	0.131993	0.067119	0.9470
INFR	0.036420	0.054264	0.671160	0.5078
INFR(-1)	0.090157	0.048379	1.863566	0.0733
ECT(-1)	0.157579	0.130184	2.210434	0.0366
C	-17.87560	16.94327	-1.055027	0.3008
R-squared	0.984169	Mean dependent var		20.67105
Adjusted R-squared	0.978305	S.D. dependent var		24.69326
S.E. of regression	3.637084	Akaike info criterion		5.657440
Sum squared resid	357.1663	Schwarz criterion		6.131478
Log likelihood	-96.49135	Hannan-Quinn criter.		5.826099
F-statistic	167.8501	Durbin-Watson stat		2.285607
Prob(F-statistic)	0.000000			

*Note: p-values and any subsequent tests do not account for model selection.

Source: Author's Computation, (2020)

The model result in Table 5 shows the structural relationship between SMEs output growth rate and the regressors (SMEQ(-1), APR, LPR, WPR, GPR, INFR, and their lagged variables). A year lagged of SMEQ indicates a persistence effect of about 108%, that is, for every 100% increase in

SMEs output growth, a 108% is contributed by SMEQ(-1), and statistically significance at one per cent. The climate change agents are largely inversely related to SMEs output growth rate in Nigeria and are statistically significance; however, there are some exceptional cases where the lagged variables are positively related to output growth rate this could be interpreted that the potency of some of the climate change agents neutralize after a year, but majorly the adverse effect is more pronounced on the SMEs output growth as suggested by the asymptotic SMEQ trend as observed in Figure 1.

Inflation rate (INFR) did not reflects its theoretical expectation because it has direct link with the SMEs output growth rate, though, could be due to the push effect of inflation on profit which could be recouped into successive production. The Error Correction Term (ECT(-1)) that measures the speed of adjustment from short run drift to long run equilibrium indicates that approximately 16% of short run error are corrected on annual basis, implying a six year correctable error into long run “bliss”.

The R-square and adjusted R-square are approximately 98% meaning that the goodness of fit of the model was 98% fit at 5 per cent significance level. The implication of this result is that when other variables that may likely influence the dependent variable are included in the model the statuesque will not change, and that 98% variation in the dependent variable are jointly explained by the explanatory variables. Also, the F-Statistics which measure the overall goodness of the model was statistically significance at 1 per cent level meaning that the model is good and robust as suggested by the comparison of the D-Watson and the R-Square, since D-Watson is greater than the R-square then the model is robust. The D-Watson statistics equally show that there is absence of autocorrelation among the explanatory variables, this is because the value is greater than 2.00 and less than 4.00.

Table 6: Stability Test Result

Ramsey RESET Test

Equation: UNTITLED

Specification: D(SMEQ) D(SMEQ(-1)) D(APR) D(LPR)

D(WPR) D(GPR) D(INFR) ECT(-1) C

Omitted Variables: Squares of fitted values

	Value	df	Probability
t-statistic	1.163468	30	0.2538
F-statistic	1.353659	(1, 30)	0.2538

F-test summary:

	Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Squares
Test SSR	23.88951	1	23.88951
Restricted SSR	553.3327	31	17.84944
Unrestricted SSR	529.4432	30	17.64811

Source: Author’s Computation, (2020)

The stability of the model estimated is explained through the Ramsey RESET test. The result confirmed the stability of the empirical model, therefore the study rejects the null hypothesis that the model is not stable and not reliable and accept the alternative hypothesis because the probability value of both t-statistic and F-statistic are greater than 5 per cent and are major justification for refuting null hypothesis, and accepting the alternative hypothesis.

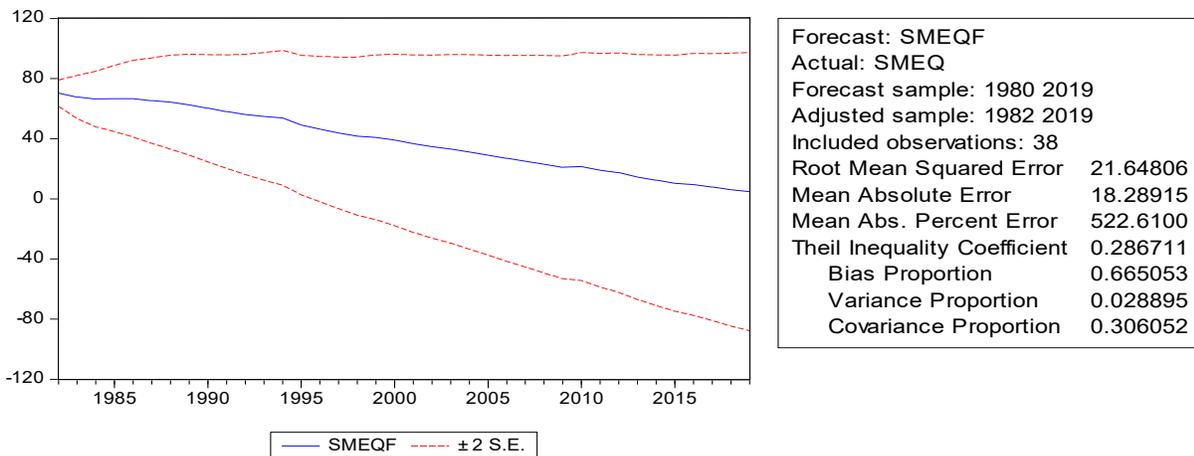


Figure 2: Forecasting Strength Test Result

Source: Author’s Computation, (2020)

The Figure 2 indicates the power or the strength of forecasting of the model estimated and discussed in Table 4. The forecasting power of the model is strong and reliable, this is indicated by the blue line bounded by the orange lines, so any forecast made in relation to the model or any inference made could be regarded as being valid or correct.

Table 7: Residual Test

Breusch-Godfrey Serial Correlation LM Test:

F-statistic	0.089098	Prob. F(2,29)	0.9150
Obs*R-squared	0.232073	Prob. Chi-Square(2)	0.8904

Heteroskedasticity Test: Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey

F-statistic	0.218718	Prob. F(6,31)	0.9679
Obs*R-squared	1.543307	Prob. Chi-Square(6)	0.9566
Scaled explained SS	3.661625	Prob. Chi-Square(6)	0.7224

Source: Author's Computation, (2020)

The residual test in Table 7 combined the serial correlation test with heteroscedasticity test using Breusch-Godfrey LM test and Breusch-Pagan-Godfrey test respectively. The two results suggest absence of both serial correlation and heteroscedasticity since the null hypotheses are being rejected based on insignificance of the test statistic at 5 per cent level.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study affirmed that climate change has adverse effects on the SMEs output growth and thus affect their performance and contribution to the growth of the economy. Among other things, the effect of climate change outcomes on the SMEs output growth can never be overemphasized. Its deleterious impact could result to shut down of some businesses, while some would function below operating capacity or optimum level, because of their inability to cope, overcome or surmount these cancerous effects of climate change outcomes.

However, to reduce or surmount the active effect of climate change on productive sectors of Nigeria, the following recommendations were made;

- i. Government should establish climate change control act.
- ii. The meteorological centre should be upgraded and be well funded to be proactive against the imminent danger posed by climate change.
- iii. Federal government should create and fund incubation centres around the six geo-political zones in Nigeria.
- iv. The Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) or the Bank of Industry (BoI) should be able at all time to rescue ailing SMEs through intervention funds or as a lender of last resort.

REFERENCES

- Campbell, H.G. (2018). Saving Lake Chad and the Rejuvenation of Africa: Beyond the imaginary. Keynote paper presented at International Conference of Social Sciences, organized by Faculty of Social Sciences, National Open University of Nigeria, pp. 1-38.
- Adesina-Uthman, G. A. & Bakare-Aremu T. A (2018). Climate Change and Survival of Small and Medium Scale Enterprises in Nigeria. Presented at the 1st International Conference of the Faculty of Social Sciences, Niger Delta University, Bayelsa State, Nigeria, themed Climate Change, National Security and Development in Nigeria, November 5-6, 2018.
- Ajudua E. I. & Odishika, V. A. (2019). Climate Change and Agricultural Productivity in Nigeria. *African Journal of Applied and Theoretical Economics (AJATE)*, Vol 5, No1. Department of Economics, University of Port Harcourt. pp 59 – 73.
- Odishika, V. A. & Ajudua E. I. (2019). Climate Change and Economic Development in Nigeria; A Review. *Journal of Economics, Management and Social Sciences*, Department of Economics, Federal University, Wukari. 5(2). 10 – 19.
- Bakare-Aremu T. A. (2018). The Relationship between Climate Change and Industrial Performance in Nigeria. Presented at the 1st International Conference of the Faculty of Social Sciences, Niger Delta University, Bayelsa State, Nigeria, themed Climate Change, National Security and Development in Nigeria, November 5-6, 2018.

The Problem of Compromise in Restructuring Nigerian Federalism

Marcel Onyema EZE, PhD¹ and David C. Nwogbo, PhD²

¹Department of Political Science
National Open University of Nigeria, Jabi-Abuja
Email: meze@noun.edu.ng

²Department of Public Administration
National Open University of Nigeria, Jabi-Abuja
Email: dnwogbo@noun.edu.ng

Abstract

Lugardian amalgamation of 1914 which marks the birth of Nigeria's federalist state left upheavals in view of the endemic agitations for restructuring of Nigerian federalism. The uncompromising attitude of Nigerian elite has made restructuring a failure because of vested economic and political interest. The broad objective of this paper is to examine the problem of compromise in restructuring of Nigerian federalism. We adopted the aid of descriptive methodological analysis and elite theory to observe among others, that, there is a nexus between compromise and restructuring in Nigeria. We recommend a pro-active restructuring policy devoid of elite intervention.

Keywords: Federalism, Restructuring, Compromise, Elites, Interest.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The change mantra of the President Muhammad Buhari's regime which kick started in 2015 is designed to achieve the restructuring project which Nigerians desired following his campaign manifesto on restructuring that attracted votes for his success at the polls. This promise refreshed the hope of average Nigerians that the recommendation of the 2014 Constitution Conference will fly into the National Assembly as an executive bill but surprisingly up till today, nothing has been done. The question to ask is why campaign promises trapped and unfulfilled after elections in Nigeria; why is compromise so hard in democratic Nigerian politics. The problem seems not unconnected with the political attitudes and arguments among the political elites. In the opinion of Thompson and Gutmann (2010) "the resistance to compromise is a problem to any democracy because it stands in the way of change that nearly everyone agrees is necessary, and thereby biases the political process in favour of the status quo". The mindset and disposition to compromise is conducive to campaigning, but not to governing because on assumption of power, the game changes against the majority for the interest of a few.

Since the amalgamation of Nigeria by Lord Lugard in 1914 to the present, Nigerian state has witnessed series of constitution reforms and restructuring tailored towards upholding one principle which is “Unity in Diversity”. Richard constitution of “1954 set the stage for regional federalism which our political leaders used those years to lay the foundation of what we have today. Unfortunately, they did not have an agreeable, nor to talk of an agreed plan to build upon” (Ige, 1990). A similar event happened in 1966 following the collapse of Aburi Accord of 1966 and the consequent Nigeria civil war of 1967-1970.

Learning from the past mistakes gives credence to the successes recorded from post- independence constitutional conferences of 1994-1995 of General Sani Abacha’s regime that gave birth to the present six geo-political zone structures of North East, North West, North Central, South West, South East and South- South geo- political zones after the annulment of June 12,1993 presidential election. This is currently sustaining the tempo of agitation for marginalization by ethnic nationalities in Nigeria. Despite these efforts, Boko Haram insurgency from the North, militancy from the South –South, Movement for the Actualization of the Sovereign State of Biafra (MASSOB) from South East and Oduduwa People’s Congress (OPC) from the South West emerged with one agitation or the other. As a panacea, the former regime of President Goodluck Jonathan inaugurated a constitutional conference in 2014 where the most sensitive dialogue seems to have been achieved but its implementation becomes a nightmare.

The pre-election campaign of the present regime raised serious hope in view of the party’ s campaign programme on restructuring but four years after the election and his re-election today, the government has not sent any bill to the National Assembly on the subject. The implication is that the national question has remained a big challenge for Nigeria’s existence as the current debate revolves around the quest for restructuring of Nigerian federalism. This informs our desire to examine the problem of compromise in restructuring of Nigerian federalism. This project we intend to prosecute in this sequence; i, theoretical framework of analysis, ii, conceptual elucidation of compromise and restructuring, iii, compromise and restructuring of Nigerian federalism, iv, conclusion and recommendations and recommendation.

2.0 THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

Elite theory is adopted in this study to unravel the power play and elite manipulation of the Nigeria state to preserve the status quo against the greater interest of Nigerian masses. In political science,

elite theory describes and explains the power relationships in contemporary society. The theory posits that a small minority, consisting of members of the political, economic elite and policy planning networks, holds the -most power and that this power is independent of a states' democratic electoral process through appointment into top positions in government, parastatals, bureaucracy, military and paramilitary formations. Members of the "elite" are able to exert significant power over the policy decisions of corporations, business and governments. Bottomore (1993) explained that the elite theory stands in opposition to pluralism by suggesting that democracy is a Utopian Ideal. It also stands in opposition to state autonomy theory. Mainly, this concentration of power in the hands of a minority group, according to Mosca, "performs all political functions, monopolises power and enjoys the advantages that power brings".

The basic assumptions of elite theory are derived from two rival perspectives. The liberal pluralist version focuses on the dispersion of power within the elites and argues that changes are likely to happen over time. In contrast, the critical elite perspective emphasizes elite power concentration and cohesiveness, leading to resistance to change and limited openness and inclusiveness. Founded on the ideas of classical elitists (such as Vilfredo Pareto, Gaetano Mosca and Robert Michels), the word elite is usually defined as those groups with excellent access to resources or capacities, a characteristic that set them apart from other (non-elite) members of society. The interpretations of superiority based on the access to valuable resources leads to the justification of elite dominance and social inequality. The elite theory considers inequality as the outcome of power distribution, which in turn reposes on them, other resources such as economic and organizational assets. Critical elite analysts insist that the political elite, despite their nominally divergent nature, stem from common backgrounds, which explains their similar political socialization, formation of attitudes and interest cohesion.

Arising from the basic assumptions above, informs the basic generalizations of elite theory as follows: In every society, there is and must always be minority which rules. This stands out in Michels, (1977) famous statement, "who says organisation says oligarchy". This implies that the oligarchy is a logical derivative of organisation. In addition, Pareto says that minority rule is the reality in all societies developed, underdeveloped, simple or complex. This minority that rules derived its original power almost invariably from force or coercive services such as the monopoly of military function. But over time, this coercive power is transformed into hegemony through routinization. The minority ruling circle is composed of all those who occupy commanding

political positions. The utility of this theory will underscore elite manipulation of the Nigeria state to preserve the status quo against restructuring which is the interest of Nigerian masses.

3.0 COMPROMISE DEFINED

The concept compromise appears problematic to define and cannot even be confined to any historical framework in view of perspectives prisms attached to it. However, it remains a very important problem in politics because “the ability to make a compromise demands a high level of political culture of those who actually make compromise in practice” (Ledev, 1989). Hence, the problem of compromise today constitutes a burning discuss in the political life of the modern world since it is a means of solving lingering economic and political problems. Despite, this assertion, what is compromise?

Compromise is linked to the concept of a “medium” or intermediate position in the sphere of interest of the conflicting socio-economic, historical and political tendencies and forces. According to Lenin as cited by Lebedev, (1989), compromise “is a moment of agreement, a moment of some unity of interest; it did not eliminate the struggle, nor did compromise make the question of who will defeat whom irrelevant”. At the same time, Lenin observed that compromise is a very specific form of struggle. It is a peaceful form of struggle in which of factor of agreement and coexistence prevail over the factor of mutual exclusion thus, emphasizing the maintenance of certain equilibrium.

A compromise happens in a situation in which people accept something different from what they really desire, because of circumstances or because they are considerate of the wishes or agitations of other people. To engage in a “compromise is to make a deal between different parties where each party gives up part of their demand” In every human relationship “compromise” is frequently said to be an agreement that no party is happy with, this is because the parties involved often feel that they either gave away too much or that they received a little”.

In our commitment to maintain one Nigeria with unity in diversity, a high level of productive mind-set of political compromise is needed on the sides of our political elites. This is to avert possible consequences of failure of compromise in serious national issues like restructuring. The argument is that, should the country Nigeria go to the extreme point once again, chances of survival

may be lean, if the statement credit by General T.Y Danjuma that no county ever survives two civil wars is anything to go by.

Restructuring Defined

The word restructuring has gathered significant momentum in the literature of politics and political science in recent times. Every political commentator and scholars have approached it with different perspective prisms. According to Bellow (2017) restructuring is the process of increasing or decreasing the number of component parts that make up a system and re-defining the inter relationship between them in such a way that the entire system performs more efficiently. He further opined that restructuring if not well planned and handled can lead to greater efficiency or even system collapse. This perception is inclined mostly to either state or local government creation since his emphasis is mostly on sub- units of Nigerian federalist structure. In line with the above, former President Ibrahim Babaginda during prayers to mark his 75th birthday celebration at the Hilltop, Minna, Niger State strongly advocated for devolution of powers to the extent that more responsibilities be given to the states while the Federal Government is vested with the responsibility to oversee our foreign policy, defence, and economy (Babaginda, 2017). He continued ‘The talk to have the country restructured means that Nigerians have agreed on our unity in diversity; but that we should strengthen our structures to make the union more functional based on our comparative advantages’.

Akin Osuntokun (2017) avers that restructuring is simply a call for the restoration of federalism, the foundational constitution structure to which all Nigerians subscribed as encapsulated in the independence constitution of 1960. For him, this constitution was violated in 1966 and the violation set in motion a chain of events that has culminated in the present abnegation of a 36 states structure against the four regional structures that emanated from the independence constitution. All the ills presently plaguing the country are directly or indirectly a consequence of the wrong anti federalist diversion Nigeria took in 1966.

In solidarity with the above opinion Supo Shonibare, (2017) a chieftain of the Pan-Yoruba socio-political organization, Afenifere, maintained, “I would wish that we have a federation with independent self- sustaining federating units, able to develop infrastructure, critical amenities, undertake other developmental projects, education and health without a Centre body interfering.

We already have geo-political zones. Why don't we have say more than six (6) or eight (8) regions from that template, enable the regions exercise the functions presently being exercised by the federal government in the various States and co-ordinate such functions as well as utilize economies of scale. Each region should be at liberty to create more States in their region as their constitution stipulates. In essence, political restructuring simply defined is 'the process by which a political system undergoes adjustment, adaptation, change or reconfiguration from time to time, may be regarded as intrinsic to political systems or in fact human societies for that matter' (Osaghae,2018). He posits that the evolution or progression of societies and states from the earliest communities of hunters and gatherers to modern nation states, the rise and fall of states, fluctuating boundaries and so on are perhaps the most notable manifestations of the fundamentality of restructuring. Restructuring according to Nwakanam, (2017) "is the refinement of the institutional structures that undergird the workings of a system in order to either firm it up or prevent it from collapse, or make it more efficient and beneficial to those which the system ought to serve". Restructuring entail making changes to our current federal structure so that it comes closer to what our founding fathers established in response to issues and challenges that led them to opt for a less centralised system. It means devolving more powers to the federating units with the accompanying resources; that is greater control by the federating units of the resources in their areas.

It means by implication the reduction of the powers and roles of the federal government, so that it would concentrate only on those matters best handled by the centre such as defence, foreign policy, monetary and fiscal policies, immigration, customs and excise, aviation as well as setting and enforcing national standards on such matters as education, health and safety. "Using the zones would ensure financial viability of the states and also address the concerns of minorities about domination by our three major ethnic groups" (Atiku, 2017). In this study, restructuring entails continuous and unhindered process of adjustment, Nigerian federal system should undergo in a bid to make it work well and adapt to changing demands of Nigerians.

4.0 COMPROMISE AND RESTRUCTURING OF NIGERIAN FEDERALISM

The assertion that compromise is effective in the struggle for the unity of opposing groups and their views cannot be overemphasised. Compromise is extremely productive in preserving and consolidating peaceful coexistence between people with different social system including religion, ethnicity, traditional and cultural inclination.

The dynamically changing reality of Nigeria state today generated political consciousness and awareness among every stratum of both the elites and non-elites makes compromise inevitable. This is because our dynamically changing reality poses new economic, political, historical and social problems and in order to solve these problems, fresh attempt is needed to assuage the clamour for restructuring which is today the latest buzz word in our political nomenclature.

Accordingly, “every zig-zag turn in history is a compromise, a compromise between the old which is no longer strong enough to completely negate the new, and the new, which is not yet strong enough to completely overthrow the old” (Lenin, 1917). In our considered opinion, the above captures our position since the compromise we are advocating is Nigeria’s core national interest of “Unity in Diversity’ and a restructured Nigeria featuring: geo- political restructuring, fiscal restructuring, administrative restructuring, security restructuring and political office restructuring.

Lucky enough, it is on record that serious precedents has been laid on our journey to restructuring from our past restructuring efforts since independence of which its success demonstrates the compromising spirit of our past leaders. According to Bellow, (2017) “consciously or unconsciously, deliberately or in-deliberately, most Heads of State or Government had since independence implemented one form of restructuring or the other during their reign. The reason why we did not know is that the decisions were not called or announced as restructuring, and they were done piecemeal making them unnoticeable by the general public”. The charity displayed in this exercise then shows the level of patriotism of the leaders in question as here-under:

Tafawa Balewa (1960-1965) created Mid- Western Region from the then Western region.

General Aguiyi Ironsi January 1966 - July 1966 abolished the federating regions by Decree 32, Cancelled Native Authority Police, Federal Government took over revenue from natural resources and cooperate taxes from regional governments and introduced unitary government.

General Yakub Gowon (1966-1975) created 12 states to replace four regional structures.

General Murtala Mohammed (1975-1976) started the process of relocation of federal capital from Lagos to Abuja and created additional states.

General Olusegun Obasanjo (1976-1979) changed the British Parliamentary system to American Presidential system.

Alhaji Shehu Shagari (1979-1983) introduced Federal Character Principle and applied it in political appointment and other bureaucratic organs.

General Ibrahim Babaginda (1985-1993) created more states and replaced derivation principle and set up OPADEC.

General Sani Abacha (1993-1998) inaugurated constitutional conference which recommended the creation of the present six geo-political zones and the creation of additional states and local governments.

General Abdusalam Abubakar (1998-1999) modified the 1979 constitution and removed local government joint account with state governments.

President Olusegun Obasanjo (1999-2007) restored the Policy of derivation, created the Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC).

President Goodluck Ebele Jonathan (2010-2015) inaugurated the 2014 Constitutional Conference that fruitfully recommended restructuring which its desire is today gathering momentum in terms of acceptability. It is on record that prior to 2015, the people seen on the political stage clamouring for restructuring are mostly those of south- south and south- east extraction but lucky enough in our contemporary times, prominent northerners are currently joining their southern colleagues in asking for the restructuring project which is long overdue. A case in point is the most recent suggestion of the former speaker, House of Representatives, Hon. Dogara for a constitutional amendment that will deliver the local governments from the hands of state governors. This is another form of restructuring agitation. Also, the former Vice President, Atiku Abubakar in his speech during the launching of a newspaper outfit called Daily Stream included in the list of issues to be restructured as reduction of federal government exclusive legislative list (87) in favour of concurrent list(15), developing a new model of fiscal federalism, administrative restructuring among others.

These inputs from prominent northerners and southerners in favour of restructuring demonstrates the fact that we have inculcated productive and compromising mindset against unproductive and

uncompromising mindset, hence, their shift of attitudes and motives. The compromising mind sees mutual sacrifice not as an occasion to tenaciously stand on principle, or to imprudently abandon principle to reach agreement, but as an opportunity to adjust one's principle to improve on the status quo. This class of compromisers also finds in wilful opposition to policies, not excuse for mistrust, but resources for understanding among those who disagree. Arising from above demonstrates that there is a nexus between compromise and restructuring of Nigerian federalism.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study examined the problem of compromise in restructuring of Nigerian federalism. In the process, we observed the tension between what is required in campaigning to win election and what is required to rule. This brings in the problem of compromise because to govern effectively, politicians must devise means of reaching agreements with the opposition, including members of the ruling party who feel aggrieved with the status quo. This tension between what is required to win power and what is required to rule manifest into compromising and uncompromising mindset thereby introducing cluster of attitudes and arguments in policy adjustment and implementation. This is a replica of the present restructuring agitations from Nigerians which needs urgent intervention. We recommend a pro-active restructuring programme by the government as well as unity of interest of Nigerian elites in support of the restructuring agenda.

References

- Atiku, A (2017). What is restructuring? What does it mean in the new lexicon of the All Progressive Congress, APC?<https://guardian.ng/politics/what-restructuring-means/07/07.2017>
- Babangida, I. B. (2017). NIGERIA: What is Restructuring?
<https://www.vanguardngr.com/2017/06/nigeria-what-is-restructuring/>
- Bellow, S. A. (2017). Restructuring Nigeria: A Critical Analysis. This Day, June 11.
- Bottomore, T. (1993). *Elites and Society (2nd ed.)*. London: Routledge.
- Global Knowledge (2008). *"Methods of Dealing with Conflict - Part II"*. PM Hut. Retrieved 2018-06-21.
- Gutmann, A and Thompson, D. (2010.). *The Mindset of Political Compromise*. London: Cambridge University Press.

- Ige, B. (1995). *People, Politics and Politicians of Nigeria (1940-1979)*. Ibadan: Heinemann Educational Books PLC.
- Lebedev, A(1989). *The Problem of Compromise in Politics as Seen by Lenin in the First Post-Revolutionary Years (1918-1921)*. Mosco: Novosti Press Agency.
- Lenin, V.I (1917) cited in Lebedev, A (1989). *The Problem of Compromise in Politics as Seen by Lenin in the First Post-Revolutionary Years (1918-1921)*. Mosco: Novosti Press Agency.
- Nwakanam, O.(2017).What Is Restructuring?<https://www.vanguardngr.com/2017/07/what-is-restructuring/>.
- Osaghae, E.E (2018). Restructuring and True Federalism: Nigeria in Perspective. Paper Presented at a Convocation Lecture, National Open University of Nigeria, Jabi A buja, April.
- Osuntokun, A. (2017). NIGERIA: What is Restructuring? <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2017/06/nigeria-what-is-restructuring/>
- Robert D. (1977). "Elite Transformation in Advanced Industrial Societies: An Empirical Assessment of the Theory of Technocracy". *Comparative Political Studies*.10(3), 383–411. doi:10.1177/001041407701000305.
- Shonibare, S. (2017). NIGERIA: What is Restructuring? <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2017/06/nigeria-what-is-restructuring/>

Impact Of Government Expenditure on Unemployment Rate in Nigeria

Abimbola Oluwaseun OLADIPO, Uju Victoria OKOLI and Benjamin Yabanat JOSHUA

Department of Economics
Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, Nigeria
Emails: oa.oladipo@unizik.edu.ng
uv.okoli@unizik.edu.ng
by.joshua@unizik.edu.ng

Abstract

This study examines the impact of government expenditure on unemployment rate in Nigeria, using annual data for the period 1981 - 2019. Data were sourced from CBN Statistical Bulletin and National Bureau of Statistics on unemployment rate, government recurrent and capital expenditures on defense and agriculture. Augmented Dickey-Fuller Test and Auto Regressive Distributed Lag Model were employed as analytical tools for the study. The results showed that government recurrent and capital expenditure on agriculture, though not statistically significant, will reduce unemployment rate in Nigeria. The findings further revealed that recurrent expenditure on defense will increase unemployment rate while the capital expenditure on defense will reduce unemployment rate in Nigeria. The study therefore suggests that government should increase the capital expenditure in line with the needs for these infrastructural facilities, so that the labour force can be fully engaged and economic growth attained.

Keywords: Government Expenditure, Unemployment Rate, ARDL, Defense, Agriculture

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The continuous increase in the rate of unemployment in Nigeria is one of the concerns of the policy makers. As a macroeconomic variable, its effect on the economy of a nation could be detrimental to the growth of the economy. Different countries see unemployment in different ways. However, in Nigeria, Unemployment is seen as the proportion of people in the economy who are willing, capable and have not relented effort in searching for jobs but cannot find one. The problem of unemployment is being constituted by those who leave their jobs due to low wages, natural movement of in and out in searching for jobs, inability to adapt to the new system of operation in an organization, economic depression of a country, organizational bankruptcy and so on (National Bureau of Statistics [NBS], 2020).

In order to generate employment opportunities, government expenditure is very paramount, even in the development of any nation. Without spending on some growth-enhanced projects, growth is not attainable. These growth-enhanced projects include, good roads, adoption of modern technology, good health care system, stable electricity, good educational facilities and so on. However, it is the proper implementation and monitoring of these projects that would ensure development. All these are capable of generating employment opportunities for teeming youths (NBS, 2018). As emphasized by Keynes, government spending is a key instrument of growth and development. He, however, advocated for increase in government spending. This is against the assertion of the classicalist that government spending is inimical to the growth of the economy because of its crowding out effect (Mark, 2007).

Furthermore, government spending on defense can affect the economy positively through increased security. Through defense spending, government protects the economy against external aggression and creating enabling environment for investment to take place so as to create employment opportunities for youths and also enhance stable economic growth and development. Also, in the area of agriculture, government expenditure can help employ both skilled and unskilled youths and as well ensure food security in the country (Trandberg & Allen, 2020).

So many advanced nations of the world like China, USA, Japan to mention but a few have developed their economy through government spending in various sectors of the economy like defense and agriculture. Government spending helps to create enabling environment for investment which will in turn increase the rate of employment in the economy. It is also seen as an instrument of ensuring equitable distribution among citizens. Also, some African countries like Kenya, Morocco, Cote d'Ivoire, South Africa which have developed to some extent, really spent a lot in the area of infrastructures. This has helped them in making production of goods and services efficient and easily distributed at low cost. It is therefore evident from the history of both advanced and some developing countries that government spending is inevitable for growth and development to take place (World Economic Outlook, 2014).

Available statistics show that in Nigeria, government recurrent expenditure on agriculture stood at ₦0.01 billion, ₦ 0.26 billion, ₦28.22 billion and ₦70.27 billion naira while the capital expenditures on agriculture were recorded at ₦0.81 billion, ₦1.60 billion, ₦78.0 billion and 80.29 billion naira in 1981, 1990, 2010 and 2019 respectively. Also, in the defense sector, recurrent

expenditures were recorded at ₦3.37 billion, ₦43.40 billion, ₦198.71 billion and ₦588.99 billion naira in 1990, 2000, 2010 and 2019 respectively. Meanwhile, the capital expenditure on defense in these years stood at ₦5.25 billion, ₦6.44 billion, ₦28.8 billion and ₦ 158,11 billion naira respectively (Central Bank Nigeria [CBN], 2020).

However, in spite of the expenditures in these sectors, government spending is still unable to solve the problem of high unemployment rate in Nigeria. In the last quarter of 2020, the unemployment rate stood at 33.3 percent which is far higher than 27.3% in the third quarter of 2020 (NBS, 2020). This drastic rise in the rate of unemployment could be attributed to rising insecurity in most regions of the country, which has scared so many investors away from investing in Nigeria and has caused upsurge in the number of unemployed youths. Also, as a result of insecurity in Nigeria, agricultural sector which is capable of employing about 70 percent of unemployed youths, both in rural and urban areas, has been badly affected. This has caused food insecurity in Nigeria.

Empirically, it was revealed by some authors that government expenditure can help reduce unemployment while some works showed that government spending cannot reduce unemployment but could rather harm the public and business organizations. Their submission was that, for government to carry out these expenditures, taxes must be raised and the effect of increasing taxes will lead to reduction in disposable income of workers. This will in turn reduce demand for goods and services, which will also reduce further production. In the work of Onodugo et al. (2017), the findings show that government spending would reduce unemployment while the work of Ndubueze et al. (2020) suggests otherwise.

Based on the divergence in scholars' findings on the subject matter and the consistent rise in the rate of unemployment in Nigeria, this study seeks to examine if government expenditure can help reduce unemployment rate by providing answers to the following questions;

- i. How has government recurrent expenditure on defense impacted on unemployment rate in Nigeria?
- ii. Can government recurrent agricultural expenditure have significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria?
- iii. Does government capital expenditure on defense have significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria?

- iv. To what extent does government capital expenditure on agriculture significantly impacts unemployment in Nigeria?

The main objective of the study is therefore to examine the impact of government expenditure on unemployment rate in Nigeria between 1981 and 2019. This study will serve as a contribution to the existing literature. It will also throw more light on whether government spending on defense and agriculture helps in reducing unemployment rate in Nigeria. Specifically, both recurrent and capital expenditure on defense and agriculture were studied in relation to unemployment rate in Nigeria. The hypotheses for the variables were tested in null form. Thus, the rest of the paper is structured into literature review, research methodology, data analysis and interpretation or results and conclusion and recommendations.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Concept of Unemployment and Government Expenditure

National Bureau of Statistics' (2018) Labour Force Survey defines unemployment rate as the proportion of people who are able and willing to work but could not find work for at least 20 hours during the reference period to the total currently active labour force. The reasons for a rise in unemployment rate is attributed to people previously outside the labour force who decided to join the labour force and are now searching for jobs, and people who are working previously but lost their jobs. International Labour Organization (2011) defines unemployment rate as those who are currently not working but are willing and able to work for pay, currently available to work and have actively searched for work.

Central Bank of Nigeria (2016) refers to government expenditure which is divided into recurrent and capital, as an outflow of resources from government to other sectors of the economy whether required or unrequired. The recurrent expenditures are for payment of salaries and overheads while the capital covers the payments for non-financial assets. Corporate Finance Institute (2020) describes government spending as the money spent by the public sector on the acquisition of goods and provision of services such as education, healthcare, social protection and defense.

Theoretical Review

Keynesian Theory of Government Expenditure

This theory was propounded by John Maynard Keynes in 1936. According to him, government expenditure as a fiscal policy can contribute positively to economic growth. He believed that increase in government spending will increase investment which will in turn provide employment opportunities in various sectors of the economy. Keynes further believed that government spending which is categorized as an exogenous factor would help boost the economy. He argued that government intervention would help reduce market failures and that during recession, increasing spending will help the economy out of recession.

Classical Theory of Government Expenditure

The classical economists such as Adam Smith, David Ricardo, Alfred Marshal and others, believe that government intervention is detrimental to the growth of the economy. They believed in the doctrine of laissez-faire. That in any economic activity government should play minimal role. The classicalists believe that every man, as long as he does not violate the laws of justice, should be left perfectly free to pursue his own interest his own way, and to bring both his industry and capital into competition with those of any other man. They believe that when individuals are pursuing their self-interest, they are led by invisible hand to promote the interest of the public. That invisible hand works in harmony that leads to the growth in the output of goods which people desire. Hence, employment opportunities are generated and growth is enhanced in the economy (Smith, 1776).

Empirical Literature

This study reviewed a few out of the numerous research works carried out by scholar on the impact of government expenditure on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

Aphu (2019) studied the impact of disaggregated public expenditure on unemployment rate of selected African countries between 2000 and 2017, using generalized method of moments. The result showed that expenditure on infrastructure and education reduces unemployment while expenditure on defense and health increases unemployment rate in Nigeria.

A study by Ndubueze et al. (2020) on the impact of government expenditure on unemployment in Nigeria from 1981 to 2016, utilized ordinary least square technique. The result showed that

government expenditure does not have any significant impact on unemployment in Nigeria. Ogboru et al. (2018) examined the impact of government expenditure on agriculture and its impact on unemployment reduction in Nigeria between 1999 and 2015. The study used Autoregressive Distributed Lag Method and the result revealed that government expenditure on agriculture has no reducing effect on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

Ebi and Ibe (2019) studied the impact of government expenditure on unemployment in Nigeria between 1981 and 2017, using Johansen cointegration and Granger causality test. The result of the Johansen cointegration test showed that there is long run relationship among the variables while the granger causality test revealed no causality among the variables. In a study carried out by Fosu (2019) on the impact of government expenditure on unemployment rate in Sub-Saharan countries from 1990 to 2017, using panel data estimation techniques. The findings showed that increase in government consumption expenditure results in increase in unemployment rate while increase in government investment expenditure reduces unemployment rate.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

Model Specification

Model was formulated to capture the relationship between government expenditure and unemployment rate in Nigeria. The specification of the model modified the work of Ogboru et al. (2018) by adding government expenditure on defense. The model is therefore specified this;

The functional form of the model is written as;

$$UEMP = f(RAGR, RDEF, CAGR, CDEF)$$

The econometrics form of the model is given as;

$$UEMP_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 RAGR_t + \beta_2 RDEF_t + \beta_3 CAGR_t + \beta_4 CDEF_t + \mu_t$$

Where,

UEMP is unemployment rate

RAGR is the recurrent expenditure on agriculture

RDEF is the recurrent expenditure on defence

CAGR is the capital expenditure on agriculture

ADEF is the capital expenditure on defence

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4$ are the slope of the coefficients

ARDL Equation

$$UEMP_t = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^q \beta_1 \Delta UEMP_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \beta_2 \Delta RAGR_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \beta_3 \Delta RDEF_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \beta_4 \Delta CAGR_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^q \beta_5 \Delta CDEF_{t-1} + \mu_t$$

Where,

q is the optimal lag length

Δ is the first difference operator

Nature and Sources of Data

Time series data were used for this study and to analyze the impact of government expenditure on economic growth, data were sourced from Central Bank of Nigeria Statistical Bulletin and National Bureau of Statistics various years. The variables on which data were sourced include the rate on unemployment, recurrent expenditures on defense and agriculture as well as capital expenditures on defense and agriculture. The rate of unemployment is the dependent variable while recurrent and capital expenditures on defense and agriculture are the independent variables. The period of years covered span from 1981 to 2019. The choice of this period will help to see the behavior of government expenditure since adoption of structural adjustment programme.

Data Analysis Technique

Autoregressive Distributed Lag techniques was used because the model are integrated of different orders, i.e I(0) and I(1). ARDL technique has the advantage of not requiring a specific identification of the order of the underlying data (Pesaran *et al*, 2001). It can also capture both long run and short run dynamics simultaneously by using bounds test procedure.

4.0 RESULT PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Time series properties of the variables

In order to determine the stationarity properties of the variables used in the study, the Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF) test was performed. This was done to avoid spurious regression results (Engel and Granger, 1987).

The ADF test was done with the following hypothesis:

Null hypothesis (H_0): Variable contains unit root and hence is non-stationary.

Alternative hypothesis (H_1): Variable does not contain unit root and hence is stationary.

The decision rule is that: If the calculated ADF test statistic is greater than the test statistic values, reject the null hypothesis of non-stationarity and accept the alternative of stationarity, otherwise accept the null hypothesis of non- stationarity.

The unit root test results which indicate the order of integration of each of the variables were presented in Table 4.1

Table 4.1: Unit root test results

Variable	ADF Statistic values	Test Critical values @ 5%	Order of Integration
UEMP	-5.711451	-2.951125	I (1)
RAGR	-5.395029	-3.533083	I (0)
RDEF	-4.820816	-2.943427	I (1)
CAGR	-6.349551	-2.943427	I (1)
CDEF	-4.806929	-3.568379	I (1)

Source: Authors' Computation, (2020)

Following the results of Table 4.1, it can be seen that all the variables in the model except the recurrent expenditure on agriculture passed the ADF test at first difference and integrated of the same order I(1). Next, the study presented the regression result which has been estimated from the Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) Bound Test.

Table 4.2: Results of ARDL Test, Dep var = UEMP

Variable	Coefficient	t-value	p-value
D(UEMP(-1),1)	-0.300244	-1.040400	0.3065
D(RAGR)	-0.026976	-0.491932	0.6263
D(RDEF,1)	0.071714	3.528775	0.0014
D(CAGR,1)	-0.012738	-0.955040	0.3472
D(CDEF,1)	-0.027713	-1.198684	0.2400
ECM(-1)	-0.343759	-0.989504	0.0303
C	-0.366885	-0.506341	0.6163

Source: Author's Computation, (2020)

From the above short run analysis in Table 4.2, we observed that the constant term is given as -0.366885 which indicates that if all the independent variables are held constant, UEMP decreased on average by 0.37 units during the previous period. The variable is also insignificant as its probability value is greater than 0.05 (0.6163).

The coefficient of RAGR (-0.026976) and CAGR (-0.012738) both have negative impact on unemployment rate which shows that a unit increase in government recurrent expenditure on agriculture, reduces the unemployment rate by 0.03 units on average while a unit increase in government capital expenditure on agriculture, reduces the unemployment rate by 0.013 units on average though not significantly. This could be explained by the vast land mass Nigeria is endowed with, which when utilized, provides occupation for the teeming populace and when efficiently implemented, will result in significant effects on the economy.

The coefficient RDEF (0.071714) shows that a unit increase in government recurrent expenditure on defense increases the unemployment rate by 0.07 units on average. This could be explained that the security challenges experienced currently in Nigeria could be better handled by increased investment in arms and ammunition than the recurrent budget estimates embarked on by the Nigerian military in the budget. On the other hand, CDEF (-0.027713) has negative impact on unemployment rate which shows that a unit increase in government capital expenditure on defense, reduces the unemployment rate by 1.2 units on average though not significantly.

Of particular interest is the ECM. The coefficient of error correction mechanism (ECM) is negative (-0.343759) and significant at 0.05 per cent critical level as evident by the low probability value of 0.0303. This shows that about 30 per cent speed of adjustment is needed to correct the previous year disequilibrium in Nigeria's UEMP in the current year. The significance of the ECM is an

indication and a confirmation of the existence of a long-run equilibrium relationship between the value of UEMP and all the explanatory variables in the model.

4.2 Evaluation of Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

H₀: Government recurrent spending on agriculture and defence has no significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

H₁: Government recurrent spending on agriculture and defence has significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

Hypothesis 2

H₀: Government capital spending on agriculture and defence has no significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

H_i: Government capital spending on agriculture and defence has significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

Hypothesis 1

This is the proposition that Government recurrent spending on agriculture and defence has no significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

From our ARDL short run analysis, we observed that the variable employed to examine the impact of government recurrent spending for agriculture on unemployment rate was not significant as the probabilities of their absolute t-statistics were less than the critical $t_{0.05}$ value. This means that the sector had a negative and non-significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria during the period under consideration. We also observed that the variable employed to examine the impact of government recurrent spending for defence on unemployment rate was significant as the probabilities of their absolute t-statistics were less than the critical $t_{0.05}$ value. This means that the sector had a positively significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria during the period. Judging from the result above, this leads to the acceptance of the proposition and the rejection of the alternative hypothesis making us to conclude that Government recurrent spending on agriculture and defence has no significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

Hypothesis 2

This is the proposition that Government capital spending on agriculture and defence has no significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

From our ARDL short run analysis, we observed that the variables employed to examine the impact of government capital spending for agriculture and defence on unemployment rate were not significant as the probabilities of their absolute t-statistics were less than the critical $t_{0.05}$ value. This means that the sectors had a negative and non-significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria during the period. Judging from the result above, this leads to the acceptance of the proposition and the rejection of the alternative hypothesis making us to conclude that government capital spending on agriculture and defence has no significant impact on unemployment rate in Nigeria.

Only the recurrent government expenditure on defence increased the unemployment rate within the country whereas the other variables included in the analysis all reduced the level of unemployment rate within the country though at very minute proportions. This could be ascribed to the fact that the percentage of total government spending accorded to these critical sectors as against the need for them have not been sufficient to attain growth in the Nigerian economy. This outcome is not in line with both the Keynesian theory of government expenditure which is the theoretical underpinning of this study and the a priori expectations of the study. Factors like policy inconsistencies, vandalization of existing facilities in the country possibly due to insecurity and ignorance and poor maintenance culture of damaged facilities may account for this unexpected outcome. About 50% in the variation in unemployment rate within the country is due to changes in the regressors.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Government recurrent and capital expenditure are fiscal instruments that can be used by governments to enhance economic growth and stability. By Nigerian government investing in the agricultural sector, is to harness the numerous natural endowments which the country has. Also investment in defence is to ensure security of lives and properties within the country and enhanced ability to attract foreign investors. It is against this background that this study attempted to analyse the effect these instruments would have on the level of unemployment ravaging the country in order to offer direction for policy reforms.

The Autoregressive Distributed Lag (ARDL) Bound Test was adopted as the analytical technique. The results revealed that increase in both governments recurrent and capital expenditure on agriculture reduces the unemployment rate whereas increase in government recurrent expenditure on defense increases the unemployment rate while increase in government capital expenditure on defense reduces the unemployment rate in the country. The research therefore recommends that the government should not only increase its recurrent and capital expenditure in these two key sectors of the economy (agriculture and defense), but should do so in line with the needs for these infrastructural facilities so that the labour force can be fully engaged and economic growth attained. Government should also source for alternative sources of funds apart from crude oil like the recent sukuk bond by the government which enables them have access to non or less interest capital market. There should also be concerted efforts by the government and its agencies to ensure that disbursed funds are maximally utilised in order to achieve the set objectives.

References

- Aphu, E.S. (2019). Impact of disaggregated public expenditure on employment rate of selected African countries: A panel dynamic analysis approach. *American International Journal of Humanities, Arts and Social Sciences*, 1(2), 47-57.
- Central Bank of Nigeria. (2016). *Statistical bulletin, Volume 27*. <https://statistics.cbn.gov.ng/cbn-onlinestats>
- Central Bank of Nigeria. (2020). *Economic report: Fourth quarter*. <https://www.cbn.gov.ng>
- Corporate Finance Institute (2020). *Unemployment*. <https://www.corporatefinanceinstitute/resources/knowledge/economics/unemployment/>
- Ebi, R.O., & Ibe, R.C. (2019). Government expenditure and unemployment: Examination of the Nigerian evidence (1981-2017). *International Journal of Business and Law Research*, 7(1), 25-33.
- Engle, R., & Granger, C. (1987). Co-integration and error correction: Representation, estimation and testing, *Econometrica*, 55(1):257-276.

- Trandberg, E., & Allen, R. (2020, May 11). *Fiscal affairs: “Managing public investment spending during crisis”*. IMF. <https://www.imf.org/feature/fiscal-affairs-managing-public-investment-spending-during-crisis/>
- Fosu, G.A. (2019). Government expenditure and unemployment: Empirical investigation of Sub-Saharan African countries. Masters thesis from the Eastern Illinois University, 4573.
- International Labour Organization. (2011). *Global employment trends 2011: The challenges of a jobs recovery*. <https://www.ilo.org/pubins>
- National Bureau of Statistics. (2018). *Labour force statistics- volume 1: Unemployment and underemployment report*. <https://www.nigerianstat.gov.sc/labour-force-statistics-volume-1-unemployment-and-underemployment-report/>
- National Bureau of Statistics. (2020). *Nigerian gross domestic report (expenditure and income approach)*. <https://www.nigerianstat.gov.sc>
- Ndubueze, E.O., Okoli, U.V., Onwuka, I.N., & Mba, S.E. (2020). Impact of government expenditure on unemployment in Nigeria: Evidence from social expenditure. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Management Research*, 6(1), 65-76.
- Ogboru, I., Abdulmalik, F.A., & Park, I.O. (2018). Government expenditure on agriculture and its impact on unemployment reduction in Nigeria: 1999-2015. *International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management*, 6(3), 1-25.
- Onodugo, V.A., Obi, K.O., Anowor, O.F., Nwonye, G., & Ofoegbu, G.N. (2017). Does public spending affect unemployment in an emerging market?. *Risk Governance and Control: Financial Markets and Institutions*, 7(1), 32-40.
- Pesaran, M.H., & Smith, R.J. (2001). Bounds testing approaches to the analysis of level relationship. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 16(3), 289-326.
- Smith, A. (1776). *The wealth of nations*. Oxford University press.
- World Economic Outlook. (2014). *Is it time for an infrastructure push? The macroeconomic effects of public investment*. <https://www.imf.org>

Public Healthcare Spending, Human Capital Development and Economic Growth Nexus in Nigeria

Tunde Abubakar BAKARE-AREMU PhD¹, Rakiya MAMMAN PhD and Bolajoko O. BAKARE-SALISU³

¹ Department of Economics
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: abakare-aremu@noun.edu.ng

² Department of Development Studies
National Open University of Nigeria, Abuja.
Email: rmamman@noun.edu.ng

³ Department of Economics
Lagos State University, Ojo, Lagos.
Email: bollybee2sure@gmail.com

Abstract

This study empirically investigates the link between human capital development, public healthcare spending, and growth of the national output in Nigeria, using dataset that spanned 1980 to 2019. The ordinary least square technique was used while the method of autoregressive distributed lag model was used to analyse the dynamic relationship among the macroeconomic variables of interest. The Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root test was explored to check the stationarity status of the variables. Having confirmed the stationarity level of all included variables but one, the ARDL Bound test was used to validate the long run relationship among all the variables. However, we observed that required attention was given to human capital development though not exceedingly great, but the provision of healthcare services in Nigeria was greatly inadequate and to correct for this, government should adopt the 26% of total budgetary allocation to education as specified by United Nation and jerk up allocation to health sector because health they say, is wealth, and education is the bedrock for sustainable development. Also, since long run analysis confirmed the statistical significance of all regressors, achievement of the vision 20-2020 (Nigeria to be among the world first twenty countries in term of development) may be possible if the corrective measure is merged with fiscal discipline and prudence.

Keywords: Human Capital Development, Economic Growth, Autoregressive Distributive Lagged Model.

JEL Classification: E34. L54

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Generally, human capital development of any nation has two vital components which enhance the growth and development of such nation. These components are sound education and healthcare. The basic objectives of human capital development are education and health; they are important ends in themselves. Health is centre to well-being, and education is essential for a satisfying and rewarding life; both are fundamental to the broader notion of expanded human capabilities that lie at the heart of the meaning of development (Todaro and Smith, 2011).

However, the issue of human capital development has been related to education, with little or no attention to health. For instance, Schultz (1971), Sakamota and Powers (1995), Psachoropouls and wood hall (1977) see investment in education as highly instrumental and even necessary to improve the production capacity of a population. According to them, an educated population is a productive population. Health, which is one of the two vital components of human capital development, has been relegated to the background in the series of studies of human capital development. If health is the wellness or the state of well-being of the human body, this implies that ill-health means the contrary, then, no sick body or any person in a state of ill-health can be developed educationally. The assertion as regard education and human capital development as stated above should be made with the understanding that, the population is a healthy one.

A healthy population is a prerequisite for successful development. Todaro and Smith (2011) conclude thus above after a careful study of the findings of Strauss and Thomas. Findings from their research show that, health does affect employment, productivity, and wages and very substantially so among the poorest of the poor. This outcome magnifies the policy priority of health in development.

Sound healthcare is a primary human need. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2015), fifty percent of economic growth differentials between developed and developing nation is attributable to ill-health and low life expectancy. Developed countries spend a high proportion of their Gross Domestic Product (GDP) on HealthCare because they believe that their resident health can serve as a major driver for economic activities and development. To this end, Governments in Nigeria, over the years have been making frantic efforts at ensuring that there is an increase in the level of public expenditure on health. In 1970, recurrent expenditure on health was N12.48 million. This figure rose astronomically to N52.78 million and N132.02 million in 1980 and 1985

respectively. This trend continues as the expenditure rose steadily from N575.3 million in 1989 to N680.20 millions 1991 and further to 72,290.07 billion and 98.200 billion in 2007 and 2008 respectively. Also in 2010 and 2015; 101,278.98 billion and 534,109.36 billion was expended, the amount further increased in 2020 to 754,188. 29 billion this could be due to the global health pandemonium called Covid-19 pandemic. However, The aforementioned scenario clearly underscores the fact that healthcare expenditure in Nigeria has been on the increase over the years, this may suggest the organic nature of public expenditure of Wagner Hypothesis.

In spite of all these increase in public healthcare expenditure, it has not been translated to expected reduction in some specific areas of daily health concern, such as infant, under five and maternal mortalities since 1970. For instance, in the year 2006 the Nigeria's rate of infant mortality (91 per 1000 live births) is among the highest in the world, and the immunization coverage has dropped below thirty percent while the mortality rate for children under age five was 192 deaths per one thousand. By year 2007, it was reported that more than one hundred and thirty four thousand women died from pregnancy complications yearly. In 2018, the Nigerian health outcomes still on the fall given that maternal mortality ratio was 814 per 100,000, mortality rate for infants and children under five years; 70 and 104 per 1000 lives birth respectively (WHO, 2018).

In addition to these alarming primary health outcomes, the life expectancy ratio on the average has been oscillating over the study period, for instance between 2009 through 2015, the values have oscillating around a unit increment, with the values as follows and their respective incremental percentages in parenthesis; 50.42years, 50.90years, 51.35years, 51.79years, 52.23years, 52.67years, 53.11years; (--, 0.94%, 0.88%, 0.86%, 0.85%, 0.84%). These values are not essentially different in the recent years when compared with the previous years, principally, between 2016 through 2021(current year) the average life expectancy of Nigerian citizenry are given as follows, 53.54years, 53.95years, 54.33years, 54.69years, 55.02years, and 60.87years; their incremental percentages are as follows respectively, 0.81%, 0.76%, 0.71%, 0.65%, 0.61%, and 10.63%. It should be noted that each life expectancy average value is further delimit to gender scale, for instance the average life expectancy value of 60.87years in 2021 is delimits to 59years for Male, and 63years for Female counterpart.

It should however be noted that despite the increase in government spending on healthcare in Nigeria, the contribution of this to healthcare outcomes is still marginally low whereas the extent and magnitude of its impact on economic growth is undetermined.

On the other hand, The Human Development Index (HDI) was initiated in 1990 by the United Nations with a view to making development people oriented. This measures the achievement of a country with respect to the people's longevity, knowledge and income. In other words, the HDI comprises three components, which include life expectancy at birth, literacy rate and per capita income. On a broader note, the Human Development Report (HDR, 2004) defines the HDI in terms of life expectancy, school enrolment, literacy and income with a view to creating a broader perception than income alone. The value of the HDI may rise or fall depending on the value of its components. A fall in the value of the HDI, however, implies economic crisis (HDR, 2004). In other words, it implies depletion in the country's human capital.

The Figure 1 shows the status of the country (Nigeria) in terms of the global ranking on HDI, as given by the Human Development Reports (HDR, 2020). The HDI values of Nigeria deteriorated between the periods 2002 and 2009. For instance, in 2002, Nigeria was ranked 148th on a global scale, as presented in the Human Development Report (2020). Unfortunately, the periods 2003 to 2009 witnessed a steady decline down the ladder of ranks among other countries. In 2003, the country ranked 152nd position, and jostled between 158th and 159th position for the years 2005 to 2009. The period between 2009 and 2019 was not essentially different to the previous years though with a marginal increase and an upwards movement along the ladder of prosperity. The global rating is still between 151st and 148th position perpetually, also, the global income classification by HDI still put Nigeria among the low income countries despite the enormous public spending on healthcare and education.

The Figure 1 shows that Nigeria's HDI rose marginally from 0.462 in 2002 to 0.463 in 2003 and 0.466 in 2004. In 2005 and 2006, the value dropped marginally to 0.453 and 0.448 respectively. Conversely, the years 2007 to 2009 witnessed a rise in the value of the HDI to 0.470 in 2007/08 and 0.511 in 2009 respectively. There was a marginal decline in HDI value in the year 2010 (i.e. 0.482) as compared to the preceding year; however, from the year 2011 till 2019, the Nigerian HDI rises continuously though with marginal incremental rates. (see Figure 1 below). The global rank is determined through a global assessment of the country's achievement in the different areas

of human development as expressed in the value of the Human Development Index. These areas are captured using the Human Development Index which comprises of the Life Expectancy Rate, the Adult Literacy Rate, and the per capita income level as reiterated earlier.

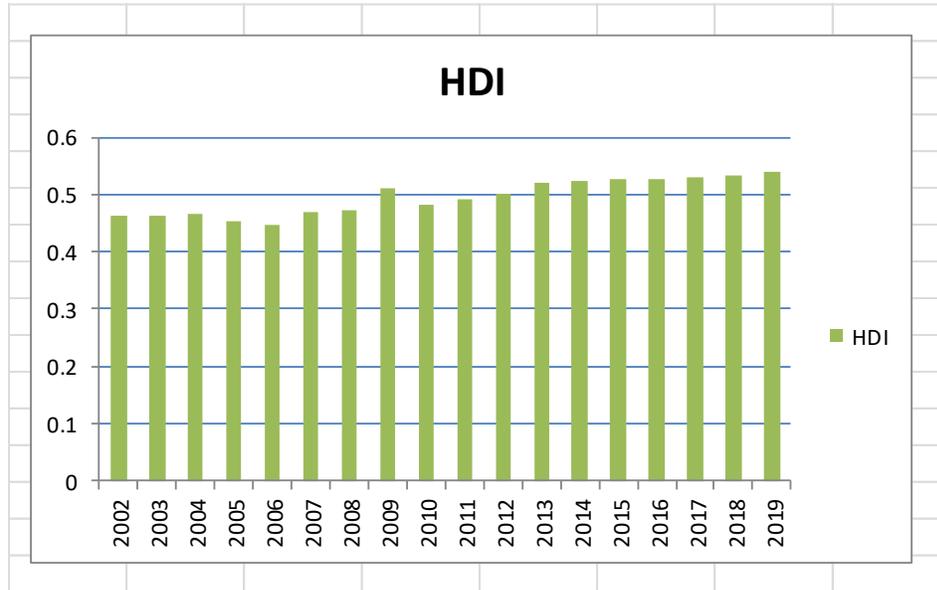


Figure 1: Nigeria’s HDI (2002 – 2019)

Source: Authors Design (2020)

Data Source: Human Development Report (2020)

The HDR (2020) provided a broad classification of countries with a view to giving more meaning to the HDI values. In this report, countries are classified into three clusters by achievement in human development. These are high human development, medium human development and low human development Countries. Countries with the HDI value of 0.800 or above are classified as high human development Countries, Countries with the HDI value of 0.500 to 0.799 are classified as medium human development Countries, while Countries with the HDI value which is less than 0.500 are classified as low human development countries. An examination of Figure 1 reveals that Nigeria is ranked among the low human development countries (2002-2008) but moved to the ranks of medium human development countries (2009-2019) to the exclusion of the years 2010, 2011, and 2012 that swung back to low human development. However, on the average, within the scope of this study Nigeria should be placed as low human development country because much of the duration under study falls within the scale of LHDC. This is worrisome as several rhetoric questions have been raised on the situation such as what has been the trend of healthcare expenditure in Nigeria? How has the expenditure profile impacted on healthcare delivery? Is there

any relationship between the pattern of healthcare public spending and the rate of economic growth cum human capacity development in Nigeria? Against this background, this paper seeks to examine the impact of public healthcare expenditure in Nigeria on human capital development as well as output growth.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Clarification

Public Healthcare Spending

Total health expenditures represent the amount spent on health care and related activities, such as administration of health insurance, health research, and public health undertakings; these include expenditures from both public and private funds.

Therefore, public healthcare spending measures the final consumption of healthcare goods and services by the fiat (i.e. current government health expenditure) which includes personal healthcare (curative care, rehabilitative care, long-term care, ancillary services and medical goods) and collective health services e.g. health infrastructure.

Human Capital Development

Human Capital Development (HCD) is the critical training or additional knowledge acquisition any employee needs to perform optimally or to efficiently deliver a given task. This on a macro level is expected to increase productivity level of the organization and in totality the gross domestic product of the Country. Human Capital development of a nation is beckoned on the development level of the educational sector, the healthcare services and products, and the per Capita Income of the country. The HCD is measured by the United Nation with Human Development Index (HDI).

Economic Growth

Economic growth can be defined as the increase in the inflation-adjusted market value of all the goods and services produced by an economy over a given period of time. Economic growth can be conventionally measure as the percentage rate of increase in real gross domestic product, or real GDP. Economic growth can also be known as annual rate of increase in nation's output, identifiable by a sustainable increase in per capita income.

Growth is usually calculated in real terms (i.e. to eliminate the distorting effect of inflation) on the prices of goods produced. Measurement of economic growth uses national income accounting. Since economic growth is measured as the annual percent change of gross domestic product (GDP), it has all the advantages and drawbacks of that measure. The economic growth-rates of countries are commonly compared using the ratio of the GDP to population (per-capita income).

Empirical Review

The interactions between health care expenditure and economic growth have received a lot of attention of many researchers. For instance, Baldacci (2004) explore the role played by health expenditures on individual citizenry of a country. He constructed a panel dataset for one hundred and twenty developing countries from 1975-2000, and found that spending on health within a period of time affects growth within that same period while lagged health expenditures appear to have no effect on growth. He however, inferred from this result that the direct effect of health expenditure on growth is a flow and not a stock effect. In a seemingly related study, Bloom et al (2004) estimate a production function of aggregate economic growth as a function of capital stock, labour and human capital (education, experience and health). Their main result was that health has positive, statistically significant effects on economic growth. They however, do not consider how health is created.

Olaniyi and Adams (2000) descriptively analysed the adequacy of the levels and composition of public health expenditures and conclude that education and health expenditures have faced lesser cuts than external debt services and defense, but allocations to education and health sectors are inadequate when related to the benchmark and the performance of other countries. Also, Chete and Adeoye (2002), carried-out the empirical mechanics through which human capital influences economic growth in Nigeria. They attempted to achieve these objectives using Vector Auto Regressive (VAR) analysis and ordinary least square to capture these influences. They however concluded that there is an unanticipated positive impact of human capital on growth which the various Nigerian governments, since the post-independence have appreciated through phenomenal expansion of educational infrastructure across the country; but they are quick to point out that the real capital expenditure on education and health have been rather low.

Mohammed (2021) investigated the impact of health aids on health outcomes in Nigeria using dataset that spanned 33 years and analyses it using autoregressive distributed lag model. The

results indicated that health aid is positively related to health outcomes but not statistically significant, he however suggested that in as much that too much aids could make a country aid dependent, health related aid should be encouraged. In a related study, Obisike (2020) explored the impact of public health spending on health outcomes in Nigeria, he adopted error correction modeling in estimating the nexus between public health spending and health outcomes in Nigeria using dataset that spanned the period 1980-2019, he found out that public health spending is positively related to Nigerian health outcomes but not statistically significant in the current year but after a year lag. He recommended that more still need to be done as the government expenditure on health in Nigeria is presently far from the WHO benchmark resulting to continuous healthcare expenditure deficit.

Odusola (1998) studied the nexus between investment in human capital and growth of economic activities. Using Nigerian data, he estimated three models. It was discovered from the result of the three models that human capital formation is a crucial determinant of the growth process. The empirical study by Orji (2021) reiterates a rhetorical question of whether all wealthy countries are always healthy?, looking at the effects of public health spending on healthcare indices in Nigeria. This was made possible through the application of seemingly unrelated two stages least square and macroeconomic dataset that spanned 36 years. The result suggest that health is wealth and the other way round. Other studies such as Greiner (2005), Agenor (2007), Strauss and Thomas (1998) and Martins (2005) conducted for other countries all emphasized that health expenditure is positively related to economic growth. What differ from one country to another is the extent and magnitude of its contributions. This study fills this gap by studying the extent and magnitude of health expenditures' contributions to the growth of Nigerian Economy and human capital development.

Theoretical Review

Wagner's Law of Increasing State Activities

Adolph Wagner (1835-1917) was a German economist who based his law of increasing state activities on historical facts, primarily of German. According to Wagner, there are inherent tendencies for the activities of different layers of a government such as central and state governments) to increase both intensively and extensively. There was a functional relationship between the growth of an economy and the growth of the government activities so that the

governmental sector grows faster than the economy. In the original version, it is not clear whether Wagner was referring to an increase in (a) absolute level of public expenditure (b) the ratio of government expenditure to GNP, or (c) proportion of public sector in the total economy. Musgrave's interpretation is that Wagner was thinking of (c) above. F.S. Witt not only supported Wagner's thesis but also concluded with empirical evidence that it was equally applicable to several other governments which differed widely from each other. All kinds of governments, irrespective of their levels, intentions and size had exhibited the same increasing public expenditure as a result of the understated points. Foremost as the traditional functions of the state were expanding, defense was becoming more expensive than ever before. Within the country, administrative set up was increasing both in coverage and intensity. The government machinery had to be manned by experts in their field. Administration justice and so on was becoming more extensive and cumbersome as the society progressed. An additional force pushing up public expenditure here is the fact that various complexities of social and economic nature develop which made an efficient administration also more complex and expensive.

Secondly, the state activities were increasing in their coverage. Traditionally, the state was limited to only defense, justice, law and order maintenance of the state and social overheads. But with the growing awareness of its responsibilities to the society, the government was expanding its activities in the fields of various welfare measures. These include the measures to enrich the cultural life of the society and also those design to provide social security to the people. State activities were also increasing on account of its effort in redistributing income and wealth.

Thirdly, the need to provide and expand the sphere of public goods was being increasingly recognized. The state was trying to shift the composition of national product in favour of public goods and this necessitated the expansion of the investment activities of the government. Wagner's law was based on historical facts. It did not show the inner compulsions under which a government has to increase its activities and public expenditures as time passes (organic principle). His law was applicable to modern progressive governments only; in which the state was interested in expanding the public sector of the economy and undertakes other activities for the general wellbeing. This general tendency of expanding state activities has a definite long term trend, though in the short run, financial difficulties could come in the way. "But in the long run, the desire for development of a progressive people will always overcome these financial difficulties.

Neo-Classical Theory (The Solow’s Formulation)

The economic growth model used in this study is based on the neo classical Solow production function but with little modification. According to Solow’s formulation, economic growth is a function of capital accumulation, an expansion of labour force and “exogenous” factor, technological progress which makes physical capital and labour more productive. It should be noted that this model was built on premise of Cobb Douglas production function.

That is; $Y_t = f(K_t, A_t, L_t) \text{ --- (1)}$

Where;

Y_t = Aggregate output

K_t = Capital stock at current period

A_t = Efficiency factor

t = Time dimension

L_t = Labour force at current period

However, the solow model in equation 1 above can be re-written as follows;

$Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha L_t^\beta \text{ --- (2)}$

Where;

Y_t = current aggregate output proxies by GDP

K_t = current capital stock proxies by gross capital formation

A_t = Efficiency factor proxies by the constant term

L_t = Labour force

α, β = Elasticities

But according to Odusola (2002), Bakare A.S and Olubokun Sanmi (2011), ‘human capital development’ influences economic growth, therefore, the model can be modified by adding

Human

capital

(i. e. $Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha L_t^\beta H_t^\delta$ — — — — — (3)).

For productivity to be efficient and effective there is need to introduce another variable in the name of infrastructure which is proxied by government expenditure on road, rail, electricity and water resources. However, the model becomes ($Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha L_t^\beta H_t^\delta I_t^\lambda$ — — — — — (4)).

3.0 METHODOLOGY

The methodology of this study will lay emphasis on the choice of the research technique, the model to be adopted (autoregressive distributed lag model), data requirement and sources, the nature and types of data collected, the data processing and the parameters to be estimated. Also vital concepts and terms used were equally defined and described for the purpose of giving the reviewers and readers a deep insight into the phenomena under study.

Technique of Analysis

The secondary data used for the study shall be estimated by the ordinary least square multiple regression.

The Model (*Autoregressive Distributed Lagged Model*).

The model to be adopted is autoregressive distributive lagged model and it is specifies as follows;

$Y_t = \alpha + \beta_1 Y_{t-1} + \beta_2 X_{t-1} + V_t$ — — — — — (5)

$X_t = \alpha + \lambda X_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t$ — — — — — (6)

Where;

Y = dependent variable

X_t = all included explanatory variable

Model Specification

The economic growth model used in this study is based on the neo classical Solow production function but with little modification. According to Solow’s formulation, economic growth is a function of capital accumulation, an expansion of labour force and “exogenous” factor, technological progress which makes physical capital and labour more productive.

Based on the above formulations, the model can be re-written as;

$$Y_t = A_t K_t^\alpha L_t^\beta H_t^\delta I_t^\lambda \text{-----} (7)$$

From the above function take log to both sides to have;

$$\log Y_t = A + \beta \log Y_{t-1} + \alpha \log Ak_t + \beta \log L_t + \delta \log H_t + \lambda \log AI_t + \varepsilon_t \text{---} (8)$$

The *a priori* economic expectations are:

$$\alpha, \beta, \delta, \lambda, \beta > 0$$

The Hypothesis

This study verifies the following hypotheses stated in their null form:

Ho: There is no significant relationship between Health Care Expenditure and Economic Growth in Nigeria.

H₀: There is no significant relationship between Human Capital Development and Economic Growth in Nigeria.

4.0 DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS.

TABLE 1 STATIC ORDINARY LEAST SQUARED.

Dependent Variable: LOG(GDP)

Method: Least Squares

Sample: 1980 2019

Included observations: 41

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-70.67385	10.63171	-6.647459	0.0000
LOG(HEXP)	0.075621	0.060997	1.239743	0.2233
LOG(HCAP)	0.095949	0.072317	1.326790	0.1932
LOG(LFORCE)	4.594907	0.659085	6.971641	0.0000
LOG(GFCF)	0.436536	0.081372	5.364670	0.0000
LOG(INFRAS)	-0.269105	0.099441	-2.706181	0.0104
R-squared	0.992947	Mean dependent var		12.89473
Adjusted R-squared	0.991940	S.D. dependent var		2.695950
S.E. of regression	0.242043	Akaike info criterion		0.135056
Sum squared resid	2.050469	Schwarz criterion		0.385823
Log likelihood	3.231347	F-statistic		985.4958
Durbin-Watson stat	1.301243	Prob(F-statistic)		0.000000

Source: Author's Computation, (2020)

From the Table 1 above all the included explanatory variables Have expected theoretical signs except infrastructure proxied by Log(INFRAS) whose sign is negative this show the deplorable state of Nigeria infrastructure meaning that budgetary allocation to those elements that made up the infrastructural facilities in this context (i.e. expenditure on road, electricity, water resources and rail.) should be increased. It should be noted also that human capita (LOGHCAP) and expenditure on healthcare are have theoretical expected sign but not statistically significant at 5% level so we can accept null hypothesis in the short run. On the other hand the R-squared and adjusted R-squared show that at least and at most 99% variation in GDP is caused by all included explanatory variables also the f-statistic test shows that the model is fit and robust at 1%level.

Table 2 Stationarity Test Using Augmented Dickey Fuller Unit Root Test

Variables	@Level	1 st difference	Order of integration
LOG(GDP)	-1.497166	-4.855473***	I(1)
LOG(GFCF)	-2.216096	-5.551689***	I(1)
LOG(HCAP)	-4.166113**	-6.67534***	I(0)
LOG(HEXP)	-3.372406*	-5.452314***	I(0)
LOG(INFRAS)	-2.324183	-0.488276	I(2)
LOG(LFORCE)	0.007525	-5.636452***	I(1)

Source: Author’s Computation, (2020)

All variables in this research work were put into test to reveal their status as regard Stationarity, the t-statistics values for 1%, 5%, and 10% are as follows, -4.211868, -3.529758, and -3.196411 respectively and ***, **, * are 1%, 5% and 10% respectively level of stationarity.

Table 3: ARDL Bound Test

Sample: 1980 2019

Included observations: 39

Null Hypothesis: No long-run relationships exist

Test Statistic	Value	k
F-statistic	4.084645	6

Critical Value Bounds

Significance	I0 Bound	I1 Bound
10%	2.46	3.55
5%	2.65	3.89
2.5%	2.99	4.17
1%	3.61	4.69

The Table 3 depicts the results of the ARDLM Bound test that measures the long run relationship among all included variables in the estimated model. This result indicates the existence of long run relationship among all the variables in the model. This is because the comparison of the statistical values between F-statistics value and the critical Bound values at 5 per cent level of significance. The comparison reflects that the F-statistics value is greater than the critical values at 5 per cent level for both I(0) Bounds and I(1) Bounds, therefore we reject the null hypothesis as stated in the Bound test, that there is no long run relationship and accept the alternative hypothesis.

Table 4 PARSIMONIUS (ARDLM)

Dependent Variable: D(LOG(GDP))

Method: Least Squares

Sample (adjusted): 1984 2019

Included observations: 37 after adjustments

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
C	-0.082542	0.226008	-0.365216	0.7181
D(LOG(GDP(-1)))	0.332877	0.544261	2.611614	0.0465
D(LOG(GFCF),2)	0.224751	0.163571	1.374029	0.1821
D(LOG(GFCF(-1)))	0.230161	0.178159	3.291884	0.0087
D(LOG(HCAP))	0.076861	0.090261	2.851540	0.0029
LOG(HCAP(-1))	0.024294	0.097203	3.249930	0.0048
D(LOG(HEXP))	-0.040222	0.065408	-0.614935	0.5444
LOG(HEXP(-1))	-0.019213	0.093998	-4.204403	0.0398
D(LOG(LFORCE),2)	2.348425	4.460347	3.526512	0.0034
D(LOG(LFORCE(-1)))	4.291915	6.330256	0.678000	0.5043
ECT(-1)	-0.352526	4.537629	-3.452139	0.0034
R-squared	0.748027	Mean dependent var		0.208762
Adjusted R-squared	0.727960	S.D. dependent var		0.186586

S.E. of regression	0.198164	Akaike info criterion	0.129602
Sum squared resid	0.942458	Schwarz criterion	0.436396
Log likelihood	15.39764	F-statistic	4.659669
Durbin-Watson stat	2.024635	Prob(F-statistic)	0.001317

Source: Author's Computation, (2020)

From the autoregressive distributive lagged model (ARDLM) above, it can be seen that GDP in immediate past year explained about 34% variation in current year national output, in the same strain gross fixed capital formation (a proxy for investment level), human capital development, public healthcare expenditure, and labour force were at one year lagged influenced current national output (GDP) significantly. This implies that there is existence of persistence effect of all the key variables on the growth of national output in Nigeria. However, the magnitude and directions are not the same for all the main variables. The directions of all variables except public health expenditure are positive as theoretical expected, and also statistically significant, implying that human capital development is actively contributing to the growth of Nigerian output, while public health spending was not enough to boost the national output as predicted. Also, at most and at least (74% and 72%) variation in GDP is caused by all included regressors respectively. The robustness of this model is further validated by the value of F-statistic and its probability value, also by the comparison of the R-square value and the Durbin Watson Statistics value, the latter is expected to be greater. The ECT(-1) which is the speed of adjustment from short run drift to long run equilibrium indicates that about 35% correction is made on annual basis, implying a total of about three years before long run equilibrium could be achieved. It is worthy to note, that the variable that represented Infrastructure (INFRAS) was highly stochastic and therefore was jettisoned due to its volatile attitude.

Lastly the problem of serial autocorrelation in the short run is been corrected for in the long run. There is no longer serial correlation problem because the value of the Durbin Watson statistics is greater than 2 and less than 4

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It was discovered that, in the short run the public expenditure on healthcare does not statistically and significantly influence National output (GDP), which led to acceptance of the first null hypothesis, this is because the budgetary allocation to health in Nigeria is meagre and below the

world standard as specified by the United Nation (UN) that 26% of total annual budget should be allocated to health. A Nation would not develop if she ignores (does not pay adequate attention to) education and health sector because health they is wealth and knowledge is the substratum of sustainable growth.

Although the Nigerian labour force and gross fixed capital formation contributed to growth of GDP significantly, but notwithstanding a lot still needed to be done, in order to increase the efficiency of these two variables, in addition, a special attention must be placed on the human capital development and healthcare services in Nigeria.

However, all regressors became significant in the long run. This implies that if magnitude and frequency of budgetary allocation and attention, couple with fiscal discipline, Nigeria may realize her goal of vision 20-2020 (i.e., to be among the first twenty countries in the world)

REFERENCES

- Agenor, P.R (2007): “Health and Infrastructure in a model of Endogenous Growth” *Journal of Macroeconomics* 28(2), 768-774.
- Bakare A.S and Olubokun S. (2011); Healthcare expenditure and economic growth in Nigeria. An empirical study, *Journal of emerging trends in economics and management (JETEMS)* 2(2) 83-87
- Baldacci, E.B. (2004). “The impact of poor Health on Total factor productivity”. *The Journal of Development Studies* 42 (6). 918-938.
- Bloom, D.E., Canning, D. and Sevilla J. (2004). “The Effect of Health on Economic Growth: A Production Function Approach”. *World Development*, 32(1): 1- 13.
- Chete and Adeoye (2002): “Human Resources Development in Africa”. *The Nigerian Economic Society Selected Papers for the 2002 Annual Conference*. 79 -102.
- Greiner, A. (2005): “Fiscal policy in an Endogenous Growth Model with Public capital and pollution” *Japanese Economic Review*. Vol. 56, 67-84
- Human Development Report (2020): Human Development Index
- Martins, G.M. (2005): “On the concept of Health Capital and the demand for Health” *Journal Political Economy*. 80(2): 223-255.
- Mellis C. M, Peat J. K, Bauman A. E, and Woolcock A. J. (1992) The cost of asthma in New South Wales. *Med J Aust* 1991;155-522. 83rd National Asthma Campaign. Report on the cost of asthma in Australia. 1992: 13–33.

- Mohammed, M. A. (2021) Health aid and health outcomes in Nigeria: The role of governance. *International Journal of Governance and Finance*, 5(16), 234-243
- Murray J. L, and Lopez A. D. (1996). Global health statistics. *Harvard University Press*.
- Obisike, N. E. (2020) Impact of Public health Spending in health outcomes in Nigeria: *International Journal of Economics and Finance*, 3(12) 132- 144
- Odusola, A.E. (1998): “Rekindling Investment and Economic Development in Nigeria. *NES Selected Papers for the 1998 Annual Conference*.
- Olaniyi O.O. and Adams A.A. (2002): “Public expenditures and Human Development in Nigeria” *Human Resource Development in Africa. 2002 Annual Conference papers, NES, U.I. Ibadan* 157- 198.
- Orji, A. (2021) Are wealthy countries, always healthy? Health Outcomes and Public Health Spending in Nigeria. *Journal Sage* 4(4) 256-265
- Smith, D.H., Malone, D.C., Lawson, K.A., Okamoto, L.J., Battista, C., & Saunders W.B. (1997) *A National Estimate of the Economic Costs of Asthma*. *Am J Resp Crit Care Med*
- Strauss, J.E. and Thomas D. (1998): “Health Nutrition and Economic Development” *Journal of Economic Literature* 36(2), 766-817.
- Todaro, M and Smith, S (2003), “*Economic Development*, ” 8th Edition
- World Health Organization (2005). *World Health Development Indicators*. Washington, DC.

**Operation War against Corruption, Indiscipline, and Governance in Nigeria:
Consequences and Solutions**

AHMED, Tanimu Mahmoud, PhD¹, Allah-Dey Jeffrey WILKIE, PhD² and Samuel Chikerenwa ANYAOHA, PhD³

¹Department of Sociology
Federal University of Kashere
Email: mamudzee@gmail.com

²Department of Sociology
University of Port Harcourt
Email: wilkiejeffrey@yahoo.com

³Department of Development Studies
National Open University of Nigeria
Email: sanyaoha@noun.edu.ng

Abstract

In many African states, particularly Nigeria, corruption is a clog in the wheel of progress, as well as a malaise that inflicts every aspect of the society. Thus, corruption is the misuse of entrusted power or a dishonest use of one's office or position for personal gain. It is a cancerous global phenomenon, which has continued to cripple the developmental efforts of Nigeria. Corruption in Nigeria manifests in the form of misappropriation, kickback, over-invoicing, bribery, embezzlement, tribalism, nepotism, money laundering, out-right looting of the treasuring, and so on. In Nigeria, most of the public office holders and top bureaucrats use their position of authority to actively engage in corrupt practices. Although, there has been a global cry and coordinated efforts to tackle this social evil through the creation and implementation of anti-graft laws and policies across nations. Some nations have been successful in their quest to reduce the level of corruption while others are still lagging behind. In this light, Nigeria seems to be an example of a state that has failed in combating corruption. From the common man in the street to the highest political figure, corruption is recurrent in almost every transaction in the Nigerian society. The methodology used in this study was a deskbased library method where the knowledge gained from various literatures as well as conceptual, theoretical, and empirical studies reviewed form the basis for conclusion and recommendations. The paper also suggested some recommendations for improving the current situations of corruption, Indiscipline, and governance in Nigeria.

Keywords: Bribe; War Against Corruption; Disciplines; Extortion; Governance

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Nigeria like many developing countries has continued to face many social and economic problems. These include poor public spending on education and healthcare, high unemployment, low incomes and high level of poverty, rising insecurity, kidnapping, cattle rustling, and cultism, to mention just a few. A major factor that has been blamed for the poor standards of living in Nigeria is the massive corruption in the public sector.

Corruption like cockroaches has coexisted with human society for a long time and remains as one of the problems in many of the world's developing economies with devastating consequences. Corruption as explained by Fatile (2019) is a household name in every society nowadays and the negative impact it has on the socio-economic and political setting of a country can hardly be over emphasized. There has been a global cry and coordinated efforts to tackle this social evil through the creation and implementation of anti-graft laws and policies across nations. Some nations have been successful in their quest to reduce the level of corruption while others are still lagging behind. In this light, Nigeria seems to be an example of a state that failed in combating corruption. From the common being in the street to the highest political figure, corruption is recurrent in almost every transaction in the Nigerian society.

To Kunhiyop (2008), corruption is a feature of African social, political and even religious life, with disastrous consequences. It not only impedes economic development, but also increase poverty by making a few individuals richer and many poorer. Corruption is making someone morally bankrupt, spiritually barren, and academic without character. corruption involves bribery, extortion, fraud, nepotism, kickbacks, outright theft, match-fixing, disobedient to court order, examination malpractice, illegal awarding of contracts and mal-administration. Bribery, for instance, is giving money or favour to someone who is in a position of trust, in order to pervert their judgment or corrupt their conduct. It is intended to make a person act illegally, unjustly or immorally. The responsibility for bribery rests with both the giver and the recipient.

Since corruption is not new, and since it is a global phenomenon, it is not peculiar to Nigeria. However, corruption is pandemic in Nigeria (and in many other African and Asian nations); the leaders as well as the followers are corrupt.

Similarly, in recognition of corruption as one of the major problems of Nigeria when Obasanjo came to power in 1999, his government immediately put in place different anti-corruption institutions to curb the problem. These include among others, the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) and the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offenses

Commission (ICPC). These agencies were established to fight Against Indiscipline and Corruption in Nigeria. When President Obasanjo assumed office in 1999, the first step he took in fighting corruption was the establishment of a commission called Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC). One innovation of both the act of offering or receiving bribe. For instance, section 99(i) and (b) of the Act states:

“Anybody who gives confers or procure to give any property or benefits of any kind to, on or for a public officer or to, on or for any other person; or promises offers to give property of or benefits of any kind to or for a public officer on account of any act omission or commission, favor or disfavor to be done or shown by the public officer is guilty of an offence of official corruption and shall on conviction be liable to imprisonment for five or seven years (ICPC Act, 2000)”.

There are two statutes regulating the offences in Nigeria ICPC Act 2003 and EFCC Act 2004. But EFCC seems to have taken the shine out of ICPC because since its inception, ICPC has never prosecuted successfully any corruption case but EFCC has successfully prosecuted a lot of highly placed persons in Nigeria. To this end, every society that desires progress must do ceaseless battle with the constant attempt of negative forces to bring the social structure under its inglorious dominance. This is because corruption as a disintegrative social factor often prevents social, political and economic development of a nation, just as poverty works against enduring democracy.

In view of the above, the paper provides an insight into the patterns, experiences and manifestations of corruption as well as the war against corrupt practices in Nigeria.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

Different scholars from social sciences, such as; Psychology, Political Science, Economics and Religious Studies have attempted a working definition for corruption from their various disciplines. However, all of the working definitions are interwoven.

Several efforts have been made to examine the major determinants of corruption. A considerable number of the studies focused on a group of countries, and employed either cross-section or panel data in their analysis. In essence, studies focusing on corruption determinants at individual country level are not many. For instance, Kolstad and Wiig (2015) analysed the effect of democracy on corruption in third world countries study during the 1946–2008 period, using the Ordinary Least

Squares (OLS) and Instrumental Variable (IV) techniques. The results confirm that democracy reduces corruption. Other factors that reduce corruption include income level (captured by log of GDP per capita), democracy duration and democracy in conflict. In addition, Busse and Gröning (2013) employed the two-step system-Generalized Method of Moments (system-GMM) estimator to analyse the relationship between governance and natural resource in 129 countries from 1984 to 2007. The results suggest that exports of natural resources promote corruption, while income level has a negative relationship with corruption.

Furthermore, the current President Muhammad Buhari administration is trying hard to curb corruption by introducing the whistle blowing policy in 2016. Whistle-blowing Policy is an anti-corruption programme that encourages people to voluntarily disclose information about fraud, bribery, looted government funds, financial misconduct, government assets and any other form of corruption or theft to the Nigeria's Federal Ministry of Finance. A whistle-blower who provides information about any financial mismanagement or tip about any stolen funds to the ministry's portal is rewarded or entitled to 2.5% - 5% percentage from the recovered funds by the Nigeria government. The policy was launched on December 21, 2016 by Nigeria's Federal Government and facilitated through the Federal Ministry of Finance. A report by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes (2019) bribery a common feature in the public sector in Nigeria, they found out that “Of all Nigerian citizens surveyed who had at least one contact with a public official in the 12 months prior to the 2019 survey, 30.2 per cent paid a bribe to, or were asked to pay a bribe by, a public official. This means that, although still relatively high, the prevalence of bribery in Nigeria has undergone a moderate, yet statistically significant, 9 decrease since 2016, when it stood at 32.3 per cent”.

Despite all these anti-corruption agencies and strategies, the country has been bedeviled by corruption, public servants loot government coffers without apology and most of the go scuff free without been challenge. Furthermore, the current administration in its stride to curb corruption introduced the whistle blowing policy in 2016. Whistle-blowing Policy is an anti-corruption programme that encourages people to voluntarily disclose information about fraud, bribery, looted government funds, financial misconduct, government assets and any other form of corruption or theft to the Nigeria's Federal Ministry of Finance. A whistle-blower who provides information about any financial mismanagement or tip about any stolen funds to the ministry's portal is rewarded or entitled to 2.5% - 5% percentage from the recovered funds by the Nigeria government. The policy was launched on December 21, 2016 by Nigeria's Federal Government and facilitated

through the Federal Ministry of Finance. A report by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crimes (2019) bribery a common feature in the public sector in Nigeria, they found out that “Of all Nigerian citizens surveyed who had at least one contact with a public official in the 12 months prior to the 2019 survey, 30.2 per cent paid a bribe to, or were asked to pay a bribe by, a public official. This means that, although still relatively high, the prevalence of bribery in Nigeria has undergone a moderate, yet statistically significant, 9 decrease since 2016, when it stood at 32.3 per cent”. Despite all these anti-corruption agencies and strategies, the country has been bedeviled by corruption, public servants loot government coffers without apology and most of the go scuff free without been challenge. By and large, this has mad politics a big business in Nigeria, because anything spent to secure a political office is regarded as an investment, which matures immediately one gets into office.

Theoretical Framework

The importance of theory, in any sociological discourse, cannot be over-emphasized, as it helps in broadening and integrating our view about any social phenomenon. Thus, sociological theory is a set of ideas which claims to explain how society or aspects of society work (Haralambos & Holborn, 2008).

The theory of Prebendalism will be adopted in this paper, the theory was postulated by Richard (1996) which described the nature of Patron-Client relationship in Nigeria. According to theory “state offices are regarded as prebends that can be appropriated by office holder who use them to generate material benefit for themselves and their constituent and kin groups”. In Nigeria, prebendal politics is the order of the day being displayed by political office holders. Thus, corruption is regularly be perpetrated at will and the society at the receiving end. Inevitably, the prebendal nature of Nigeria system in time of its patron-client or identity politics further allows corruption to thrive, undermine and thereby, stagnate the development of Nigerian society. Thus theory contends that corruption in Nigeria is purely an elite and political office holder. It argues that people who engage in crime in such society is not to amass wealth but only a force reaction to the corrupt practices of the ruling class and as a means of barely keeping alive in the face of the ostentatious display of ill-gotten wealth of the ruling class. For example, Karl Marx, leader of materialist approach argue that rather than people’s consciousness determining their well-being, it is the way society organized the production, distribution and exchange of goods and services that determine their material condition. The aforementioned theory is very significant because it has actually provided adequate explanation for the corruption habit of Nigeria office holders.

Conceptual Clarification

Corruption

Corruption is a multi-dimensional phenomenon and hence has been defined in multiple ways. Accordingly, Otite (1986) defined corruption as the falsification of honesty via inducement, partiality, or moral decadence. This involves the infusion of inappropriate transactions or deals directed towards adjusting the initial event path and causing a change in people's option of trust. As a matter of fact it comprises executor and beneficiary use of non-formal and criminal act to expedite affairs.

Citing United Nations Office on Drug and Crime (UNODC) in its "Action against corruption and Economic Crime", Onyiloha (2015) defined corruption as a, complete, social, political and economic phenomena that affect all countries. It undermines democratic institutions, and slows economic development. It attacks the foundation of democratic institutions by distorting electoral processes, perverting the rule of law and creating bureaucratic quagmires whose only reason for existing is the soliciting of bribes. Economic development is stunted, because foreign direct investment is discouraged and small businesses with the country often find it impossible to overcome the "start-up costs" required because of corruption.

Indiscipline

Indiscipline in this paper is seen as a mode of life not in conformity with rules and regulation capable of obstructing the smooth and orderly, functioning of a given system. Taking a closer view of the present Nigeria situations, common being now finds out that with many of the old visionary leaders having gone from the national and state scene in the sixties, era of committed bureaucracy started, undermining the integrity, values, ethos and confidence of the service as well as of people. Pervasive corruption and indiscipline has weakened the social, political and economic fabric beyond repair. All of these now makes general public unable to defend themselves against exploitation due to corruptions in the country.

Governance

Governance and good governance are being increasingly used in development literature. Bad governance is being increasingly regarded as one of the root causes of all evil within our societies. Major donors and international financial institutions are increasingly basing their aid and loans on the condition that reforms that ensure "good governance" are undertaken. Good governance has some characteristics which include: It is participatory, consensus oriented, accountable,

transparent, responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and follows the rule of law. It assures that corruption is minimized, the views of minorities are taken into account and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard in decision-making (Akhakpe, 2021).

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2011) governance is defined as “the exercise of economic, political and administrative authorities to manage a country’s affairs at all levels”. Similarly, the World Governance Survey Report conceptualized governance as “the formulation and stewardship of the formal and informal rules that regulates the public realm, the arena in which state as well as economic and social actors interacts to make decisions (in Hyden & Court, 2002).

Formulation and implementation of friendly policies will attract and encourage the citizens to participate both in economic and political activities freely within the confines of the state’s policies. The smooth operation of economic and political activities will ensure social order. Good governance equally accommodates aspects of a civil society inclusion as stated earlier. Sharma, Sadana and Kaur (2013:64) observed that,

Good governance establishes the rule of law, enforces contracts and agreement between the individuals, maintains law and order, guarantees security to the people, economizes on cost and resources, protects the government and properly delivers services to the society. It also determines an optimal size of the government and makes best possible use of government resources.

Thus; governance requires all hands to be on deck. It entails the sum total of the ways in which individuals and government institutions manage their common affairs for the good of the state and the citizens.

3.0 CONSEQUENCES OF CORRUPTION, DISCIPLINES, AND GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIA

In every society and community, there are certain behaviours, which are very much detested in the course of interpersonal relationships, and group behaviour. The behaviours include cheating, lying, *etc.* These behaviours which have moral, ethical, legal and religious implications are detested because they are inimical to proper and decent standards. The pattern of that encapsulates all this detested attitude is corruption (Omoluabi, 2017:3).

The most damaging effect of corruption is that if left unchecked, it grows, intensifies and spreads like cancer to vital centres of government with powerful influences on the public. Already, the negative multiplier effect of corruption in Nigeria has manifested in the mass spread of poverty

and the nation's unenviable position in the list of poor and under developed countries of the world (Chukwuemeka, *et al*, 2020:341). Thus; corruption causes a serious development challenge, in the political sphere; it undermines democracy and good governance by weakening political processes. Corruption in elections subverts accountability and representation in policy making, in the judiciary it suspends the rule of law and in the public service it leads to unequal distribution of services (Dininio & Kpundeh, 1999:8). Corruption wastes skills because time is often a huge waste to set up anti-corruption agencies to fight corruption and also to monitor public sectors. Above all, corruption diverts scarce public resources into private pockets, it weakens good governance; it also threatens democracy and erodes the social and moral fabrics of a country (Dike, 2018:1).

In view of the negative consequences of corruption on our social institutions and society as a whole, Kunhiyop (2008), other negative effects of corruptions to include:

1. Erosion of moral values-It perverts a nation's sense of right and wrong. In a corrupt society, the right becomes the wrong and the wrong becomes right.
2. Increased social evils-It provides fertile soil for tribalism, nepotism, fraud, dishonesty, selfishness, kidnapping, prostitution, human-trafficking, mal-administration, and armed robbery. It may also lead to murder, religious bigotry, civil war and other vices.
3. Lack of transparency-Corruption encourages those in authority to shun transparency and accountability. Calls for public officials to be transparent and accountable elicit defensive and vindictive responses.
4. Disregard for the rule of law-Corruption encourages individuals, entities and institutions to cut corners and ignore legal requirements. It leads also to unlawful detention of innocent citizens, perceived enemies and opposition party members by the Federal government. It can be extremely difficult to obtain justice under this situation.
5. To effectively control corruption in Nigeria therefore, adherence to ethical standards in decision-making must be the foundation of the nation's policy on corruption. The nation's public officials are not worried about the ethical implications of their corrupt behaviours. However, armed with ethics and virtue, the nation should reduce personal gains from corrupt behaviour by instituting "effective sanctions" for corrupt behaviour.

4.0 METHODOLOGY

This research work employed the use of descriptive and phenomenological approaches to the study. It used also primary and secondary sources to obtain data. The primary source involved oral

interviews while secondary source included books, journals, and internet materials. These furnished the researcher with the basic information that was necessary for the comprehension, insight and analysis of the relevant issue x-rayed in this paper.

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The paper examines that corruption as a problem to Nigeria is characterized by economic sabotage, terrorism, kidnapping, armed robbery, human trafficking, prostitution, and the like which are responsible for ethnicity, religious extremism and under development in Nigeria. The researchers have seen that high levels of corruption have very harmful effects on economic and political development as in other countries. Also, the paper, is of the view that current policies by Muhammad Buhari government on the fight against corrupt public servants is not effective for the rich politicians but the poor and powerless involved in petty theft. Therefore, strong institution that can match the war against corruption in Nigeria.

Recommendations

1. There should be increase in accountability and transparency, good governance, tackling of corruption, addressing the causes of conflict, investing in people's education and health, improving access to clean water and sanitation, investing in infrastructure, agriculture and small-scale irrigation, improving Nigeria's capacity to trade, their access to the markets of the rich world, and facilitating their adjustment to new trade regimes.
2. Nigeria government and its people must take a cue from the policy measures of transparency international on how to combat corruption.
3. There is need for stiffer sanctions against corrupt acts or persons and group of persons. Thus, punishments for corrupt practices must be made to reflect the gravity of the crime committed adjudicated by a competent court or tribunal.
4. The rule of law should be properly adhered to by the politicians and public servants.
5. The issue of democratization must be pursued vigorously by the government in order to ensure legislative control of all anti-corruption policies to promote accountability and reduce corruption.

References

- Akhakpe, I.I. (2021). *Bureaucracy and good governance*: Pumark Nigeria Limited.
- Busse, M., & Gröning, S. (2013). The resource curse revisited: Governance and natural resources. *Public Choice*, 154(1–2), 1–20.

- Chukwuemeka, E; Ugwuanyi, B.J & Ewuim, N. (2020). Curbing Corruption in Nigeria: The Imperatives of Good Leadership. *African Research Review: An International Multidisciplinary Journal*. 6(3):338-358
- Dike, V. (2018). Corruption in Nigeria: A New Paradigm for Effective Control. African Economic Analysis. www.africaeconomicanalysis.org.
- Dininio, P. & Kpundeh, S.J. (1999). *A Handbook on Fighting Corruption*: Center for Democracy and Governance. Technical Publications Series Washington, D.C
- Fatile, J. O. (2019), Corruption and the Challenges of Good Governance in the Nigerian Public Sector. *Africa's Public Service Delivery and Performance Review*
- Hyden, G & Court, J. (2002). Comparing governance across countries and time: Conceptual challenges. In D. Olowu & S. Bako (eds.) *Better governance and public policy*. Bloomfield: Kumarian Press.
- Kolstad, I., & Wiig, A. (2015). Does democracy reduce corruption? *Democratization*, 23(7), 1198–1215.
- Kunhiyop, S. W. (2008). African Christian ethics. Nairobi: Hippo Books.
- Omoluabi, P. (2017). The Psychological Concomitants of Corruption in Nigeria. In Olurode, L and Anifowose, R. (eds). *Rich but Poor: Corruption and Good Governance in Nigeria*. Lagos; Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Lagos
- Onyiloha, C. A. (2015). “An ethnical appraisal of Nigerian policy on corruption vis-à-vis global anti-corruption practices” in *ANSU Journal of Arts and Humanities*, Vol. 2, No 2; (July), 98-110.
- Otite O, (1986) “On the sociological study of corruption”, university press, Ibadan. Research issue, 1: pp. 37-56
- Richard, N. (2006). Nigeria: Inside the dismal tunnel. Retrieved from <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/prebendalism>
- Sharma, M.P; Sadana, B.L. & Kaur, H. (2013): *Public administration, in theory and practice*. Marg Allahabad. Kitab Mahal.
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2011). *Nigerian human development report 2010/2011 Millennium Edition*, Lagos: UNDP
- United Nations Office on Drugs and crime (2019), Corruption in Nigeria: Patterns and Trends: Second survey on corruption as experienced by the population.

Critical Issues in Offenders' Rehabilitation in the 21st Century Nigeria

Philip N. NDUBUEZE, PhD

Department of Sociology,
Federal University Dutse, Jigawa State, Nigeria
Email: philip.n@fud.edu.ng

Abstract

The 21st century Nigeria is characterized by new patterns of crime and criminality. Traditional crimes that were hitherto committed solely in the physical space are now increasingly being transported to the cyberspace. Besides, some novel technology-based crimes have also emerged. Digital technologies have exacerbated the crime problem as they allow for the speedy commission of crime and the dramatic widening of the victimization scope. Arguably, this scenario has led to an upsurge in the rates of crime across the globe with perhaps a corresponding rise in the number of cases that are processed by the criminal justice system (CJS). The courts are dealing with more cyber-related cases today than they did two decades ago. This underscores the need for effective rehabilitation of offenders including cyber offenders. National governments are therefore, enormously concerned about the rehabilitation of offenders to prevent criminal recidivism. This article uses content analysis to examine some critical issues in the rehabilitation of offenders in Nigeria. It underscores the need for practical efforts to be made by correctional operatives towards the effective rehabilitation of offenders either housed in correctional facilities or undertaking non-custodial sanctions in the country. It recommends the re-invigoration of the rehabilitation ideals of corrections as *sine qua non* of guaranteed lower reoffending rates.

Keywords: Criminal Justice System; Juvenile Justice System, Offenders; Recidivism; Rehabilitation

1.0 INTRODUCTION

The rehabilitation of offenders is a major criminal justice concern in the 21st century. Gideon (2013) argued that the realization that about 90% of incarcerated people would eventually be released to the communities has raised concerns about how they are treated in correctional facilities and the preparedness of society to receive them upon release. Robertson and Wallace (2016) identified rehabilitation treatment as one of the pragmatic roles of the justice system. They argued that the essence of rehabilitation is to ensure that offenders are unlikely to engage in criminal behaviour in the future. Cullen (2012) expressed joy that criminologists who, hitherto, have some reservations about 'state-enforced therapy' are now keen about rehabilitation.

Rehabilitation is one of the core objectives of the Nigerian Correctional Service Act of 2019. Section 2, sub-section 1 (C) of the Act seeks to “enhance the focus of correction and promotion of reformation, rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders” [emphasis added]. However, several factors have militated against the effective rehabilitation of offenders in contemporary correctional services. Some of such factors include lack of awareness and consideration of the rehabilitative needs of special need offenders, different perception of punishment by offenders, uniformed correctional intervention for adults and juveniles, gaps in the rehabilitation programmes in the juvenile justice system, and so on.

The need to effectively rehabilitate offenders including those with special needs has dominated the discourse around criminal justice reforms in Nigeria. However, several issues that pertains to the rehabilitation of offenders in the 21st century have not been adequately discussed by penologists. For example, while Walsh and Yun (2015) acknowledged that correctional scholars are increasingly emphasizing rehabilitation in view of emerging treatment modalities; they did not discuss the factors that militate against the effective rehabilitation of offenders. Similarly, a recent study by Omorogiuwa and Egoh (2021) which assessed the rehabilitation programmes in Oko and Sapele Road Correctional Services, Benin City, Nigeria sampled only female inmates. This article, therefore uses content analysis to examine some critical issues in offenders’ rehabilitation in the 21st century Nigeria.

2.0 CONCEPTS OF REHABILITATION AND OFFENDERS

Although social science concepts are never universal in their definitions, scholars have always attempted to offer some plausible explanation of the concepts. In this section, the concepts of rehabilitation and offenders are briefly explained.

Rehabilitation

Tewksbury (2015) defined rehabilitation as activities that are geared towards restoring offenders to their original, assumed noncriminal state. Rehabilitation achieves the goal of crime prevention not by controlling the offender but changing his/her criminal inclination through treatment (Clear & Dammer, 2003). It has been argued that the idea that criminals can be re-oriented from their criminal tendencies during incarceration and returned to society as law-abiding individuals is probably the major justification for the establishment of the criminal justice system (Burkoff &

Weaver, 2011). An effective rehabilitation programme, therefore, should ensure that an offender, upon completion of the programme, develops an allergy to crime. It is this kind of attitude of mind that will prevent him or her from re-offending.

Offenders

An offender basically refers to an individual who has committed a forbidden act. However, from a criminal justice perspective, an offender generally refers to a person who has committed a crime. Clear and Dammer (2003) opined that for every offender in prison or jail, there are about four offenders in the street. Gideon (2013) identified some categories of offenders with special needs in correctional institutions to include juveniles, incarcerated females, chronically and mentally ill inmates, older persons among others. Given that these offenders are unique in some ways, suggests that their peculiar or individual characteristics should be considered when designing their rehabilitation programmes.

3.0 THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

This discourse is anchored on the rehabilitation theory. Rehabilitation theory assumes that an individuals who breaks the law needs help to be restored the law abiding state prior to the offending. Therefore, the focus is less on inflicting pain on the offender and more on getting the offender realize that he or she erred and more importantly taking practical steps to assisting the offender to become responsible again. Mention the chief proponent of the theory you are applying

The 1960s heralded a wide shift to the ideals of rehabilitation or reformation of criminals in the United States (Tewksbury, 2015). The idea of rehabilitation is based on the medical model that presupposes that criminals are “sick”, require treatment and can be “cured” during incarceration so that they can return to society as law-abiding and productive persons (Burkoff & Weaver, 2011; Owen et al, 2015; Tewksbury, 2015). A variant of the rehabilitation theory known as Risk-Needs-Responsivity (RNR) was developed by Andrews and Bonta in 1998. The RNR approach to rehabilitation seeks to reduce the probability of offenders engaging in any act that will harm the community and is widely used in western correctional system (Mulcahy, 2019).

Correctional institutions and programmes in Nigeria are in dire need of reforms (see, Joseph et. al. 2021; Omorogiuwa & Egoh, 2021). Vocational training, adult education, substance abuse treatment, sex offenders’ surveillance/treatment programmes and so on need to be reinvigorated.

Unless concrete efforts are made to “cure” offenders that are housed in correctional centres across the country or undergoing non-custodial correctional programmes; they would return to society unreformed. This will ultimately have profound implications for recidivism rates in the country.

Critical Issues in Offenders’ Rehabilitation

Criminal punishment has historically been guided by certain objectives. One of such objectives that has remained enduring is rehabilitation. However, rehabilitation practices have not been static. It has remained fluid and dynamic. This section discusses some critical issues in offenders’ rehabilitation.

- i.) *Relationship between risk factors and treatment/recidivism:* Some studies have investigated the link between risk factors and treatment as well as recidivism. Woessner and Schwedler (2014) examined the relationship between prison climate changes in dynamic risk factors and recidivism using a sample of 285 male violent and sexual offenders. In doing that, they tried to link improvements in the risk factors with challenges in the risk of re-offending. The study did not find any relationship between within-treatment changes and recidivism. In other words, it indicated that improvement to specific risk factors do not necessarily result in a lowered risk in criminal involvement. However, a similar study by Fennessy and Huss (2013) examined several risk variables related to successful completion of a federal pre-trial release programme using a large and demographically diverse sample of pre-trial defendants. Results, from the logistic regression examining success type for all defendants, revealed that younger age, being male, having an substance abuse problem, being of ethnic minority, having at least one prior failure to appear, having one or more prior escapes, and failure to graduate from high school all increased the chances of supervision failure. Furthermore, a study by Chu, Daffem, Thomas and Lim (2012) investigated the socio-demographic characteristics, risk and rate of criminal recidivism in a cohort of 165 male youth offenders in Singapore, with 58 being members of gangs. Their multivariate analyses indicated that offenders who had gang affiliation were significantly more likely to have histories of substance use, weapon use and violence than those who had no gang affiliation. They concluded that there was a relationship between gang affiliation and criminal recidivism and called for more intensive assessment and

tailored interventions for offenders who are affiliated to gangs. This sentiment is corroborated by a study by Dargis and Koenigs (2018) which identified six offenders' subtypes in a large, prison population using measures of broad personality threats. The study found that the offender groups were different in terms of important treatment-oriented variables as well as mental health, criminality, cognitive ability, impulsivity and substance use. They concluded that the findings highlight potential treatment and intervention strategies that may be tailored to the specific needs of the incarcerated offenders. The foregoing underscores the need for a review of the correctional programmes in Nigeria to factor in the peculiar needs of the individual offenders. That way, offenders who are incarcerated in Nigerian correctional centres will be truly reformed during their stay in the custodial centres and will less likely re-offend when they are released after serving their sentences.

- ii.) ***Offenders' perceptions of risk factors for themselves and for others:*** Holliday, King and Heilburn (2013) examined offenders' understanding of general risk factors and their own risk factors using a sample of 88 male offenders who returned to the community from prison. They found that the sample appreciated the risk factors that generally increased their risk of future offending, but did not consider these risk factors as relevant to them. The researchers were concerned about how to improve offenders' awareness of their personal risk factors and the impact of the deficits on recidivism risk. The Nigerian society must do more than just meted out criminal punishment on its members that break the law. Arguably, the rehabilitation process is not complete unless the offender on release has been re-oriented to the point that he or she is less likely to re-offend and return to prison. To achieve this goal, there is need for correctional officers and concerned professionals to identify the personal factors that predispose offenders to criminal behaviour and assist them to mitigate them. For example, being unemployed or having a drug addiction problem may trigger criminal behaviour in certain individuals. Therefore, once these underlining problems are solved, the individual may less likely be involved in crime in the future.
- iii.) ***Lack of awareness and consideration of the rehabilitative needs of special needs offenders:*** There has been renewed interest in special needs offenders in correctional institutions. These offenders may include: females, juveniles, the elderly, the mentally

ill, the chronically ill, nursing mothers, drug addicts, sexual offenders, offenders with intellectual and developmental disabilities and so on. Gideon (2013), who identified some of these offenders, underscored the fact that special need offenders have certain peculiarities and risk challenges which correctional institutions need to address in order to cater for their various rehabilitative needs. However, operatives of correctional institutions in Nigeria and many other countries seem not to appreciate the peculiarities of these categories of the prison population and do not always factor it in their rehabilitation programmes. Also, Hutchison, Hummer and Wooditch (2013) interrogated treatment programmes that are available for offenders with intellectual and developmental disabilities (I&DD) in county jails and probation and parole offices in Pennsylvania with a view to examining the treatment models. They reported that the result revealed a lack of knowledge of I&DD of clients by top management of agencies responsible for supervising a majority of the offending population in the state. Also, nearly half of the county jail wardens who completed the questionnaires were not sure of the number of I&DD they serve at any point in time. They also found that almost two-thirds of county probation and parole directors were not sure of the number of I&DD clients they served. This scenario is worrisome as the lack of awareness of the peculiar needs of special need offenders will impede their effective rehabilitation. This is reiterated in a result of a study by Stewart and Wilton (2015) which revealed the complex needs of offenders with a mental disorder and underscore the dire need for specialized interventions by correctional institutions. Offenders with intellectual and developmental disabilities in Nigeria correctional centres need special attention. Likewise, other categories of special need offenders like pregnant women and nursing mothers. Their need for special medical care and counselling should be catered for.

- iv.) ***Different perceptions of punishment by offenders:*** Lacey (1988, p.7) defined punishment as “the state’s imposition of unpleasant consequences on an offender for her offence”. This definition raises some fundamental assumptions which, for ages, have guided the application of punishment by the agencies of criminal justice system. First, punishment in its formal sense, connotes the state’s reaction to law violation. Second, it is often administered by state agents such as the relevant agents of criminal justice system. Third, it is not in any way meant to be pleasant to the offender, if it must

achieve its deterrence objective and fourth, it is usually proportionate to the offence committed by the offender. This definition, therefore, underpins the arguments of the classical school that punishment should be proportionate to crime. However, the neo-classical school argument is centred on the need for punishment to fit the criminal (see, Igbo 2007) as at least this would serve the rehabilitative need of the offender. Notwithstanding these traditional perspectives of punishment, a diverse range of opinions on punishment exist among offenders. Ginneken and Hayes' (2017) analyses of two empirical studies on the subjective experiences of imprisonment and probation indicated that offenders are not agreed on their interpretations of punishment. They found that some perceived punishment as only the deprivation of liberty, while others expected the infliction of other hard punishments. There are also those who considered unintended negative consequences during or after their sentence as part of their punishment. They, therefore, argued that this highlights the failure of punishment to consistently communicate its content to offenders. Arguably, the extent to which offenders understand the objective of punishment would determine how they embrace the rehabilitation programmes available in correctional institutions and how they are eventually rehabilitated. Correctional warders in Nigeria need to, from the outset, clearly communicate the objective of punishment to convicts. This would, perhaps, set them on the path to ultimate rehabilitation.

- v.) ***Correctional intervention programmes for adults may not work for juveniles:*** Kim, Merlo and Benekos (2013) examined and compared the effect of sizes across different intervention programmes so as to determine how interventions fared across populations. The result of the analysis revealed that what works for adults may not necessary work for juveniles. The authors further pointed out that juveniles are more predisposed to drug-treatment programmes, educational, vocational and work programmes, as well as cognitive-behavioural programmes. Nonetheless, they concluded that there is no one model that can suit the rehabilitative needs of both youth and juveniles. Letourneau, Shields, Nair, Kahn, Sandler and Van diver's (2018) study in Maryland and Oregon, United States, found that juvenile registration and notification polices did not prevent first-time sexual offenses. There is, therefore, the need for different correctional intervention programmes for adults and juveniles in Nigerian

correctional facilities. This way, the rehabilitative needs of each of the groups will be met. Juveniles have a different orientation from adults. This is exacerbated by the digital revolution. Juveniles are adventurous, music loving and are overtly fun-seeking. These and many other characteristics of young people need to be considered when designing their correctional programmes.

- vi.) ***Gaps in rehabilitation programmes in juvenile justice system (JJS)***: There is a consensus among experts around the world that several gaps exist in the rehabilitation programmes in juvenile justice system (see, Gideon, 2013; Salekin, 2015, Siegel, 2009). White (2019) study in Maricopa County Juvenile Probation Department, United States, revealed that only about 25% of the sampled youth received treatment services. Atilola (2013), on the other hand, observed that although there is great prospect for more children and young people to be processed through the juvenile/youth justice system in Nigeria, community and institutionally-based structures for the system are very inadequate. Ellis, Gately, Rogers and Horrigan (2018) examined public attitudes to sentencing young offenders in Western Australia and found that the expectation is towards punishment, even though rehabilitation with an opportunity for repentance is also considered. Juveniles, arguably given their relatively young age, are more susceptible to change of attitude than full grown adults. This sentiment was perhaps shared by Abrams (as cited in Abrams, Jordan & Montero, 2018, p.111) when he posited that “the establishment of a separate juvenile court, for example, often relies on and produces views that youth are less culpable than adults, more capable of change and rehabilitation, and more deserving of protection from the harsh and punitive conditions of adult criminal justice system”. Salekin (2015) maintained that social and political climate determine the nature of treatment juveniles would receive in correctional facilities, be it rehabilitation or punishment and that this can influence legislative and policy change.

4.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The 21st century has led to a rude awakening on the dynamics of rehabilitation of offenders. There is a growing global concern that correctional programmes are falling short of their objectives. This concern seems to be more pronounced in Nigeria where correctional programmes are in dire need

of reforms. The article discussed some critical issues in the rehabilitation of offenders in the 21st century. It underscores the need for periodic appraisal of corrections programmes in Nigeria to identify gaps and address them. That way, the country will be able to effectively rehabilitate offenders.

There is need for correctional facilities in Nigeria to adopt in practical terms the Risk-Needs-Responsivity (RNR) approach to rehabilitation. This model will ensure that the fundamental objective of rehabilitating different categories of offenders, especially those with special needs such as juveniles, pregnant/nursing mothers, old people etc. is achieved in the most effective and efficient manner. With the RNR approach offenders will be better rehabilitated. The juvenile justice system in Nigeria should be adequately equipped to cater for the seeming growing number of juveniles who offend in this digital age. Finally, there is need for all stakeholders to work together towards tackling the impediments to rehabilitation discussed in this paper. That way, recidivism rates in contemporary Nigeria will be significantly reduced.

References

- Abrams, L.S., Jordan, S.P., & Montero, L.A. (2018). What is a juvenile? A cross-national comparison of youth justice systems. *Youth Justice*, 18 (2) 111-130. DOI: 10.1177/1473225418779850
- Atilola, O. (2013). Juvenile/youth justice management in Nigeria: Making a case for diversion programmes. *Youth Justice*, 13 (10) 3-16. DOI: 10.1177/1365480212474731
- Burkoff, J.M. & Weaver, R.L. (2011). *Criminal law: What matters and why?* Austin: Wolters Kluwer.
- Chu, C.M., Daffern, M., Thomas, S. & Lim, J.Y. (2012). Violence risk and gang affiliation in youth offenders: a recidivism study. *Psychology, Crime & Law*, 18 (3), 299-315.
- Clear, T.R. & Dammer, H.R. (2003). *The offender in the community* (2nd ed.). Canada: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Cullen, F.T. (2012). Taking rehabilitation seriously: Creativity, science, and the challenge of offender change. *Punishment & Society* 14 (1) 94-114. DOI: 10.1177/1462474510385973
- Dargis, M. & Koenigs, M. (2018). Personality traits differentiate subgroups of criminal offenders with distinct cognitive, affective, and behavioural profiles. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*. 1- 24. DOI:10.1177/0093854818770693

- Ellis, S., Gately, N., Rogers, S., & Horrigan, A. (2018). Give them a chance: Public attitudes to sentencing young offenders in Western Australia. *Youth Justice*, 18 (2) 169-187. DOI:10.1177/1473225418791660
- Fennessy, M. & Huss, M.T. (2013). Predicting success in a large sample of federal pretrial offenders: The influence of ethnicity. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 40 (1), 40-56. DOI:10.1177/009385412459622
- Gideon, L. (2013). Preface. In L. Gideon (ed.). *Special needs offenders in correctional institutions* (pp. vii-viii). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Gideon, L. (2013). Introduction: Special needs offenders. In L. Gideon (ed.). *Special needs offenders in correctional institutions* (pp.1-20). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Ginneken, E.F. & Hayes, D. (2017). ‘Just’ punishment? Offenders views on the meaning and severity of punishment. *Criminology & Criminal Justice*, 17 (1) 62-78. DOI: 10.1177/48895816654204
- Holliday, S. B., King, C. & Heilburn, K. (2013). Offenders’ perceptions of risk factors for self and others: Theoretical importance and some empirical data. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 40 (9) 1044-1061. DOI: 10.1177/00938548134813482308
- Hutchison, M., Hummer, D. & Wooditch, A. (2013). A survey of existing programme strategies for offenders with intellectual and developmental disabilities under correctional supervision in Pennsylvania. *Probation Journal*, 60 (1) 56-72. DOI: 10.1177/0264550512470189
- Igbo, E.U.M. (2007). *Introduction to criminology*. Nsukka: University of Nigeria Press.
- Joseph, O.E. et al. (2021) Prison overcrowding trend in Nigeria and policy implications on health, *Cogent Social Sciences*, 7:1, 1956035, DOI: 10.1080/23311886.2021.1956035
- Kim, B., Merlo, A.V., & Benekos, P.J. (2013). Effective correctional intervention programmes for juveniles: review and synthesis of meta-analytic evidence. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*, 15 (3), 169-189. DOI:10.1350/ijps.2013.15.3.310
- Lacey, N. (1998). *State punishment: Political principles and community values*. London: Routledge.
- Letourneau, B.J., Shields, R.T., Nair, R., Kahn, G., Sandler, J.C. & Vandiver, D.M. (2018). Juvenile registration and notification policies fail to prevent first-time sexual offenses: An

- extension of findings to two new sites. *Criminal Justice Review*. 1-15.
DOI:10.1177/0887403418786783
- Mulcahy, J. (2019). The evolution of punishment and rehabilitation. *Irish Criminal Law Journal*.
file:///C:/Users/Professor/Downloads/TheEvolutionofPunishmentIrishCriminalLaw
Journal%20(1).pdf
- Nigerian Correctional Service Act, 2019
- Omorogiuwa T. B. E. & Egoh P. R. (2021). Assessment of rehabilitation programmes on female inmates in Oko and 56 Sapele Road Correctional Services, Benin City, Nigeria. *African Journal of Social Work*, 11(5), 264 -272.
- Owen, S.S. Fradella, H.F, Burke, T.W. & Joplin, J.W. (2015). *Foundations of criminal Justice*. Oxford University Press.
- Salekin, R.T. (2015). *Forensic evaluation and treatment of juveniles: Innovation and best practice*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Siegel, L.J. (2009). *Essentials of Criminal Justice* (6th ed). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.
- Stewart, L.A. & Wilton, G. (2015). Correctional outcomes of offenders with mental disorder. *Criminal Justice Studies: A Critical Journal of Crime, Law and Society*, 27 (1), 63-81.
- Tewksbury, R. (2015). *Introduction to corrections*. New York: Wolters Kluwer law & Business.
- Wash, A. & Yun, I. (2015). The philosophical and ideological underpinnings of corrections. In M. Maguire and D. Okada (eds.). *Critical Issues in Crime and Justice: Thought, Policy and Practice*, (2nd Ed.). (pp. 365 -378). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- White, C. (2019). Treatment services in the juvenile justice system: Examining the use and funding of services by youth on probation. *Youth Violence and Juvenile Justice*, 17 (1) 62-87.
DOI:10.1177/1541204017728997
- Woessner, G. & Schwedler, A. (2014). Correctional treatment of sexual and violent offenders: Therapeutic change, prison climate, and recidivism. *Criminal Justice and Behaviour*, 41 (7) 862-879. DOI: 10.1177/0093854813520544